LECTURERS' AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS AND PREFERENCES ABOUT ESL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN NAMIBIA: TOWARDS AN INTERVENTION MODEL

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated tertiary lecturers' and students' perceptions and preferences on the provision of corrective feedback in the English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom at the Namibia University of Science and Technology. The study focused on students' speaking and writing skills in the English course, Language in Practice.

This study used a triangulation design for data collection and analysis. Numerical data were obtained through closed-response items on questionnaires, while text data were collected through face-to-face interviews and class observation. The data analysis was mainly informed by two theoretical frameworks – Skill acquisition theory and Conversational theory. Skill acquisition theory contributes critically to corrective feedback especially in the context of practice that leads students from conscious thinking to more spontaneous use of ESL. Conversational theorists believe in collaboration and interaction between learners to actively engage in conversations with other speakers of the L2.

The findings of this study reveal that corrective feedback is perceived by both lecturers and students as an essential aspect of developing ESL productive skills. Students preferred more correction than their lecturers provided. Both lecturers and students concurred that providing corrections to English errors, accompanied by comments, is the best practice. Students had high expectations to receive explicit correction with metalinguistic explanations. However, lecturers mostly provided explicit corrective feedback with no metalinguistic explanations. Lecturers identified time constraints as an obstacle preventing them from providing detailed corrective

feedback with comments. Both lecturers and students indicated that the common practice for corrective feedback on students' ESL written work is underlining errors. Lecturers concentrate more on form than accuracy when providing corrective feedback in ESL. Students preferred immediate corrective feedback for their spoken errors, while lecturers advocated delayed corrective feedback. Corrective feedback on students' spoken errors is either provided explicitly or is being ignored. The findings of this study oppose the claims of some scholars who argue that the majority of students are depressed by corrective feedback in L2 learning and use their argument to oppose the ESL corrective feedback practice.

Based on the synergistic findings of this study and other empirical studies on corrective feedback, explicit correction was frequently practised in ESL classes; recasts were well suited to communicative classroom discourse. However, this study maintained the notion that corrective feedback practice cannot solely and rigidly focus on any single standardised corrective feedback strategy due to the multidimensional and cultural nature of language classrooms. Recasts, that correct students explicitly without announcing it, are multifaceted, so they should be applicable across all ESL instructional settings.

The contribution this study makes is a ten-stage Intervention Model that works towards the effectiveness of ESL corrective feedback at tertiary level in Namibia. The major recommendations are that lecturers should carefully scrutinise the specific ESL target language features; practise a variety of suitable corrective feedback techniques; and cater for individual students' specific needs and preferences.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

CALL	Computer Assisted Language Learning
CF	Corrective Feedback
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
DNEA	Directorate of National Examinations and Assessment
ELPP	English Language Proficiency Programme
ELTDP	English Language Teacher Development Project
ESL	English Second Language
FL	Foreign Language
JSC	Junior Secondary Certificate
L2	Second Language
LIP	Language in Practice
MEC	Ministry of Education and Culture
NSSC	Namibia Senior Secondary Certificate
NUST	Namibia University of Science and Technology
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SMS	Short Message Service
UNAM	University of Namibia
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

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DEDICATION

To my late parents, Andreas ya Andreas Mungungu and Helena Ndahambelela Mungungu, who loved, groomed and inspired me to be the person I am today.

DECLARATION

. I, Saara Sirkka Mungungu-Shipale, hereby declare that this study is a true reflection of my own research and that this work, in whole or part, has not been submitted for a degree in any other institution of higher education.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 Orientation of the study

The role of error correction in English as a Second Language (ESL) has been debated amongst scholars and linguists for decades. The debate on the efficacy of corrective feedback became even more crucial with the introduction of the communicative approach. The goal of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) instruction is to make meaningful communication and language use a focus of all classroom activities (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 90). A greater tolerance of error is proposed by CLT since classroom instruction has shifted its focus "from language forms to functional language within communicative contexts" (Brown, 2002, p. 219). The key in deciding on error treatment is the level of comprehensibility or, the level of disruption of communication. Corrective feedback is related to Second Language (L2) learning, because it leads learners to notice L2 forms (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010). Corrective feedback can be explicit or implicit, creating the subsequent cognitive ability to detect an erroneous point.

The main demand on teachers is that they should not correct all errors of their students. Hubbard, Jones, Thornton and Wheeler (1983) explained that "teachers will also have to allow errors to go uncorrected on many occasions – something which the behaviourist would not feel happy about" (p. 135). Therefore, the issue of

corrective feedback in ESL learning and teaching becomes a crucial concern for both teachers and students.

Error in its natural context is a problematic term because it implies a deviation from the norm. Similarly, correction is a term which depicts that something has gone wrong and, therefore, must be rectified. When a Second Language (L2) is learned in a classroom, it is well known by language teachers that errors occur often. Therefore, dealing with errors becomes an integral part of L2 teaching and learning.

Richards and Schmidt (2002) define corrective feedback in teaching as "comments or other information that learners receive concerning their success on learning tasks or tests, either from the teacher or other persons" (p. 199). According to Russell and Spada (2006, p. 134), corrective feedback in teaching is any feedback provided to a student, from any source, that contains evidence of learner error in any language form, including oral or written, implicit or explicit. Therefore, considering both definitions, feedback may be considered as any information communicated to the student about his or her performance that is intended to modify the student's thinking or behaviour for the purpose of improved performance. Providing feedback in an educational context is thus generally regarded as crucial to improving students' knowledge, skill acquisition and performance. This study, therefore, seeks to investigate tertiary lecturers' and students' perceptions, practices and preferences on providing corrective feedback with the purpose of composing an Intervention Model for corrective feedback to be used in an English L2 classroom.

1.1.1 English language proficiency in Namibia

English language proficiency has been associated with the academic success of students in educational systems where English is used as a medium of instruction. According to Van den Berg (1996), (as cited in Van Eeden, de Beer & Coetzee, 2001, p. 171), language proficiency is the single most important moderator of test performance. A good pass in English language as a subject is the major requirement for students to gain entry to an institution of higher learning in Namibia, regardless of the good grades that students may obtain for other Grade 12 subjects. Wolfaardt (2005) observed that, when it comes to the results for Grade 12 external examinations "the learners were not performing as well as expected and it seemed that they were struggling with the new medium of instruction" (p. 1). Therefore, many students who pass Grade 12 examination end up not getting admitted into tertiary level institutions due to poor performance in English.

English is used in Namibia as the official language, medium of instruction and a lingua franca. The researcher of this study teaches an ESL course to first year students at a tertiary institution, the Namibia University of Science and Technology, and from her experience as a lecturer she noticed that, despite the fact that English is incorporated as the primary instructional medium in schools, even students who have made it to the tertiary level still struggle to communicate properly in English and to comprehend the language well. This becomes evident when these students get admission to tertiary institutions where they are usually confronted with language culture shock when realising that their English language proficiency is not on par with what they are expected to have at tertiary level. The researcher of this study, as

a lecturer, realised that some students lack, for instance, both the vocabulary and sufficient grammar to enable them at least to cope with their studies at tertiary level. As a result, some students struggle to progress successfully, while others end up dropping out due to their poor English language competency.

Some undergraduate students' poor English language competence is not only identifiable in Namibia; it has also been proven by a study (Ngwaru, 2014) at Great Zimbabwe University. Great Zimbabwe University offers the Bachelor of Education Honours Programme which was originally designed mainly for local students; however, other students within the sub-Saharan region can also be admitted to this programme. ESL proficiency is one of the major admission requirements for all students, since English is the medium of instruction. It is compulsory for all foreign students, especially if English is not the mother tongue, to take an ESL bridging course which is specifically designed for the purpose of developing and improving communicative language skills and to allow students to embark on their studies effectively.

Low levels of English language proficiency were observed amongst a group of forty two undergraduate Namibian students who went to further their studies at Great Zimbabwe University. Ngwaru (2014) conducted the study to find out the type of errors that Namibian students made in written assignments and to identify the difficulties they encountered when participating in class. In order to identify possible strategies to eliminate these problems, Ngwaru went on to study how these obstacles negatively affected the students' ability to communicate effectively during learning.

The results of Ngwaru's study reveal that, "Namibian students face a lot of challenges in academic language both writing and speaking which subsequently impact negatively on their learning" (p. 709). Ngwaru related this problem to "historical, political and pedagogical reasons" (p. 709). Due to the students' English language low proficiency levels, the findings of Ngwaru's study disclose a big gap between the students' performance and "the academic standards expected of them by the University" (p. 709). Based on the findings, Ngwaru recommended that Namibian students should be given the ESL bridging course with several additional remedial activities, beyond the standard course offerings, in terms of both academic and linguistic support measures. Ngwaru noted that the one-semester bridging course would not be enough to improve the students' communicative competence enough to be in readiness with their studies. According to Ngwaru (2014), "research studies about the use of second/foreign languages as media of learning in African classrooms have indicated that many of the learners demonstrate low proficiency levels in the language of education particularly in English because of several reasons including: the quality of teachers, inadequate learning materials and limited opportunities to use English outside the classroom" (p. 710). These reasons, that are often assumed to negatively affect students' English language proficiency in Africa, are clearly observable in Namibian students.

Likewise, the University of Namibia (UNAM) realised the serious problem of students' poor English language competency and developed the English for General Communication. Many students perform very well in their Grade 12 academic subjects except in ESL, due to poor English language competence. English for

General Communication is a tailor-made course designed for Namibian students who do not manage to obtain a C symbol in ESL, which is a qualification symbol for a student to be admitted at UNAM. Due to the same reasons highlighted by Ngwaru (2014), namely “the quality of teachers, inadequate learning materials and limited opportunities to use English outside the classroom” (p. 710), many students in previously disadvantaged and under-resourced schools in Namibia perform poorly. The majority of students struggle to obtain the C symbol in their end-of-year ESL examinations that is required for them to continue to tertiary level.

Wolfaardt (2005), who worked at the Directorate of National Examinations and Assessment (DNEA) of the Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture, in Namibia, confirmed the problem of students’ poor English language competencies at high school exit level. She observed that students were performing below the expected standard, which seemed to be the result of the difficulties they were encountering with the English language, which at the time was still a relatively new medium of instruction. Wolfaardt referred to English medium of instruction as “the new medium of instruction in Namibia” (p. 2357) due to the fact that English was introduced as medium of instruction only in 1990, soon after the independence of Namibia. Wolfaardt (2005) attributed students’ English language low proficiency levels to the language policy for schools that was recently implemented in Namibian schools.

1.1.2 Language policy for schools in Namibia

The policy document, titled *Language Policy for Schools in Namibia*, was revised and implemented after Namibian independence, in 1991. "The national language policy for schools in Namibia (MEC 1993) stipulates that the medium of instruction in Grades 1 – 3, the Junior Primary phase, should be the mother tongue and English will be taught as a subject, and from Grade 4 onwards, the medium of instruction should change to solely English" (Wolfaardt, 2005, p. 2358).

At the time the language policy was implemented, statistics revealed that English as the first language was only spoken by 0,8% of the Namibian population (Wolfaardt, 2005). This illustrates that English language was going to be taught by teachers who are non-native English speakers. Furthermore, these same teachers were the products of the old education system that was used in Namibia before independence in which they studied through the Afrikaans medium of instruction. Twenty five years since the implementation of the language policy, many of these teachers may still be in the system. This transition caused difficulties for both teachers and students trying to learn English and adapt to a new system. Consequently, teaching and learning ESL as a subject could be a great challenge to both teachers and learners and could negatively affect the quality of teaching and students' performance.

The causes of low English language proficiency levels being observed amongst students are deep-rooted in the history of English language usage in Namibian schools. Poor English language competency is evident amongst students today, from primary to secondary schools and on to tertiary institutions. The low English

language proficiency level amongst students has been identified as a major concern by the Namibian government. As a result, the government took steps to find out what could be done to improve the students' English language proficiency. The first step was to evaluate the actual English proficiency level of the teachers who are teaching the students, at school level. A needs analysis survey was conducted together with a diagnostic test for teachers. According to Wolfaardt (2005), "the English Language Teacher Development Project (ELTDP, 1999) conducted a national survey on the English Language proficiency of Namibian teachers in the three phases: junior primary, senior primary and junior secondary." (p. 2360). The outcome from both assessment tools, a survey and a diagnostic test, proved that the level of English for many teachers in Namibia remained a serious concern.

The findings of the survey illustrates that "the junior secondary teachers performed better than their upper primary counterparts, who in turn performed better than their lower primary colleagues" (Wolfaardt 2005, p. 2360). Reading and grammar usage emerged as the weakest features in the Namibian teachers' language proficiency. Wolfaardt explained that "many of the teachers do not have a sufficiently high proficiency in reading skills to enable them to study further at a diploma or higher level. Most teachers do not have any problems with pronunciation, vocabulary and giving instructions, but the problem areas are grammar, elicitation techniques, the use of non-verbal support (resource materials), and to explain concepts." (p. 2360). The findings further reveal that a number of teachers in remote rural areas did not have relevant teaching qualifications because some did not receive teacher training courses, and teachers generally lacked opportunities to communicate in English

outside the school environment. Wolfaardt highlighted that lower primary teachers whose English language proficiency came out to be the worst, are the ones building the learners' foundation to be ready for English as the medium of instruction from Grade 4 upwards. This suggests that learners who are taught by teachers who are not fluent in English may not get a strong foundation on which they can build their English language skills in future. Therefore, poor language proficiency seems potentially to have a negative impact on examination results throughout the system.

Responding to the English language problems faced by teachers, the Namibian government took a further step to remedy the situation through the implementation of The English Language Proficiency Programme (ELPP) for all teachers. The ELPP is a national mechanism that was developed with the purpose of improving the English language abilities of teachers. A major concern was that the low English language proficiency problem identified amongst teachers could be the cause of the poor English language proficiency found amongst students admitted to tertiary institutions in Namibia.

These reasons do not suggest, in themselves, that the problem of low English language proficiency is a problem with English itself. The problem should rather be attributed more to the way English language is handled, for instance, concerning how English is welcomed, what is done in class and how it is done. In essence, English language proficiency remains a challenge to students at the tertiary level where errors impede effective communication. Low English language proficiency prompted this

study to be carried out with the goal of finding mechanisms to improve the low English language proficiency amongst students at tertiary institutions in Namibia.

1.2 Statement of the problem

In a language learning classroom at tertiary level, correcting errors and providing effective feedback are two of the many challenges that any ESL lecturer faces. Treating students' errors is one of the most controversial topics in L2 instruction and theory, and corrective feedback has perhaps been the most commonly used method for responding to the writing and speaking errors of ESL students. Despite the controversies advanced by some linguists such as Krashen (1982) and Truscott (1999a) concerning the effectiveness of the corrective method, lecturers still use the corrective method in ESL teaching to give encouraging and challenging feedback to their students. However, the problem is that lecturers are not always sure how effective their feedback is and how the students perceive it.

This recurring problem of low English language proficiency has become a challenge at tertiary institutions in Namibia, especially with the first year students. The Namibia University of Science and Technology developed English service courses, specifically to improve students' English language proficiency. The Language in Practice English course is offered as the first level of these English service courses in order to develop students' rudimentary English language competences with grammar (parts of speech and different tenses), essay writing skills, the basic skills of listening and making notes, reading and speaking skills. Despite the fact that this course is offered to students with the purpose of improving their low English proficiency and

enable them to cope with studying at tertiary level, students still struggle to communicate effectively in English. As a result, some students fail to complete their studies due to the fact that they fail to pass English courses. Instead of solely focusing on the students' inability to use English effectively, it may also be necessary to pay attention to the ways in which students are helped to avoid and remove the errors they make when communicating in English. Without providing effective and clear strategies on how ESL students' errors can be treated, the language teaching and learning process remains a challenging task for both lecturers and students in ESL classrooms.

1.3 Research questions

This study sought to answer the following research questions:

- How do ESL lecturers and students perceive corrective feedback at tertiary level?
- How do ESL tertiary level students respond to the corrective feedback provided to their errors?
- What do ESL lecturers and students prefer as far as error treatment practice is concerned and why?
- How can ESL students' errors be treated to promote the correct use of the English language?

1.4 Significance of the study

This study plays a vital role in identifying some possible clues or guiding evidence on how ESL students learn English in Namibia. The findings enabled the researcher

to compose a ten-stage Intervention Model for corrective feedback in an ESL classroom. Error correction and provision of feedback are important aspects of L2 teaching and learning, because making errors is actually inevitable in the language learning process. So far, much has been done in terms of studying error taxonomies; unfortunately, little has been done to investigate lecturers' and students' perceptions, practices and preferences concerning corrective feedback, an important aspect of language teaching and learning. In order to fill this void, this study examined tertiary lecturers' and students' perceptions, practices and preferences in terms of providing corrective feedback in the ESL classroom. The results of this study, therefore, contribute to the growing body of work that examines lecturers' and students' perceptions, practices and preferences in terms of L2 corrective feedback.

This study is also significant in revealing the common learning difficulties and problems that most students experience in the process of learning a second language. In addition, the study could enable language lecturers to recognise the cognitive strategies or mechanisms employed by students when learning a second language. Finally, the results of this study could be valuable to L2 lecturers in adapting their L2 error correction techniques to the needs of their students.

1.5 Limitations of the study

There could be some imperceptible factors which influenced the lecturers' and students' perceptions of error correction and provision of feedback. As far as students are concerned, it could be possible that if they strongly liked or disliked the course or the lecturer who taught the course, they could have the same relationship

with the feedback they received for their work in that specific course. Regarding lecturers, some might have extensive experience in lecturing the course and had gained confidence in treating their student's errors. Others might be new in the teaching field and were not yet well-experienced on how to treat their students' errors and provide effective feedback confidently. These disparities may be factors affecting the data collected from the participants of this study.

Students who are registered at tertiary institutions come from different high schools. These students have probably had very different past experiences with corrective feedback, since they will have been taught by different teachers. The students' responses to this survey, regarding their perceptions and preferences in terms of corrective feedback could be influenced by their prior experiences with their high school teachers' corrective feedback approaches. James (1998) suggested that "students' preferences for certain types of correction cannot be ignored of course; nor should they be put on a pedestal, because they are not necessarily more effective for being preferred" (p. 253). So, even though students' preferences could be highlighted, the fact is that such preferences might not be ideal or more effective than other practices.

This study used a questionnaire as one of the research instruments and assumed that participants understood and answered all the questions in the survey instrument as they were intended. The research instruments contained some questions constructed in the form of Likert scale items where the respondents had a number of possible responses to choose from. One of the types of items constructed for these

questionnaires contained statements and ranking scales to rate the response options. This study assumed that the instructions and wording of the items constructed were suitable for each group, that is, lecturers and students. However, it is possible that a participant might had misunderstood a question and provided an answer that he or she thought was being asked which actually did not reflect what he or she could have answered if he had understood the question correctly. The creation of questions that contained numbers such as 1-4, 1-7 and 1-8 scale ranking of perceptions and preferences were possibly the most prone to be misunderstood, as a participant could possibly confuse the direction of the scale and interpret it vice versa. Furthermore, these types of items also give room to participants to rank answers in such a way that he or she believed was expected rather than his or her actual opinions. Therefore, if this type of confusion happens, it could defeat the purpose of the survey. The study expected and tried to ensure honest responses from the participants.

Another limitation in this study is that the sample sizes of participants were quite small. Class observation was conducted on two hundred and forty students in eight Language in Practice English course classes and eight lecturers who teach these groups. A sample of 40 selected from the two hundred and forty students was interviewed and completed the questionnaires together with eight lecturers.

Lastly, it is regrettable that classroom observation research methodology that was employed in this study did not generate adequate data as anticipated. The focus of observation was on the lecturer and students interaction during the lesson. When errors occurred in the students' utterance, the researcher's intention was to pay extra

attention and closely examine the situation to find out who reacts to the error, whether it is the lecturer, other students, the student himself or herself, or whether nobody reacts to the error at all. As a result, during most of the lessons observed, no significant corrective feedback was provided, though there were some students who made errors. It appeared that the lecturers and students do not have a habit of correcting students' errors promptly. This was confirmed during interviews when some lecturers and students indicated that they preferred corrective feedback to be given later at the end of the activity or during another lesson when they discuss ESL common errors in general.

1.6 Definition of Terms

1.6.1 Error typologies

The most commonly used error categories cover terminology, accuracy and style. However, error typology is flexible enough to accommodate additional or sub-categories of errors. Diagnostic evaluations that seek detailed understanding of the nature and cause of errors may require a more detailed error typology. Scholars who study the types and causes of language errors in second language acquisition classify errors into categories such as *modality*, that is the level of language learner's proficiency; *linguistic level*, for example pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and style; *form*, which refers to omission, insertion and substitution; *type*, which refers to systematic errors, errors in competence versus occasional errors, and errors in performance; *cause*, when the study focuses on interference and inter-language issues; and lastly *norm* versus *system*. *Norm*, refers to what is considered appropriate

in speech or writing for a specific situation within a particular community, while *system* refers to deviation from a grammatical norm which occurs repeatedly, for example, it may happen because it is part of the learner's interlanguage and it is only recognisable by others who are aware that it is an error (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). In the context of this study, ‘error typology’ would be used to refer to the standard approach to quality evaluation of error categories that covers terminology, accuracy and style.

1.6.2 Error versus mistake

At this point, it is necessary to give a clear distinction between “error” and “mistake”, the terms which are sometimes used interchangeably, although they have different meanings. It is vital to come up with suitable definitions of both terms separately and then draw a clear demarcation between their meanings.

1.6.2.1 Error

The issue of errors in language learning and teaching is looked at by researchers from different perspectives. However, defining an error remains a challenging issue which remains inconclusive.

Error, in its natural context, illustrates deviation from the norm; therefore, the term error implies a problem. In general, errors have been viewed as language students’ utterance that deviates from the model they are trying to master (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). Richards and Schmidt (2010, p.184) define an error as the use of language in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as faulty or

incomplete learning. In the same vein, Eun-pyo (2002, p. 1) defines an error as referring to a systematic error of competence, both covert and overt, that deviates from the norms of the target language. A distinction between covert and overt errors was made by Ellis (1996, p. 710) and Brown (2002, p. 220). Covert errors are grammatically correct but not interpretable within the context of communication; on the other hand, overt errors refer to obviously ungrammatical utterances.

Students who learn English as a second language already have a deep knowledge of at least one language, their first language. Therefore, the confusion between the two languages, English as a second language and the first language, could occur. Richards and Schmidt (2010, p. 267) refer in this regard to interlingual errors, defined as transfer errors resulting from a student's first language features, leading to grammatical, lexical or pragmatic errors. For example, in Namibia, in the case of Oshiwambo and English languages, a student may construct a sentence with an interlingual error such as: "She is a girl beautiful." This sentence is a word-for-word translation of Oshiwambo, "Ye okakadona kawa". Errors of this nature are attributable to interlingual transfer and are readily detectable in students' speech and written pieces. The root of this type of error would, however, remain a mystery to a teacher lacking ample knowledge of the student's native language.

Richards and Schmidt (2010) further explained intralingual errors as "overgeneralisations in the target language, resulting from ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete applications of rules, and false concepts hypothesised" (p. 379). Overgeneralisation errors can be identified when students produce non-

standard structures based on other structures of the target language, for example giving the plural form of *mouse* as *mouses* instead of *mice*; while, ignorance of rule restrictions can be defined as the application of rules to inappropriate contexts, for example, *"They works in the garden."* instead of *"They work in the garden."* (Ellis, 1996).

Ellis (1996, p. 710) further comments on error definition by saying that when students fail to develop a structure fully, incomplete application of rules occurs; while, when students do not completely comprehend a distinction in the target language, false concepts are hypothesised. An intralingual error can be identified, for example, when a student produces a sentence such as, "Ice-cream is more sweeter than a chocolate". In this example, the concept of using *more* for comparatives is overgeneralised and mixed up with the rule that comparative adjectives are formed with an adjective + -er, that the student has learnt. This demonstrates Richards and Schmidt's (2010) claim that in the process of language learning when a learner begins to acquire parts of the new language system, intralingual errors are manifested.

To sum up, the definition of error is complex and is still looked at from various points of view. For the purpose of this study, the term error could be defined as the use of language that deviates from the norm; when a student cannot correct himself or herself and when he or she needs explanation and guidance for improvement.

1.6.2.2 Mistake

Unlike errors, mistakes are not necessarily a product of the student's ignorance of language rules. Mistakes are rather committed through habit. A student repeatedly makes a particular mistake no matter how often he or she is corrected. The student can immediately correct this mistake; and yet he or she keeps making the same mistake when speaking or writing, as soon as he or she relaxes into a conversation or what he or she is writing about. In other words, mistakes are made in spontaneous speech and in writing as a result of a wrong functioning of the neuromuscular commands of the brain. The same mistakes are, therefore, not necessarily common among all students.

Linguists have different views of defining the term mistake. Harmer (2007) views *mistake* as the superordinate term of all kinds of deviant utterances of students, and classifies mistakes into three categories: slips, errors and attempts. Slips are the kind of mistakes that students commit and can correct themselves after the mistake has been highlighted to them. Attempts are defined as mistakes that "students make when they try to say something but do not yet know how to say it" (p. 96). Interestingly, since Harmer considers mistake to be an umbrella term for all kind of deviant utterances, he categorises errors as part of mistakes. Hammer defines errors as those types of mistakes that need explanation, because learners are unable to self-correct. Harmer also identified another type of mistake, referred to as a *developmental error*. Harmer (2007) indicated that such errors "occur naturally as the students' language knowledge develops, and they are the result of the students making apparently sensible (but mistaken) assumptions about the way language works" (p. 96). This

type of error can neither be listed as a subcategory of mistakes nor can they be categorised as part of the three types of mistakes listed by Harmer earlier: slips, errors and attempts.

Two further studies provided simple classifications of errors. Firstly, Spratt, Pulverness and Williams (2010, p. 44) offered a division of mistakes consisting of only two categories: errors and slips. In this division, errors were defined as occurring when students try to express something beyond their current level of language knowledge; while slips are caused by tiredness or temporary memory lapse. It is apparent that the definition given to slips by Spratt et al. reflects what is referred to as mistakes in general; whereas, the way Spratt et al. define errors correspond to what Hammer (2007) calls attempts. In any case, according to Spratt et al. (2010, p. 44), students can correct both types of mistakes once they realise they have made them. So, Spratt et al. provided only two categories of mistakes and stated that students are able to correct both types of mistakes, suggesting that students are able to self-correct all kinds of deviances, which cannot be the case.

Secondly, Bartram and Walton (1991) provided another division of mistakes that also embodied two terms: mistakes and slips. Slips were given a similar definition as in the previous cases, while mistakes are described as “wrong language which a native speaker would not usually produce” (p. 21). The definition of mistakes provided by Bartram and Walton (1991) seems to imply that mistakes are mainly the preserve of second language learners. Their definition needs to allow for native speakers to also make mistakes.

The most detailed and probably clearest classification of errors is provided by James (2008) where a four-way taxonomy of errors is presented.

Table A: Classification of errors (James, 2008, pp. 104-113)

Error/mistake type	**Definition**
Slips or lapses	can be detected and self-corrected
Mistakes	can be corrected only if the deviance is pointed out to the student. If a simple indication that there is some deviance is a sufficient prompt for self-correction, then we have a first-order mistake. If additional information is needed, in the form of the exact location and some hint as to the nature of the deviance, then we have a second-order mistake.
Errors	cannot be self-corrected until further relevant input has been provided and converted into intake by the learner. In other words, errors require further relevant learning to take place before they can be self-corrected.
Solecisms	breaches of the rules of correctness as laid down by purists and usually taught in schools: split infinitives and dangling participles, for example.

To conclude, James' classification including four deviations seems to be the most useful categorisation because it takes into consideration the ability and inability of the student to self-correct and the amount of correction needed.

1.7 Structure of the dissertation

This study is divided into six chapters. The first chapter provides an overview of the whole thesis. An orientation of the study is explained and ESL corrective feedback at

tertiary level is examined. The lack of studies into lecturers' and students' perceptions and preferences is observed. This dissertation investigates lecturers' and students' perceptions and preferences about ESL corrective feedback in Namibia. This chapter includes the statement of the problem; the research questions; and the significance and some limitations of the study. At the end, the chapter discusses the difference between the terms error and mistake.

Chapter 2 focuses on a review of the related literature based on perceptions and preferences about ESL corrective feedback. The chapter also discusses the long and controversial background of *error correction* in the field of Second Language Acquisition. The chapter further discusses SLA theories and corrective feedback, and then highlights the theoretical framework for this study. In addition, Chapter 2 looks into the debate on what error is to be corrected, when it should be corrected, and who should provide the corrective feedback to ESL students. From the empirical studies reviewed, the chapter reaches some conclusions that correcting errors effectively usually depends upon the methodological perspective to which a teacher ascribes.

Chapter 3 provides the research design and methodology of the study. The chapter discusses in detail and explains how the study was carried out and mentions the methods and research tools used to gather the data needed to answer the research questions. This chapter also specifies the population and samples and explains the procedures used to identify the subjects of the study. Finally, the chapter indicates the theoretical framework and the research ethics.

Chapter 4 illustrates the first part of data analysis that discusses the findings about participants' demographic information and self-knowledge assessment as well as the text data obtained through class observations and the participant interviews.

Chapter 5 presents the second part of data analysis, discussing the numerical and theoretical data collected from the questionnaires about corrective feedback focusing on speaking and writing skills in the ESL classroom.

Chapter 6 concludes the study. This chapter summarises the findings by answering the research questions. The chapter looks at similarities and differences in the participants' perceptions and preferences about ESL corrective feedback. This chapter also presents the ten-stage Intervention Model that is proposed to be used as a guide for ESL lecturers when planning corrective feedback for their students. The chapter also suggests possible future research.

1.8 Conclusion

This chapter began with an introduction to the study by providing the orientation of the study. Next, the statement of the problem was discussed and then the research questions were presented. This was followed by discussion of the significance of the study, in some detail, to highlight the reasons, in particular, why this study is relevant to various ESL practitioners. Some limitations of the study were also outlined. Finally, the terms error and mistake were discussed. The chapter ended by itemising the structure and stages of the whole study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided the background of the study, statement of the problem, research questions, significance and limitations, and finally discussed the difference between the terms error and mistake. This chapter begins with providing the historical background of error correction and SLA. The next section highlights some SLA theories. The fourth section states the theoretical framework of the study. The fifth section differentiates between error correction, error treatment and corrective feedback. The sixth section illustrates error general classification. The seventh section highlights the types of corrective feedback strategies. The eighth section presents the debate on the efficacy of corrective feedback. The ninth section discusses some factors that influence language teacher beliefs. The tenth section points out some of students' beliefs and expectations for corrective feedback. The eleventh section presents a review of the literature, which includes early and recent research that discusses some factors on providing corrective feedback. The final section concludes the chapter.

2.2 Historical background

Error correction has a long and controversial background in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Deciding how to provide corrective feedback to ESL students to correct errors usually depends upon the methodological perspective to

which a teacher ascribes. Traditionally, error correction was attributed to the behaviourist teaching methods that were practiced in the 1950s and 1960s such as Situational Language Teaching and Audio-lingual Teaching that stressed error correction at all costs (Hendrickson, 1976).

In the 1970s SLA research discredited Behaviourism as a theory for language teaching and learning, and began to rely heavily on the research findings of naturalistic SLA. Stephen Krashen's hypotheses about SLA were applied to classroom instruction by creating the Natural Approach teaching method that emphasises the development of communicative competence in the target language over the attainment of grammatical perfection. The Natural Approach prohibits both structured grading and error correction in order to keep students' affective filters low (Krashen & Terrell, 1995).

Similar to the Natural Approach, is the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) that became popular in the 1980s and is still widely implemented today. The goal of CLT is to make meaningful communication and language use a focus of all classroom activities (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 90). The main demand of this approach on teachers is that they should not correct all errors, rather they should be selective in providing corrective feedback and sometimes not correct at all. This new concept of error could be a challenge for language teachers when they have to decide which error to correct. This prompted SLA scholars to engage seriously in empirical studies investigating issues of corrective feedback in ESL, in order to find common ground on how corrective feedback may be practised effectively.

2.2.1 Conflict in the findings of some earlier empirical studies

Over decades, researchers have investigated one particular and fundamental question of how a person learns a second language. It is evident that it is not possible for a learner to avoid committing errors as part of the process of L2 learning. The controversy centres on whether correcting students' errors is preferable and what impact correcting students' errors has on L2 learning. Despite the fact that there are scholars who advocate that corrective feedback plays a facilitative role in language acquisition (Prabhu, 1989; Han, 2002; Ellis, 2009b), the concern over whether corrective feedback is necessary or even beneficial for language learning still exists. Several scholars do not support corrective feedback because, according to their research findings, it may have a negative impact on learners' L2 learning process (Krashen, 1982; Schwartz, 1993; Truscott, 1999a). These scholars' argue that corrective feedback may be useful for monitored production, such as writing, but not for spontaneous oral production. This section therefore discusses the various studies that have been carried out into the role of corrective feedback in L2 classroom settings.

According to Ellis (2009a, p. 103), the impact of corrective feedback in language pedagogy differs, depending on the language teaching methods and approaches applied by language teachers and their perceptions about error treatment. In fact, empirical studies have provided contradictory results and evidence surrounding the issue of error treatment. Some scholars have carried out empirical studies that advocate for the practice of corrective feedback in L2 classroom settings (Han, 2002; Ellis, 2009a).

In the 1950s and 1960s, errors in the language learning process were not tolerated, so grammatical accuracy was stressed. In the 1970s, the pedagogical value and role of corrective feedback in L2 classrooms were criticised, which led to a transformation of teaching approaches in the L2 classroom. The communicative approach was introduced to replace traditional methods of L2 teaching. With this transformation, errors were regarded as evidence of learners' inter-language development (Nicholas, Lightbown and Spada, 2001). From the communicative approach point of view, errors should be treated in a flexible and rational manner, and not seen as a signal of failure.

Responding to the changing trends in L2 teaching, Wieczorek (1991, p. 498) observes a residual orientation towards error correction as the main source of feedback for students. This orientation remained because, although many language teachers responded positively to the change in the L2 teaching approach and began to regard errors as a necessary part of learning, only a few were actually convinced and ready to ignore learners' errors totally. Prabhu (1989, p. 278) confirms that even proponents of a task-based approach, who focus their attention more on meaning than on form, developed subsidiary error correction forms. In essence, despite the revolution brought about by communicative approaches to language teaching, error correction and the provision of classroom feedback remains the norm, not only for language teachers, but also for language learners.

It is also worth mentioning that some empirical studies have been carried out on the role and effectiveness of corrective feedback, especially studies focusing on written corrective feedback (Diab, 2005; Brown, 2009). However, there are few research studies that investigated lecturers' and students' opinions and beliefs about the practice of error correction and provision of feedback for L2 learning as well as their preferences for how feedback should be provided. Therefore, the main focus of this study is to examine lecturers' and students' perceptions, practices and preferences of corrective feedback in the ESL classroom.

2.3 SLA theories and corrective feedback

This section presents a brief overview of the major Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories and ultimately indicates the theoretical framework which guides this study. In SLA, there are two schools of thoughts. One school of thought believes in behaviourism theory while the other school focuses on innate or mentalists theory.

There are a range of theories that converge to support the practice of corrective feedback in L2 classrooms, while other theories tend to oppose the use of corrective feedback for L2 teaching and learning.

2.3.1 Behaviourism Theory

The behaviourists' school of thought believes that learning is entirely the product of experience and that our environment affects all of us. Behaviourists believe that human beings learn in a similar way as animals do. Skinner (1984), a well-known behaviourist, believes that learning, or change of behaviour on the part of the student

is affected by the operant conditioning process, which is the result of repeated training. This operational conditioning refers to a method of learning that occurs through rewards and punishments for behaviour. Skinner developed this idea of controlling the rewards and punishments which the environment gives in response to behaviour, in order to shape behaviour. So, behaviour operates on the environment to bring about favourable consequences or avoid undesirable ones.

Behaviourists believe that language learning is a process of acquiring skills, in the similar way as learning to do something practical, such as riding a bicycle or playing a piano. Therefore, behaviourists are of the opinion that language could also be treated like any other kind of cognitive behaviour; the same ideas of operant conditioning can also be applied to language learning. Behaviourist theory, thus, believes that language learning is a process of habit formation that involves a period of trial and error where the learner tries and fails to use correct language until he or she succeeds. Behaviourists also trust that a learner can learn L2 successfully depending on similarities or differences between his or her L1 and the L2 he or she is learning. Behaviourists advocate immediate error correction because lack of corrective feedback may result in fossilisation.

2.3.2 Krashen's Monitor Theory

Krashen (1982) introduced the Monitor Model to SLA theories. The Five hypotheses below constitute what Krashen originally called the Monitor Model (Cook, 1993):

1) **The Natural Order Hypothesis:** "we acquire the rules of language in a predictable order" (Krashen & Terrell, 1983, p. 59).

2) **The Acquisition – Learning Hypothesis:** "adults have two distinctive ways of developing competences in second languages acquisition, that is by using language for real communication ... learning ... knowing about language" (Krashen & Terrell, 1983, p. 59).
3) **The Monitor Hypothesis:** "conscious learning ... can only be used as a Monitor or an editor" (Krashen & Terrell, 1983, p. 59).
4) **The Input Hypothesis:** "humans acquire language in only one way - by understanding messages or by receiving comprehensible input" (Krashen, 1985, p. 100).
5) **The Affective Filter Hypothesis:** "a mental block, caused by affective factors ... that prevents input from reaching the language acquisition device" (Krashen, 1985, p. 100).

Krashen opposes the notion of error correction. Truscott (1999a) also is of the opinion that feedback on error does not actually work because corrective feedback may cause "embarrassment, anger, inhibition, and feelings of inferiority" among learners (p. 441). Corrective feedback may be given in class, but very occasionally. Krashen (1982) perceives that corrective feedback "has the immediate effect of putting the student on the defensive" (p. 75). If elementary learners are not ready to speak, they should not be forced to do so.

2.3.3.1 Cognitive theory

Cognitive theorists believe that language acquisition is a mental learning process, which happens internally. Cognitivists are of the opinion that creating real life contexts enables learners to gain automatisation and activate their schema by integrating new knowledge into existing knowledge. According to Lalleman (1996), in cognitive theory, all linguistic knowledge is learned. A learner uses the same

mental processes when learning a language or learning any other complex cognitive skills.

2.3.3.2 Skill Acquisition theory

Skill Acquisition theory, which is based on the cognitive theory, revolves around practice. Skill acquisition theorists advocate that learning a skill requires at least three stages (DeKeyser, 1998):

i. **Declarative knowledge** – This stage refers to factual knowledge, knowing a rule. Students should get a clear insight of grammar rules that should be taught explicitly for them to get a grasp of the declarative rules.

ii. **Proceduralisation of knowledge** – This stage is for the encoding of the behaviour of this knowledge. Enough time should be devoted to grammar proceduralising: allow students to grasp it thoroughly by practising and paying attention to the declarative rule, before moving on to productive activities.

iii. **Automatising of knowledge** – Students should use the knowledge unconsciously. This stage strengthens procedural knowledge through meaning-based activities with immediate corrective feedback, which leads to automatising. Students should then be encouraged to continue using the target language through more open-ended activities.

Cognitive theory and Skill Acquisition theory support the notion that learners' errors should be corrected to prevent the practice of incorrect forms. These theorists correct

errors that affect meaning because the main purpose is to enrich the learner's schemata with new knowledge meaningfully.

2.3.4 Sociocultural theory

Sociocultural theorists regard learners as active participants in the language learning process. Students are considered as individuals who become part and parcel of the second language community. In sociocultural theory, instruction is highly recognised as a crucial aspect towards second language development and should be extended to the learner's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). According to Wertsch (1985), sociocultural theory refers to "the distance between a child's actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving, and the higher level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 60). Sociocultural theorists recommend that a second language should be learned collaboratively, not as an individual learner's effort without the assistance of others in the same environment. Therefore, this theory advocates that a learner recognises aspects of the target language features only through collaborative activities. Regarding corrective feedback, socioculturalists are not straight forward regarding how it should be done. They feel it may be easy to provide corrective feedback on the final answer, but it is challenging to provide corrective mental steps that lead to the final answer.

2.3.5 Conversational theory

Conversational theorists believe in collaboration and the interaction of learners, to actively engage in conversations with other speakers of the L2, who speak it better

and who are more knowledgeable than the learner is. This theory requires comprehensible input. Interaction during the conversations should make sense and should form links between words and phrases.

Conversational theory encourages students to take part in conversations as much as they can. This theory encourages conversational modifications such as comprehension checks, clarification requests, self-repetition or paraphrasing. Since students are expected to participate in conversations actively, corrective feedback should not be explicitly given.

2.3.6 Acculturation theory

Acculturation theory is concerned with a learner learning how to adapt the L2 environment. Acculturation theorists are ambivalent regarding corrective feedback because they believe that correcting errors could be helpful if the social community provides a low psychological distance atmosphere to the learner; otherwise correcting the learner's errors could only be discouraging. Psychological distance refers to things that are not present in the learner's direct experience of reality; things that may belong to the past or to the future.

2.3.7 Communicative Language Teaching

A communicative approach, or as it is alternatively called, Communicative Language Teaching, is an approach to language teaching that emphasises interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of study. Communicative approaches are based on the idea that learning language successfully comes through having to communicate real

meaning. Students have to be involved in real communication where they can exercise their natural strategies for language acquisition and thus learning to use the language. Communicative approaches therefore intend to develop learners' ability to use the L2 in realistic and meaningful communication.

Language teaching, today, has adopted the communicative approach as the major teaching methodology. It is often thought of as a general approach to teaching, rather than a method with clearly defined rules and practices. This approach was developed particularly by British linguists and it started gaining significance already in the 1970s and early 1980s, to phase out the grammar-based approaches such as audio-lingual method. Richards and Schmidt (2010) describe the communicative approach as "an approach of foreign or second language teaching which emphasises that the goal of language learning is communicative competence and which seeks to make meaningful communication and language use a focus of all classroom activities" (p. 90). At that time, commonly used methods such as the grammar-translation method started to appear inadequate when students needed to learn a language quickly or when they were not particularly talented. A new approach that would aim at fluency and interaction was thus needed.

The recent approaches to communicative language teaching are different from those of earlier approaches. Teachers are no longer seen as the sole source of information in the learning process, but rather as co-communicators with learners, which makes learners equally important and also breaks down barriers between them. One principle of this approach is, through using the language, students learn it to be able

to freely communicate and interact in L2. The communicative approach places equal importance on both fluency and accuracy in a language learning environment. Learning a language communicatively is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error. Thus, errors are more tolerated and are seen, as Littlewood (1994) puts it, as a "completely normal phenomenon in the development of communicative skills" (p. 94). This, in a nutshell, describes the philosophy behind the communicative approach.

2.4 Theoretical framework for this study

As illustrated in the discussion of SLA theories above, there have been disagreements in SLA research and theory over the decades about the role of corrective feedback. Some scholars (Han, 2002; Ellis, 2009b) argue in favour of the effectiveness of corrective feedback in improving learners' L2 competence, whereas others (Krashen, 1982; Schwartz, 1993; Truscott, 1999b) deny its usefulness. Given the viewpoint of various SLA theories, they all strive to achieve the effective strategy of how a learner can become successful in L2 learning. However, for the purpose of this study Conversational Theory and Skill Acquisition theory are discussed further below to illustrate their relevance to the present study.

Conversational theorists believe in collaboration and the interaction of a learner, to actively engage in conversations with other speakers of the L2, who speak it better and are more knowledgeable than the learner. When the issue of the agency of corrective feedback is considered, it entails the erred student, peers and a lecturer or a teacher, who are eligible to provide corrective feedback. This view of corrective

feedback to be provided by other speakers of L2, peers or a lecturer, responds to the collaboration and interaction requirements of conversational theory.

Conversational theory believes that students improve their L2 if they take part in meaningful conversations as much as they can. Likewise, students take part in discussions about corrective feedback that do not only enhance their understanding of the importance of ESL corrective feedback but also promotes student autonomy. Richards and Schmidt (2010) define student autonomy as “The principle that learners should be encouraged to assume a maximum amount of responsibility for what they learn and how they learn it. This will be reflected in approaches to needs analysis, content selection, and choice of teaching materials and learning methods” (p. 297). Therefore, this study surveys students to seek answers to issues, such as: what errors should be corrected; how much should be corrected; who should provide corrective feedback; when to provide corrective feedback; and what type of feedback should be given?

Conversational theory encourages conversational modifications such as comprehension checks, clarification requests, self-repetition and paraphrasing. This theory further claims, since students are expected to participate in conversations actively, that corrective feedback should not be explicitly given. Similarly, in the process of corrective feedback when students are engaged in discussions, they can be explaining something or clarifying a concept, self-correcting, or repeating what somebody else says, as a natural part of normal real-life conversation.

Corrective feedback is considered to be more effective when it is focused on specific linguistic targets (Lillis, 2003). This means these linguistic features need to be explicitly taught by the lecturer, making the linguistic concepts clear and explaining exactly what the focus of the task is before engaging in it. This notion responds to the need of declarative knowledge in Skill Acquisition theory, which claims that students need to develop a grasp of the declarative rules of the L2. Conversational theory also calls for comprehensible input.

In order to provide effective corrective feedback, there should be a specified linguistic focus that is being practised and monitored. Corrective feedback may also take place during this skill reinforcement stage of the target linguistic feature to eliminate misunderstandings of linguistic items. This process correlates with the stage of proceduralisation of knowledge in Skill Acquisition theory.

At the third stage of Skill Acquisition theory, students are expected to use the knowledge automatically in the meaning-based activities. Written or spoken corrective feedback is provided at this stage. Since Conversational theory expects students to participate in conversations actively, the theory recommends corrective feedback not to be explicitly given.

Skill Acquisition theory, on the other hand, recommends immediate feedback of errors that affect meaning so that when the students continue using the target linguistic feature in other open-ended activities, they do not repeat the same errors. Although written corrective feedback seems to be delayed because it comes only

after the student work has been marked, feedback may still be considered immediate if it is given back to the students before the next similar activity is done. Indirect corrective feedback may be provided in the form of coded written feedback or metalinguistic oral feedback, however this places demands on the student to decipher the type of feedback and make meaning for corrections. The ability of the student to make sense of indirect feedback on his or her own encourages student autonomy. The practice of students participating in their own learning becomes very relevant in an ESL classroom because it responds to the learner-centred method that is currently the focus of curriculum design.

2.5 Defining error correction, error treatment and corrective feedback

Researchers in second language acquisition literature have used various operationalised terms in identifying errors and providing corrective feedback. They use different terms to refer to similar practices, the most common terms being corrective feedback, negative evidence and negative feedback (Schachter, 1991). To avoid possible confusion arising from the use of these terminologies, there is a need to provide a synopsis of definitions of these terms here.

It is vitally important to make a clear distinction between the terms error correction, error treatment and corrective feedback because they are sometimes used synonymously, although they do not really express the same concept. Error treatment is a complex phenomenon and it is important to note that error correction is a subcategory of error treatment. Brown (2007) clarifies this, such that “Error

treatment encompasses a wide range of options, one of which – at the extreme end of a continuum – may be considered to be a correction" (p. 348).

Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks (1977) explain the term correction to be "the replacement of error or mistake by what is correct" (p. 363); while, Chaudron (1977) defines correction as "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to or demands improvement of the learner's utterance" (p. 31), this being the most common conception employed by researchers.

The term error correction is broadly used in second language teaching and learning and has several meanings. James (2008) interprets the term correction in three senses:

> 1) Informing the students that there is an error and leaving them to discover it and repair it themselves. 2) Providing treatment or information that leads to the revision and correction of the specific error without aiming to prevent the same error from recurring later. In addition to indicating that the present attempt is wrong, the corrector can specify how and where, suggest an alternative, give a hint. 3) Providing students with information that allows them to revise or reject the wrong rule they were operating with when they produced the error. (pp. 236-40)

Richards and Schmidt (2010) define error correction as "strategies used by a teacher or more advanced learner to correct errors in a learner's speech" (p. 185). They further concur with James (2008) when explains that "error correction may be direct

(teacher supplies the correct form) or indirect (the teacher points out the problem and asks the learner to correct it if possible)" (p. 185). Although these definitions seem satisfactory, they refer more to error treatment or corrective feedback rather than error correction; because, the impression they give is of simply providing information to the student indicating whether their utterance or understanding is right or wrong. In such a case, the teacher only indicates that an error or mistake has been made and he or she leaves the student to correct himself or herself. The terms corrective feedback and error treatment are discussed below.

2.5.1 Corrective feedback versus error treatment

Linguists generally use corrective feedback and error treatment interchangeably. Various scholars broadly defined these terms as any kind of error treatment given to a student to indicate that there is an error in his or her utterance. This is obviously not in itself error correction. It may be useful now to differentiate between error treatment and corrective feedback.

The term error treatment is too broad compared to corrective feedback. An error can be treated in many ways, whether it is directly or indirectly. Chaudron (1977, cited in Shahin, 2011) notes "that treatment of error appears to be the most widely employed meaning to refer to any teaching behaviour following any error that attempts to inform the student who made the error about the fact that he made an error" (Shahin, 2011, p. 207). Shahin acknowledges Chaudron's definition that treatment provided by the teacher may not involve correction that enables the student changing his or her erroneous utterance to a correct one. If the student corrects himself or herself, just

because he or she was alerted by the teacher's reaction which signalled an error in the student's utterance, this process might be better termed corrective feedback rather than error treatment. Error treatment is a broader concept and as Chaudron alludes, that process cannot be called error correction. In other words, any reaction made to respond to the error that occurred in the learner's utterance, signals that an error has been treated, regardless who corrects the error.

In conclusion, the teacher's reaction to the error, which might be called the elicitation process, illustrates the error treatment process. On the other hand, when the teacher says something that directs the student towards producing the desirable utterance, corrective feedback is taking place. Thus, this study concentrates more on the process of corrective feedback than simply error treatment.

2.5.2 Feedback versus corrective feedback

Feedback, in general, refers to any information on the result of behaviour. Richards and Schmidt (2010) explain that feedback in teaching "refers to comments or other information that learners receive concerning their success on learning tasks or tests, either from the teacher or other persons" (p. 199). Feedback according to Ur (1996) is "information that is given to the learner about his or her performance of a learning task, usually with the objective of improving this performance" (p. 242). Harmer (2007) indicates that teachers give feedback on learners' writing as they want to "affect students' language use in the future as well as comment upon its use in the past" (p. 151).

Furthermore, feedback can be a positive or negative reinforcement. Feedback is an umbrella terminology that embodies corrective feedback. But corrective feedback is only provided where there is an error because what is not wrong cannot be corrected. Just as doctors do not only treat the sick, but also advise on how to sustain health, so too do the educationists. Teachers believe in motivating their students. However, motivation will not result from pointing out negativity only. Hence, when talking about corrective feedback we cannot shy away from mentioning positive feedback either. In the process of providing corrective feedback, positive achievement in students' work should also be recognised. Effective feedback should be a combination of positive and negative feedback.

Long and Robinson (1998) made a distinction between negative and positive feedback: negative feedback points out to the learners that their utterances are faulty in some way, and all feedback that is not negative is then positive. Long (1996) defines negative feedback as "implicit correction immediately following an ungrammatical learner utterance" (p. 429). In other words, Long implies that negative feedback provides the learner with direct or indirect information about what is unacceptable. Ellis (2009b) explains that positive feedback "affirms that a learner response to an activity is correct. It may signal the veracity of the content of a learner utterance [or writing] or the linguistic correctness of the utterance [or writing]" (p. 3). Ellis (2009b) further defines negative feedback as "signals, in one way or another, that the learners' utterance [or writing] lacks veracity or is linguistically deviant" (p. 3).

Corrective feedback, on the other hand, refers to the feedback that learners receive on the linguistic errors they make in their oral or written production in a second language (Sheen and Ellis, 2011). Loewen (2012) also defines corrective feedback as the information given to learners regarding a linguistic error. This can come from different sources such as the learner who made an error, other learners or a teacher, personally or through other media such as a Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) system. Chaudron (1988 cited in Tatawy 2002) mentions that the term corrective feedback embodies different layers of meaning. This simply means the feedback provided may not be evident to the student in terms of the response it seeks, or it may provide a vital assistance for the student to revise his or her response. Consequently, corrective feedback would generate appropriate correction that succeeds in modifying the learner's interlanguage rule and eliminates the error completely.

Lightbown and Spada (2006) define corrective feedback as "any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect" (p.171). In this definition the teacher's corrective feedback includes both explicit and implicit feedback. For example, the teacher can employ implicit feedback by providing corrective feedback either without interrupting the flow of conversation, or overtly with an emphasis on the ill-formed utterance, which is explicit feedback. Lightbown and Spada (2006) suggest that teachers can provide feedback to a wrong statement like, "He go to school every day" by being explicit, namely "No, you should say *goes*, not *go*" or by being implicit "Yes, he goes to school every day", or with metalinguistic

information, for example, “Don’t forget to make the verb agree with the subject” (pp. 171-172).

In conclusion, corrective feedback is one part that falls under a broader concept of feedback. Corrective feedback refers to an error that was made, with an intention to rectify it, while, feedback embodies both negative and positive feedback.

2.6 General classification of error

2.6.1 Global and local errors

Considering the seriousness of errors, on the most general level, we distinguish between global and local errors. The distinction between the two error types is that global errors affect the whole sentence organisation, while local ones affect only single elements in a sentence. Richards and Schmidt (2010) define a global error as “an error in the use of a major element of sentence structure, which makes a sentence or utterance difficult or impossible to understand” (p. 226). MacDonald (2005) explains that global errors “tend to be located within the relations between clauses, or sentences, or over longer stretches of discourse” (p. 85). The following example illustrates a global error, “*I have a friend but my father said I love her so he saw her”* (own example). This is a global error sentence because the message is so unclear that the reason the father saw the girl who is his child’s friend was because his child loves the friend. Global errors hinder communication and they prevent some aspect of the message the utterance to be comprehended. Global errors, typically involve aspects such as word order, wrongly placed sentence connectors, tenses, relative pronouns.

On the other hand, there is a local error. According to Richards and Schmidt (2010), a local error is "an error in the use of element of sentence structure, but which does not cause problems of comprehension. Local errors do not prevent the message from being understood. They usually only contain a minor violation of one segment of a sentence, but it enables the listener or the reader to make an accurate guess about the intended meaning." The following sentence illustrates a local error example, *"If I went to the shop, I will buy you sweet"* (own example). This sentence contains an error with the tenses used but it is still comprehensible.

To conclude, the difference between these two errors is in essence that a global error hinders comprehension while even if a local error occurs the meaning is still clear.

2.6.2 Overt and covert error

Another general classification of errors comes from Corder (1981), who distinguishes between overt and covert error. This distinction deals with superficial correctness and erroneousness. Corder (1981) clarifies this as follows: "Superficial well-formedness is not guarantee of freedom from error. It is for this reason that we have to distinguish between sentences which are overtly erroneous, i.e. are superficially erroneous, and those which are covertly erroneous, i.e. apparently acceptable, but so by chance, or which are inappropriate in one way or another" (p. 42). According to Brown (2000), "overtly erroneous utterances are unquestionably ungrammatical at the sentence level. Covertly erroneous utterances are

grammatically well-formed at the sentence level, but are not interpretable within the context of communication." (p. 220).

An overt error can be identified easily because there is an apparent deviation in form; for instance, a learner may say, *Grandmother speaked to us* (own example). This sentence is ungrammatical if it is to be charged against Standard English. The student has generalised a rule by adding an –ed at the end of the verb "speak" because the student does not realise that "speak" is an irregular verb. A covert error occurs in utterances that are superficially well-formed but they do not mean what the speaker intended them to mean. Bartram and Walton (1991) describe this as a situation when students say "something right by accident" (p. 21). An error can be covert when the deviation is only detectable when the learner's intended meaning is taken into account. For instance, a student may say "the leaf is torn". This phrase is grammatically well-formed, but it could be erroneous if the student meant to say "the page is torn"; this is actually a covert error.

In short, an overt error is detected at sentence level; while, a covert error can only be noticed at discourse level.

2.7 Types of corrective feedback strategies

There are different types of corrective feedback that are available for teachers to indicate to their students that something is wrong with their utterance. Several research studies have suggested that corrective feedback is associated with second language learning, because it leads students to notice second language forms

(Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Lyster & Mori, 2006). Therefore, nowadays, the focus of research has shifted from asking whether correction works, into finding out the kind of correction that works best (Ellis, 2009a). It has been shown in a number of studies that the uptake of learners greatly differs depending on the type of corrective strategies applied. Research findings highlighted that there is a large variety of techniques available for error correction, however teachers do not generally make full use of the whole range but tend to prefer only one or two strategies.

A number of types of corrective feedback terms have been used by different researchers (Ellis, 2001; Lyster, 2004). The following table is a synopsis of types of corrective feedback and examples that language teachers may use when treating their students' errors.

Table B: Corrective feedback strategies

1. Explicit Correction: Explicit correction refers to the overt provision of the correct form. Teacher provides the correct form, clearly indicating that what the student said is incorrect. <u>Example:</u> Student: Sit down the chair. Teacher: You're omitting the preposition *on*. It should be: "Sit down on the chair".
2. Clarification Request: Asking for more or more clearly stated information. The teacher indicates to students either that he or she did not understand their utterance or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or a reformulation is required. The teacher may use phrases such as "Pardon me? or "Say that again, please".

Example: Teacher: How long have you been waiting? Student: Three T: Three what? Student: Three days.
3. Repetition: Repeating the student's utterance with the error and usually with rising intonation. Example: Student: It have a long tail. Teacher: It have a long tail?
4. Paralinguistic signal: using a gesture or facial expression to indicate that the learner has made an error. Example: Student: Last week we visit Walvisbay. Teacher: (*Gestures with right forefinger pointing backwards over left shoulder to indicate past.)*
5. Prompt/ Elicitation: Repeating part of the learner utterance except the erroneous part; using rising intonation to signal that the learner should fill in the rest with the correct form. Example: Student: He have a blue car. Teacher: He...?
6. Recasts or Reformulations: The teacher's reformulates all or part of a student's utterance, using the correct form, excluding the error. Example: Student: My sister go to Windhoek yesterday. Teacher: Your sister went to Windhoek yesterday?
7. Metalinguistic Feedback: Metalinguistic feedback provides information on the form needed, for example, comments, information, or questions related to the correctness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form to the student. This type of feedback requires the students' current knowledge of the

target language item to self-correct.

Example:

Student: My sister go to Windhoek yesterday.

Teacher: What is the past tense of go?

Oral corrective feedback can be provided in two different forms, on-line attempts and off-line attempts or delayed feedback. This type of feedback is given in order to alert students that they have produced an utterance that contains an error. According to Sheen and Ellis (2011), an on-line attempt means, "the feedback is provided more or less immediately following the utterance that contained an error; and off-line attempts, the feedback is withheld until the communicative event the learner is participating in has finished" (p. 593).

In their study, Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that, amongst all the corrective feedback types they studied, recast is the most frequently used type, however, it is also the "least likely type of feedback to elicit student" (p. 52). A further general observation of researchers such as Egi (2010) and, Lyster and Ranta (1997) is that students do not perceive recasts as a type of correction; students rather see recasts as a mere reaction to the content. Insofar as these research findings confirm that students really do not recognise recasts as a way of correcting their errors, recast may not be an effective way of providing corrective feedback. On the other hand, the study identified elicitation and metalinguistic feedback to be the most effective ways of providing corrective feedback. These two corrective feedback strategies, however, are rated to be dramatically behind recast in the frequency of use (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

2.7.1 Implicit versus explicit corrective feedback strategies

Linguists distinguish in different ways between explicit and implicit feedback in their studies. Explicit corrective feedback is also called ‘direct feedback or input-providing’, referring to the provision of the correct reformulation through recasts, while, implicit corrective feedback is also known as ‘indirect feedback or output-providing’ withholds the correct reformulation and promotes students’ self-repair through prompt.

According to Ellis (2006), corrective feedback can be categorised as *explicit*, that is, input-providing corrective feedback where the response clearly indicates that what the student said is incorrect, for instance, *no, not ‘eated’ but ‘ate’*; or *implicit*, which refers to output-pushing corrective feedback, for instance, giving metalinguistic feedback, as in “*You need past tense*”. Carroll and Swain (1993) explain that implicit feedback includes both recasts and negotiation of form, and explicit feedback “would be any feedback that overtly states that a learner’s output was not part of the language to be learned” (p. 361).

Bitchener and Knoch (2010) claim that, in written work, explicit correction provides correction at or near the error; for example, the crossing out of a word, phrase, or morpheme, the provision of grammar rules, or the oral clarification of written meta-linguistic explanations. In their study, Russell and Spada (2006) mention that in explicit correction, the teacher “overtly states that a learner's output was not part of the language-to-be-learned” (p. 137). They further explain that in implicit feedback,

“learners must infer that the form of their utterance is responsible for the interlocutor's comprehension problems” (Russell & Spada, 2006, p. 137).

According to Ellis (2009a), the most widely used taxonomy of oral correction forms indicates a distinction between individual types of feedback as explicit versus implicit, and input-providing or output-prompting types. This typology resembles the types of corrective feedback identified by Lyster and Ranta (1997) in their classroom research that they displayed as follows:

Table C: Types of corrective feedback

	Implicit	**Explicit**
Input-providing	Recast	Explicit correction
Output-prompting	Repetition; Clarification request	Elicitation; Paralinguistic signal; Metalinguistic feedback

(Ellis, 2009a, p. 8)

Explicit ways of providing feedback prove to be the most effective form of providing corrective feedback for language learning. Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) research study supports the use of explicit ways of corrective feedback. Other research studies that were carried out on corrective feedback strategies also provided similar results, while Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006) conclude that both implicit and explicit types of feedback are useful for language acquisition; however, explicit feedback is more effective in comparison to the implicit feedback.

Furthermore, Carroll and Swain (1993) conducted an experimental laboratory study, where they illustrated explicit types of feedback to be the most effective feedback type; in addition, they also highlighted some positive effects that are observed with recast. Russell and Spada (2006) indicate that "Studies of Mackey and Philp (1998); Iwashita (2003); and Philp (2003) uniformly reported that less advanced students needed more explicit feedback, whereas more developed students responded positively to recasts, too" (p. 138).

Another research conducted by Ur (2012, as cited in Tomková, 2013) on the needs of Israeli students of English regarding error correction and their preferred types of feedback, reveals that students have a strong preference for explicit correction. This provides synergy in that students in Ur's (2012) study valued most the type of corrective feedback that, according to other studies, turned out to be the most effective.

Ferris and Hedgecock (2005) also support the use of direct feedback that it could benefit second language students, who lack proficient linguistic skills to identify and correct an error. They, however, went further to explain that explicit or direct feedback in the form of meta-linguistic explanation combined with oral clarification may prove most effective. In the same vein, Sheen (2010) persuasively suggests that "combining oral and written CF might make it possible to optimise learners' processing of feedback, which, in turn, might expedite L2 learning" (p. 210).

To conclude, despite the on-going controversy over the implicitness or explicitness of different types of feedback, there seems to be a general consensus among researchers that recasts are implicit compared to other feedback moves.

2.8 Debate on the efficacy of corrective feedback

2.8.1 Negative perspectives on the effectiveness of corrective feedback

To date, the role of corrective feedback in language acquisition has been a highly controversial issue. This controversy is ongoing due to the fact that there are many questions relating to written feedback that remain unanswered.

Despite the growing evidence of correction being useful, there are still language theorists who consider error correction completely to be useless (Truscott 1996, 1999, 2007; Krashen 1982). These researchers believe that error treatment is harmful rather than helpful and that students need to develop their second language through exposure to naturally occurring samples of a target language. Krashen (1982) advocates that grammar teaching should be abandoned because it interferes with the natural course of second language learning. Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis proposes that language acquisition occurs when students receive comprehensible input slightly more advanced than their current level of interlanguage development. As Allwright and Bailey (1991) put it: "No matter how hard a teacher tries to correct errors, in the long run, only the learner can do the learning necessary to improve performance, regardless of how much treatment is provided" (p. 99). With this statement these linguists express their main reasons for their skepticism about correction, that treatment is not the same as cure. Just because

teachers correct students' errors and mistakes does not mean that students have learned to use the problematic rule correctly.

The strongest position against grammar correction was taken by Truscott (1996; 1999; 2007). Truscott (1996) debates against grammar correction practice, arguing that, "questions regarding grammar can be very difficult, even for experts" (p. 350). Whether teachers correctly identify and correct the mistake there is still the issue of whether language learners will be able to understand the explanation or feedback. Truscott points out that no single form of correction can be effective for acquiring syntactic, morphological and lexical knowledge; this kind of knowledge is acquired in different manners, so simply providing grammar correction does not necessarily help students to acquire this knowledge. Thus, Truscott is adamant that teachers would have to develop separate approaches to provide adequate feedback for the three areas.

Truscott (1996) further claims that written corrective feedback could potentially be harmful to second language students' interlanguage. Truscott gave an example of teachers who practice a process writing approach and critically disputes that correcting students' errors and having them rewrite a second draft may eliminate some of their initial errors, but does not necessarily lead to better grammatical accuracy in new pieces of writing. Truscott here refers to the concept of developmental sequence that when students are corrected on a point for which they are not ready yet, the correction is not likely to be valid. This claim is reiterated by Truscott and Hsu (2008) in strongly affirming that "improvements made during

revision are not evidence on the effectiveness of correction for improving learners' writing ability" (p. 292). Truscott (1996) also contends that there are "serious problems regarding the quality of teachers' written responses to L2 compositions" and that research has also shown "many cases in which teachers failed to notice errors" (p. 350). On this point Truscott expresses concern over language instructors' inability to correctly identify that an error has been made, and then provide the correct usage. With all these considerations in mind, Truscott (1996) assertively argues his case against grammar correction and reached the very controversial conclusion that, "grammar correction has no place in writing courses and should be abandoned" (p. 328).

Truscott (1996) also points out that error correction in oral practice does not work either. He argued that firstly, teachers correct inconsistently, sometimes even wrongly. Next, students are sometimes hurt by being corrected, so they may not even take corrections seriously. Finally, correction may interfere with fluency. Truscott emphasises that students do not learn from correction, and backs up his argument with research results that have found grammar correction to have little or no effect on students' writing ability in L1 (Hillocks, 1986; Knoblauch & Brannon, 1981; Krashen, 1984; Leki, 1990) and in L2 writing (Hendrickson, 1981; Krashen, 1992).

Challenging Truscott's argument, the wider research base alluded to in the next section is not nearly as conclusive on the question of error feedback as Truscott; more research and scrutiny should definitely precede any claim on whether corrective feedback should actually be wholly embraced or totally abolished. This

study will, therefore, play a vital role in responding to this quest of further research on the efficacy of corrective feedback and the results of the study should provide possible clues or guiding evidence on how the issue of corrective feedback can be adequately handled.

2.8.2 Positive perspectives of corrective feedback

Despite the fact that, in his scholarly papers, Truscott (1996; 1999b; 2007) seems adamant that grammar correction is not an important factor, the arguments contradicting these statements are even stronger. Gass and Selinker (2001) firmly assert the belief that motivation is a social psychological factor and a prognosticator of success in second language learning. They continued that "it makes sense that individuals who are motivated will learn another language faster and to a greater degree" (p. 349). In addition to Gass and Selinker (2001), numerous studies such as that of Basturkmen, Loewen and Ellis (2004) confirm this point with strong evidence that feedback motivates language learning. Therefore, feedback is still considered to be an effective way to motivate students' learning, especially in L2 learning.

In support of corrective feedback there are studies that highlight the point that there are different types of correction that can be appropriate, so simply dismissing correction in general is not advisable. In agreement with this, several studies suggest that corrective feedback would work for acquisition (Ellis, Sheen, Murakami & Takashima, 2008; Sheen 2007). Corder (1967) also provides two explanations with respect to learner errors. Firstly, "the occurrence of errors is merely a sign of the present inadequacy of the teaching techniques" (p. 163). This implies that if it were

possible for teachers to achieve a successful teaching method, there would be no occurrence of student errors in the target language. The second explanation is that besides teachers' successful teaching methods, errors may still occur because the occurrence of errors is prompted by many factors. These factors could include interference from L1, overgeneralisation, an incomplete knowledge of the target language, the complexity of the target language, and fossilisation. Thus, Corder (1967) advises that teachers should be more concerned with how to deal with students' errors effectively beyond simple identification. The belief is that if the correction is clear and consistent it may promote language acquisition.

In addition, other scholars discard the views that seem to overshadow the important role that written corrective feedback can play in developing L2 writing proficiency. Hyland and Hyland (2006) suggest that "while marking mechanical errors can be frustrating, the view that there is no direct connection between correction and learning is greatly overstated" (p. 84). This is because the connection between correction and learning is often demonstrated within the written corrective feedback literature. In their study, Bitchener and Knoch (2010) indicate that "learners who notice the difference between target-like input and their non-target-like output are able to modify it as target-like output" (p. 194). This is evidence that written corrective feedback can enable language learners to develop new forms of the language which would otherwise be inaccessible to their linguistic awareness. Ferris (1995b; 2003) and Guenette (2007) agree that, it should be a teacher's obligation to provide written corrective feedback to students in the classroom, because, in their studies, students showed a strong desire to be given written corrective feedback.

Evans, Hartshorn, McCollum, and Wolfersberger (2010) also strongly support this view that operating "without such feedback is likely to frustrate learners, erode learners' confidence in their teachers, and undermine the learning processes" (p. 14). Therefore, it is argued here, the question of whether written corrective feedback is effective or not is no longer debatable; a relevant point of argument however should now concern how students can become better writers within their learning context.

In conclusion, as Hyland and Hyland (2006) point out, "it is difficult to draw any clear conclusions and generalisations from the literature as a result of varied populations, treatments and research designs" (p. 84). This controversy on the efficacy of corrective feedback, however, is still being debated. The remaining controversy on writing corrective feedback lies in the fact that many questions relating to written feedback remain unanswered. These questions refer to which error should be corrected, how this correction should be displayed, who should provide feedback, when should feedback be provided and even how much feedback should be provided.

2.9 Some factors that influence language teacher beliefs

There is a general belief by language teaching scholars that teachers practice what they believe in their classrooms (Farrell & Lim, 2005). Freeman and Richards (1996) state, "understanding teachers' conceptualisations of teaching, their beliefs, thinking, and decision-making can help us better understand the nature of language teacher education" (p. 5). Studies on the beliefs of language teachers reveal that teachers' beliefs are influenced by several factors such as their experience as teachers, as

learners and as participants in teacher educational programmes (De Mello Paiva, 2011).

According to Phipps and Borg (2009), teachers' experiences influence them to firmly believe in the importance of fulfilling students' expectations. For example, if they had successful teaching experiences in using a traditional grammar approach, they would prefer to continue using it instead of adopting context-based grammar teaching. Other researchers such as Numrich (1996) and Farrell (1999) report on how teachers' past language learning experience influences teachers to adjust their grammar instructional methods. These teachers had positive or negative experiences that made them decide to use an inductive approach to teaching grammar. Their experiences actually influenced them differently. Some teachers decided to use the inductive approach in their teaching because they were taught through a deductive approach and realised undesirable consequences in their learning. Others decided to use the same approach through which they had been taught because they had had positive experiences through it. Teachers' beliefs may also be influenced by their experience of personal learning strategies. If a teacher feels that he or she learns better when studying individually then he or she would have a feeling that students in his or her class would perform better if they do the tasks individually.

Vieira (2006, cited in De Mello Paiva, 2011) states that teacher education programmes are another factor that can shape teachers' beliefs. Vieira's findings of a longitudinal study, which investigated student-teachers' beliefs in the beginning and at the end of participation in an educational programme, revealed that student-

teachers seemed to have changed their view of teaching and learning. She found that teachers initially thought of teaching as transmission of knowledge and learning as absorption of new knowledge; however, by the end of the teacher education programme they expressed their view of teaching as creating opportunities for learning creatively, and learning a foreign language as a critical act.

Other research findings (Farrell & Lim, 2005; Ng & Farrell, 2003; Schulz, 1996, 2001) reveal that both teachers and students prefer grammatical errors to be corrected by teachers and provided to students. This belief, consequently, may influence teachers to implement this practice, as they are quite willing to fulfil students' expectations. Schulz (1996, 2001) explains that students are not satisfied if they receive their written assignments from the teacher without correcting their errors; consequently teachers become convinced that they have to correct errors in the students' written assignments.

Several research studies (Lee, 2003, 2004, 2007, 2009) were conducted with secondary teachers in Hong Kong specifically to study teacher's beliefs on corrective feedback provision and the extent to which this is connected to their classroom practice. Lee (2009) recognised numerous mismatches between what teachers believe and how they provide feedback on L2 writing. The findings discovered conflicts between beliefs and practices with regards to attention to language form, use of comprehensive versus selective error feedback, and provision of error codes on students' texts. These research findings demonstrate that contextual factors can influence teachers' instructional decisions and cause discrepancies between what

teachers' believe and what they actually practice. Lee's study was exceptional because little is known about teacher beliefs and classroom practice, including teacher beliefs about error feedback in L2 writing classes.

2.10 Students' beliefs and expectations for corrective feedback

In an effort to aid students' language development, many teachers provide corrective feedback on their students' work. Despite this, dissatisfaction can emerge in a language class because of the mismatch between students' and teachers' beliefs and expectations. Ferris (2004) believes that it is important to consider students' expectations because researches on students' preferences about corrective feedback reveal that students feel frustrated when their expectations are not fulfilled and that they can lose confidence in writing when this happens. Other scholars confirm the importance of scrutinising students' beliefs and perceptions in order to provide them with satisfying corrective feedback. Brown (2009) also asserts that students' beliefs and perceptions may be essential to effective second language acquisition. Obtaining a vivid picture of students' beliefs and perceptions can illuminate the way towards leading them to acquire correct forms. Schulz's (1996, 2001) studies highlight that students' perceptions and interpretations towards teaching methods have the greatest impact on their achievement. Hence, it is vitally important for teachers to seek a detailed understanding of their students' beliefs and preferences for corrective feedback in order to maximise its potential positive effect on language development.

The disparities between students' and teachers' beliefs and expectations do not necessarily mean students do not want to be corrected. There is strong evidence that

students want to be corrected in general. It has been proved by researchers such as Ur (2012, cited in Tomková, 2013) that it is true that some students might feel discouraged by correction but many students consider correction as a part of language learning and accept it. Moreover, Cathcart and Olsen (1976 cited in Allwright & Bailey, 1991) even state that "learners say they want more correction than is typically offered by their teachers" (p. 103). In the same vein, Schulz's (1996, 2001) studies revealed that students' attitudes toward grammar instruction and error correction were more favourable than their teachers' attitudes; that implies, learners want more error correction. Schulz (1996) argues that "such lack of pedagogical face validity could affect learners' motivation" (p. 349). Thus, when their instructional expectations are not met, their motivation can be negatively affected, and they may question the credibility of the teacher.

Ancker's (2000, as cited in Park, 2010) large-scale action research investigated teachers' and students' expectations toward error correction by surveying teachers and students in 15 countries. The findings are interesting because they reveal a large gap between the teachers' and the students' responses. In answer to the survey question whether teachers should correct every error students make when using English, only 25% of teachers answered "yes" compared to 76% of students. Park (2010) concludes that "the most frequent reason given for not wanting correction was the negative impact of correction on students' confidence and motivation; whereas, the most frequent reason given for wanting correction was the importance of learning to speak English correctly" (p. 10).

Fukuda (2004) investigated teachers' and students' opinions about error treatment in oral communication, revealing that students wanted more error treatment than their teachers believed. Yoshida (2008) investigated teachers' and learners' preferences for corrective feedback, finding that teachers' favoured recast corrective feedback over elicitation and metalinguistic feedback, due to time limitations and their awareness of learners' cognitive styles. On the contrary, students preferred to be given a chance first to reflect on their errors and try to rectify them before receiving final feedback from their teachers.

Although students may have different attitudes towards corrective feedback, the most significant fact is that they expect to be corrected in general. So, it can be concluded that if there is any dissatisfaction on the side of students concerning corrective feedback, it cannot be 'correcting' as such. Fukuda (2004) acknowledges that effective error treatment is extremely complex since it depends on many factors, including students' needs, preferences, personalities, proficiency levels and motivation. Furthermore, Ancker (2000, as cited in Park, 2010) asserts that to eliminate the gap between teachers' and learners' expectations, teachers should establish clear objectives in lesson plans, consider students' contribution towards the learning process, and employ a variety of corrective feedback types that can be effective and encouraging to their students. All in all, teachers need to explore their students' perceptions and expectations in order to identify the problem so that they can eliminate the disparities between what they practice and what the students prefer.

2.11 Providing corrective feedback

Providing corrective feedback to language learners has been a pivotal aspect of second language writing and speaking programmes across the world. A vast majority of teachers would agree that error correction is necessary for students' development of interlanguage. Error correction is common practice in language classrooms. In the same vein, students want to be corrected in general and see correction as valuable to their language development (Tomková, 2013).

There are, however, some factors that complicate the process of error correction and need to be considered seriously before embarking upon error correction. Firstly, and somewhat equivocally, research has not been totally supportive of corrective feedback's role in language learning and teaching. Thus, teachers have a sense of dilemma that they might not be making use of corrective feedback's full potential (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Secondly, although error correction practice is applauded by both teachers and students, the process of correction is not as straightforward as it appears to be. There would probably be, however, some disagreement on aspects of correction such as, what types of error to correct, when to correct, who should correct the errors, what technique to use and how to indicate that an error has occurred. Brown (2007) therefore suggests that teachers need to "develop the intuition, through experience and established theoretical foundations, for ascertaining which option or combination of options is appropriate at given moments" (p. 348). Some of these decisions that teachers have to make before embarking on corrective feedback are dealt with in the next sections.

2.11.1 Debate on what is to be corrected

Error correction is actually a daily practice for every teacher during each lesson. Tomková (2013) states that "since no human learning is perfect, it comes as no surprise that students of English make a lot of errors in the process of acquiring the new language; in reaction to that, their teachers must often provide them with some kind of feedback, which often takes the form of correction" (p. 7). The process is not as simple as it might seem and includes several important decisions on the side of the teacher before any correction is actually carried out. In detecting errors, teachers must compare their students' utterances not with the whole of the target language code, but rather only with the part the students should already be familiar with.

In response to the question "what errors should be corrected", Communicative Language Teaching prescribes the focus to be placed on those errors that hamper communication and which may render it difficult to understand, rather than those containing inconsequential grammatical errors. Global errors are generally more irritating and disturbing than local ones. At the same time, treatment should be given to those errors that occur most frequently. When teachers decide to provide corrective feedback for individual types of error, they should always base their decisions on the extent to which communication is disrupted.

Feedback can be provided on both the form and content of writing. Feedback on form includes grammar and mechanics, such as spelling, punctuation, vocabulary; feedback on content focuses on organisation, ideas and the amount of detail (Fathman and Walley, 1990). Between these two types of feedback, feedback on

form seems to be the more common phenomenon in second language writing because when language teachers correct learners' work, their feedback is mostly focused on correcting linguistic errors. However, this trend of teachers' feedback concentrating more on form has been criticised by some scholars. Truscott (1996) claims that grammar correction is not only ineffective, but it is also harmful. Krashen (2009) calls error correction "a serious mistake" (p. 74) believing that correcting errors of form is indeed a waste of time and effort and that, basically, what the teacher is doing is actually damaging to his or her students. Krashen contends that a focus on form rather than meaning "may disrupt the entire communicative focus of an exchange" (p. 75). Despite these serious criticisms from the opponents of error correction, Ferris (2002) maintains the necessity of feedback on form when stating, "No matter how interesting or original a student's ideas are, an excess of sentence and discourse-level errors may distract and frustrate instructors and other readers" (p. 328). Hence, she further explained, that a lack of grammatical accuracy in ESL student writing may impede students' progress in the university at large.

The fact that the debate on the focus on form takes a dominant role over content does not mean content is less important. Language teachers often misread and misunderstand students' texts, make contradictory comments, provide vague suggestions, prescribe specific ways for revising the texts, eventually redirecting and twisting the intended message. This treatment may frustrate students and make them feel that their original ideas and effort are inadequate, which is actually not the case. Hubbard et al. (1983) warned against this practice when they stated that "nothing will undermine a learner's confidence as much as a series of derogatory comments

on his language performance" (p. 143). Feedback of this kind could be seriously destructive and cause students to withdraw. Thus, Fathman and Whalley (1990) suggested that feedback on both form and content play an important role in improving students' writing.

Some studies indicate that certain types of feedback can be opted for depending on the participants' level of English. Zaman and Azad (2012) reported that both students and teachers in Bangladesh favoured feedback on form in ESL settings which are mainly based on formal study in the classroom. This is due to the fact that their learning environment does not provide the opportunity for natural communication; students only practise the taught forms in the target language. In a naturalistic setting, students concentrate on the message to be conveyed, and can improve ideas and organisation based on what they want to communicate, even if using incorrect forms which they may improve later. In the Bangladesh case, in language classes both students and teachers usually focus on the accuracy rather than fluency.

In her study, Leki (2006) also found that students expect more feedback on form than on content. She reported that out of 21 students, except the 11 who were happy with the amount of feedback, "only four wished for more feedback on content; nine wished more on language, and nine on writing including genre features" (p. 277). Similarly, Zaman and Azad (2012) reported that students with low language proficiency find grammar correction more effective as it is more easily intelligible to them; this contrasts to teachers' suggestions for ideas and organisation which they find too general and fail to get the intended message. In the same vein, teachers in

Zaman and Azad's (2012) study felt feedback on content and organisation seemed to be vague to students and made them feel helpless; consequently, teachers perceive a combination of feedback on both content and form to be more effective.

2.11.2 Debate on how much should be corrected

The greatest worry of language teachers is when their students make errors when communicating in English, because they believe that fossilisation may take place in the process of language learning. This concern, that the students may learn the errors and keep using them, drives teachers to strive for perfection by trying to correct every error that their students make. This approach to language learning and teaching originated from behaviourist theory that was dominant in the 1950s and 1960s. Behaviourist theory is the school of thought that dealt with students' errors in great depth.

Allwright and Bailey (1991) pointed out that only the student can do the learning necessary to improve performance, regardless of how much error treatment is provided. It is indeed frustrating and worrisome on the teacher's side to keep on hearing students' flawed English over and over in the classroom. Therefore, it becomes inevitably irritating for most teachers so that they start correcting all students' error in their classes. Teachers, however, need to be cautious when providing corrective feedback because error corrections have both negative and positive effects.

Corrective feedback may display positive effects by making language learning more effective since it helps second language students notice the gap between their utterances and the target forms, which elicits uptake or repair. This can promote changes in the students' interlanguage systems and lead them to the next linguistic developmental stage. What Allwright and Bailey (1991) emphasise here is the point that it does not really matter how much and how often the teacher corrects the students' errors, as long as students understand that making mistakes is a part of the learning process, and that their teachers only try to help them learn target forms when giving them that much corrective feedback. Consequently, students will favour corrective feedback and should be eager to take risks and build up confidence through practice.

On the other hand, the consequence of how much corrective feedback the teacher provides may exhibit negative effects that can hinder students' language development rather than facilitate learning, since error correction may create barriers between teachers and their students and increase anxiety. This can prevent students from acquiring communicative ability by making them hesitant to speak and afraid to make mistakes. As Semke (1984) claims, "the return of papers covered with the inevitable red marks results in looks of disappointment and discouragement on students' faces" (p. 195). Too much and too frequent correction of negative feedback has a demotivating effect on learners. Ur (1996) suggests that "the correcting of mistakes is part of the language instruction, but too much of it can be discouraging and demoralising" (p. 171). Burt (1975) also cautions that some errors are more

important than others; teachers should use error correction selectively in terms of its importance in order to promote learning.

Communicative approaches have brought a new concept of error to language learning. Communicative approaches demand teachers not to correct all errors of their students. This demand has actually caused an internal conflict in some teachers due to the pedagogical role that traditionally required them to evaluate students' performance on the basis of clearly defined criteria. Communicative approaches, in a way, require teachers to adopt a certain amount of flexibility and open mindedness. This new error dimension seems challenging to teachers in that they have to redefine their error treatment and traditional roles to a certain extent. In support of the communicative approach, Bartram and Walton (1991), however, emphasise that such an approach will enable students to gain confidence, be creative, test out new grammar hypotheses, invent vocabulary, and practise new structures. Thus, we inevitably need to adopt a communicative approach and allow some errors to remain uncorrected.

Teachers need to take cognition of the two types of feedback, corrective feedback and positive feedback. It is very important to provide feedback to all students, either positive or negative. Every student needs to receive some sort of feedback on his or her work to indicate his or her performance. Positive feedback comes in the form of praise. It is more effective than negative feedback which is sometimes regarded as criticism by students. A student should be praised when he or she performs a task,

shows effort, and follows directions. An example of positive feedback is "*Neat work*"; or "*I love the way you present your work*" (Own example).

Another method of positive reinforcement is when students reinforce each other by clapping hands and cheering for peers. However, teachers should as well be aware that too much praise, can make students complacent and it may discourage students to revise their work. On the other hand, some students may not be impressed by empty praise when they know they have not done well enough to deserve such praise; they may actually regard it as insincere (Hyland, 2003). As Harmer (2007) advises, "indiscriminate praise or blame will have little positive effect – indeed it will be negatively received – but a combination of appropriate praise together with helpful suggestions about how to improve in the future will have a much greater chance of contributing to student improvement" (p. 139). Teachers should, therefore, provide a balance of praise and criticism when providing corrective feedback.

Overall, teachers should, by all means, avoid over-emphasis on language mistakes and seek some kind of compromise, which will obviously vary according to context.

2.11.3 Debate on who should provide corrective feedback

Teachers are often worried when their students make errors, because they believe the students may internalise the errors and keep using them. Therefore, teachers think they must prevent fossilisation of errors and ensure that everything students say is perfect. This belief originated from behaviourism which dealt with students' errors in great depth. Traditionally, in a language learning class, language teachers were

expected to indicate to their students not just that they have gone wrong and where the mistake is, but also to correct it for them. With the communicative language teaching approach, this has slightly changed so that the teacher has a choice about who treats the errors. Of course, the teacher can still treat the error, but so can the student who made the error, or the whole class. Scrivener (2005) assumes that the reason for this is that "it may be that being over-helpful as a teacher, could get in the way of learning. I cannot learn for my students. The more I do myself, the less space there will be, for the learners to do things" (p. 21). The purpose of this practice could then be giving learners more space for learning.

2.11.4 Teacher's corrective feedback to students

With communicative language teaching, it has become a common belief amongst linguists that teachers should not correct students' errors straight away, but should rather signal that an error has occurred and direct the student's attention onto the place of the error. Edge (1989) advises otherwise that "if we think that an error needs to be corrected, and if neither the student who made it, nor any other student can correct it, then the teacher has to give more help. This still does not mean that the teacher has to give the correct form straight away." (p. 27).

It is a challenging task, though, for language teachers to determine how to choose the best correction method to use as one way may be suitable for one student but not for another. Unfortunately, there is no conclusive evidence from research that there is a right method. Therefore, when teachers see the need to provide corrective feedback

to their students, they have to do so according to the type of students, their age, the level of study and the type of error.

2.11.5 Challenges in dealing with corrective feedback

2.11.5.1 Written corrective feedback

Language teachers encounter many challenges when providing corrective feedback. Zaman and Azad (2012) conducted a study on problems in dealing with corrective feedback at tertiary level. They specifically asked teachers to mention the problems they encountered regarding the provision of feedback and its implementation on the students' part. The frequent problems listed by the teachers included time constraints, teachers' heavy workload, large class size, students' lack of motivation, and mixed level classes. Teachers indicated time constraints as the most common limitation. They explained that apart from critically checking students' writing and providing feedback on them they also had to follow up again checking on whether students implemented the suggestions. They felt that providing corrective feedback is very time consuming and sometimes it is not possible for them to go through that rigorous process, especially with large classes.

Teacher's heavy workload is also one of the constraints that prevent them from allocating enough time to follow up on the implementation of the corrections and suggestions provided in feedback. Zaman and Azad (2012) added that some teachers provide very brief and less vague comments on the writings, instead of giving relevant, detailed and specific suggestions for improving both form and content.

In addition, Zaman and Azad (2012) stated that teachers complain that students do not always value feedback, so they do not pay attention to it. They further explain that some students expect teachers to spoon-feed them and solve all their language problems, “they do not realise that language learning is a skill, and like any other skill it also requires learners' active participation in solving problems” (p. 150). Leki (1991) also expressed the same concern that ESL tertiary students wished their teachers would provide them with direct feedback on their writing. Similarly, Ferris (1995b; as cited in Hyland, 1998) found that ESL tertiary students were interested in comments on grammar and content. All three studies provide similar results on the students’ preferences concerning grammar corrective feedback.

Bartram and Walton (1991) commented that it is possible to say that learners expect their teachers to correct them, because “that is the traditional view of what a language teacher does” (p. 28). Bartram and Walton (1991) explained further that in most cases, students come from educational backgrounds where they are used to being corrected extensively; so, “one could hardly find a secondary-school language teacher who does not correct at all” (p. 28). Due to this fact, students will expect to be corrected. Bartram and Walton (1991), however, clarified that, that does not mean all students want to be corrected. Bartram and Walton (1991) further observed that students with different preferences “often find themselves in the same class” (p. 29) and this is where the question of correction comes to play.

2.11.5.2 Students' reactions to written corrective feedback

Although L2 students themselves are positive about teacher written feedback, as confirmed by research findings, there are still doubts about the effectiveness and contribution of corrective feedback to students' writing development. This uncertainty is based on questions over the immediate impact on further revisions to drafts and of the longer term development of students' writing skills. Attempts have been made, however, to evaluate aspects of teacher feedback and student revision.

Research studies indicate that sometimes students may ignore or misuse teacher commentary when revising their work. There are several ways in which students react to written feedback. They sometimes misunderstand feedback. In other cases they may understand the corrective feedback provided but are unable to respond to it suitably; as a result they may simply delete the text that they cannot make sense of, to avoid the pinpointed issues (Hyland 1998).

Another pertinent concern is whether corrective feedback improves students' writing as a result of their revision and in response to teacher corrective feedback. Empirical studies do not have conclusive results on this issue. Conrad and Goldstein (1999) explained that it is too complicated to specify an underlying relationship between feedback and revision since both these exercises happen within a complex of contextual factors which can impact the extent and success of revision after feedback. However, it is the teachers' objective to improve their students writing through the corrective feedback that they provide them. So, in order to achieve their objective, teachers try to personalise their comments and tailor their feedback to suit

each student considering their backgrounds, needs and preferences as well as the relationship they have with them and the ongoing dialogue between them (Hyland 1998, 2001).

2.11.5.3 Providing oral corrective feedback

When it comes to provision of oral feedback, some researchers seem to express it as straight forward and simple to handle: teachers can either choose to correct or not to correct. This sounds simple, but language teachers do not find it so. Lightbound (2005, cited in Tomková, 2013) concurs with teachers' practical experiences that the process of locating and treating an error is much more complicated in oral production than it is in writing. Valero, Fernandez, Iseni and Clarkson (2008) identified three obstacles that teachers encounter when they have to deal with students' errors. These problems are that teachers have to first find the cause of the mistake or the error; they should also devise strategies to effectively interact with students in correcting their errors; and lastly, they have to find ways to ensure the total elimination of their students' errors so that they do not become recurrent. In order to overcome these obstacles, a teacher then needs to understand why the error is an error; for example, by comparing what the student said with what the teacher himself or herself believes the student wanted to say. This can definitely be a challenge for the teacher to ensure accurate interpretation of the students' utterances before determining it erroneous. Elqadi (2013) claims that a good English language teacher should be an artist and not an ordinary one who has to be told what to do all the time without ever using their own intelligence.

For a teacher to be able to decide whether to correct or not to correct, there are a number of factors that need to be considered, such as the nature of the error, the type of student, and the potential objectives for providing feedback. For instance, a teacher needs to decide when it is most appropriate and necessary to interrupt the student to correct the error. Should the teacher interrupt the student to correct the error instantly or should feedback be withheld until the student has finished the utterance? The answer to this question depends upon the objectives the teacher holds when intending to give the feedback. In this scenario, the teacher may be torn between the behaviourist framework and the principles of the communicative approach. The former advocates that errors must be avoided or else students might develop bad habits that could be fossilised; the latter maintains the core idea that not all errors should be dealt with and learners should not be perpetually corrected. This whole dilemma becomes a challenge to teachers. Abdollahzadeh and Maleki (2011), however, shed light on these issues by saying that "leaving learners' errors unnoticed might result in the fossilisation of erroneous structures; hence, they should not be neglected, instead learners' errors should be corrected either on the spot or with delay" (pp. 64-65).

Another challenge that may surface is when a teacher wants a student to master the correct form. Once the student makes an error, the teacher's dilemma is whether to repeatedly require the student to produce the form until the student reaches perfection, or, weary from the effort, ignore the error.

Furthermore, teachers face another challenge as to what type of oral feedback they should employ. Despite the fact that a great variety of techniques is available to teachers to provide corrective feedback to students, most teachers opt to use recasts that reportedly are, however, the least efficient type regarding language acquisition (Tomková, 2013). Sometimes interpersonal conflict occurs in L2 classrooms because students tend to perceive recasts as criticism or mockery, rather than as error correction. The social dynamics between teachers and students could sometimes lead to the misinterpretation of recasts which Morris and Tarone (2003) find negatively impacting students' uptake of the correction.

Tomková (2013) observes that "a teacher's tone and demeanour as well as other paralinguistic cues may affect, either positively or negatively, how students receive oral error correction" (p. 27). Tomková explains further that the social dynamics between teachers and students may affect students' perceptions of corrective feedback; however, Tomkova expresses that more research is needed in this area before any definitive claims can be made. To sum up, these are some of the possible challenges that language teachers encounter in the process of providing oral corrective feedback.

2.11.5.4 Self-correction and peer feedback

In a traditional language class, the teacher is the authoritative figure where he or she is considered the sole source of knowledge. Students play the role of just a passive receiver of information. When correction always comes from the teacher, it reinforces teacher's authority. Due to the emergence of Communicative Language

Teaching and Learner-centered Teaching, students' active participation in language learning is now highly sought; peer correction is becoming increasingly popular in ESL classrooms. Consequently, through the practice of peer feedback, the classroom becomes less dominated by the teacher.

Peer correction becomes relevant when students are unable to self-correct. Self-correction on the other hand, is the technique which engages students to correct their own errors. The idea of self-correction is closely tied with student autonomy as well as the saying, "Tell us, we forget; show us we remember; involve us, we learn". Self-correction is, therefore, another option to respond to the question of who should correct; some theorists such as Edge (1989) regard it to be the best form of correction. Edge explains that people usually prefer to sort out errors themselves rather than being corrected by someone else; this is true not just for language learning. Self-correction can foster the development of the necessary skills for students to adjust their own learning and places more responsibility for learning on the students themselves.

Sheen and Ellis (2011), however, observe that "learners can only self-correct if they possess the necessary linguistic knowledge" (p. 600). It is important to note that, to employ self-correction a student does not need to be rushed; sufficient time should be granted to him or her to reflect on how to rectify the error. Only when the student struggles and cannot find a way to correct himself or herself, then peers may be brought in to help. If peers also fail to correct the error, then the teacher can provide

the correction. This process may be altered depending on the individual needs of the students, the availability of time and the atmosphere.

Russell and Spada (2006) observe that students can also help each other especially with accuracy and form. Peer correction in class may happen when, for example, a student gives a response and the teacher asks a class: “Do you think that’s right?” or the teacher tells students to add a written comment to a piece of written work that others have completed. Most language teachers will apply this technique in classrooms, whether they are aware or not aware of this theory of learning. James (1998) comments that peer correction means learners face minimal threat when being corrected. James recommends peer correction rather than teacher correction if possible to minimise the threat. In other words, peer feedback is less threatening than teacher feedback because students are more comfortable with their classmates and therefore, getting corrected by own friends evokes less anxiety. Moreover, involving peers in the correction process makes the classroom atmosphere more supportive and comfortable.

In support of both peer correction and self-correct feedback, Edge (1989) claims that “the more the students are involved in correction, the more they have to think about the language used in the classroom” (p. 27). Error correction and corrective feedback which are traditionally thought to be the obligation of a teacher need no more be classified as such. These exercises should not be the responsibility of any single person but should be everyone’s duty, teachers and learners.

2.11.5.5 Some drawbacks on peer corrective feedback

There are some drawbacks as far as peer correction practice is concerned. Edge (1989) warns that "the idea of peer correction is to encourage cooperation, not to put one or two students in the traditional place of the teacher" (p. 26). Therefore, peer correction needs to be taken cautiously, as some correction given by students with stronger personalities, might be also incorrect. Studies on students' perception of peer feedback indicate that students usually prefer teacher feedback to peer feedback. Saito (1994) reported that the majority of ESL students in her study favoured teacher feedback over peer feedback or self-correction. Again, some students felt reluctant to correct their friends' errors because correcting friends' errors might harm their relationship. After being corrected by a peer, a student might feel inferior to his or her peers; in such cases, some students would prefer to be corrected gently by the teacher.

Two further complications also arise. Some students might feel uncomfortable about giving their work to their peers for correction because they do not want their classmates to know about their errors. Such students, therefore, feel that peer correction exposes them to their community and as a result, their self-esteem can be affected. Others may opt not to revise their work to incorporate their friends' feedback because they feel there is no value in it.

It is evident therefore that problems might occur when peer correction does not suit the students or is not practised cautiously. The caveat has to be that peer correction

should be exercised, only when there is a strongly cooperative atmosphere in the classroom.

2.11.5.6 Debate on when to provide corrective feedback

To make feedback effective it is also necessary to decide when to give feedback and when not. Bartram and Walton (1991) claim, “often the spontaneous reaction on hearing an [error] is to correct immediately” (p. 4). Teachers usually correct their students spontaneously but it does not mean that it is the only and best thing to do. As Christison and Krahnke (1983) observe, methodological recommendations range from correcting all spotted errors to not correcting at all. There are also several options regarding the timing of correction. It can be done immediately, after a while when the student finishes his or her whole utterance, at the end of the activity, later in the lesson, at the end of the lesson, in the next lesson, later in the course or even never at all. The timing of the provision of corrective feedback can also be influenced by the type of activity the learners are doing.

Immediate oral correction has been criticised by some scholars such as Allwright and Bailey (1991) that “it often involves interrupting the learner in mid-sentence – a practice which can certainly be disruptive and could eventually inhibit the learner's willingness to speak in class at all” (p. 103). At the same time, Allwright and Bailey (1991), citing psychology literature, stress that “feedback becomes less effective as the time between the performance of the skill and the feedback increases” (p. 103). This contradiction complicates teachers’ decisions concerning when to correct.

When it comes to writing, it is sometimes claimed that mid-draft feedback especially on form, affects student autonomy. However, in their study, Zaman and Azad (2012) found that there is a gap between teachers' and students' perception regarding this issue. They reported that 58% of teachers in their study said providing mid-draft feedback affected the flow of the writing, while only 20% of students thought it hampered their flow. This suggests that students prefer continuous help and guidance from their teachers throughout their writing process, while teachers sometimes try to avoid giving mid-draft feedback.

Additionally, language theorists provide advice on correction of global and local errors. Brown (2007) explains that "local errors usually need not be corrected since the message is clear and correction might interrupt a learner in the flow of productive communication. Global errors need to be treated in some way; since, the message may otherwise remain garbled" (p. 347). That implies, there is a need to make a clear difference between non-communicative and communicative activities. Whereas the former are generally intended to ensure correctness, the latter are designed to improve language fluency. Harmer (2007) also explains that when students are engaged in communicative activities, the teacher should not intervene by "telling students that they are making mistakes, insisting on accuracy and asking for repetition, etc." (p. 44). Tomková (2013) concludes that since communicative language teaching evaluates seriousness of error from the point of view of communication, errors that cause a breakdown of communication should be considered the most serious, whereas little details that do not disturb understanding can be given little or no treatment.

A further distinction is often made between accuracy and fluency. Language teachers always need to be careful of the balance between *fluency*, ability to speak quickly and smoothly without much thought, and *accuracy*, ability to speak in a grammatically correct manner. Teachers need to be clear whether a particular activity requires complete accuracy, as in the study of a piece of grammar or a pronunciation exercise, or is asking students to use the language as fluently as possible. Teachers have to be vigilant as to when their correction should focus on accuracy and when they should pay attention to fluency. It has been argued that too much desire or struggle for accuracy denies a student fluency, while, too much emphasis on fluency can result in spoken gibberish that follows no rules at all.

In activities where fluency is the focus, such as role play or group discussions, immediate correction should be avoided. Bartram and Walton (1991) stress that during such activities students should "work on their capacity to communicate within the language" (p. 32). If immediate correction is offered in such an activity, it disrupts students' desire to speak and interferes with the intended learning process. Edge (1989) states that, students should be allowed to experience "uninterrupted, meaningful communication if they are to learn to use the language" (p. 37). When teachers focus on what the students say, they should not correct them immediately. Teachers should rather encourage students to keep on speaking and pay attention to content. The only exception to this, as Edge (1989) observes, is errors which affect communication and make information exchange impossible. In such cases, teachers can then opt to correct.

Based on the aforementioned, it proves to be difficult to arrive at any general satisfactory conclusion regarding delayed and immediate correction. However, the conclusion can be drawn that during fluency activities aimed at communication, errors should be tolerated and if need be, corrected only afterwards; the only exceptions would be errors preventing successful communication. For role-play and free group or pair discussions, correction should be avoided. To sum up, teachers should base every decision, concerning when to offer corrective feedback, on specific situations and student's needs.

2.11.5.7 Debate on type of feedback to be given

Most teachers would agree that providing corrective feedback can support the students' learning process (Edge, 1989). What teachers would probably not agree upon, however, is how to correct errors. As Doff (1993) claims, "there is no single best technique for correcting errors" (p. 190). Nonetheless, theory suggests several strategies that teachers may utilise in order to make their correction techniques effective.

The most important factor guiding the teacher to decide what corrective feedback strategy to use is knowledge of the students' background and language level. Doff (1993) states that "the most important thing is for the teacher to be flexible and to be aware of the effect on each individual learner of correcting errors" (p. 190). This implies that teachers should always adjust their corrective feedback to their students' needs and individualities. The type of error, the student's personality and the

situation should provide guidance to the teacher to identify different strategies and techniques for specific individuals. Brown (2007) also advises that teachers should "make a series of instant judgments about the learner's language ego fragility; anxiety level, confidence, and willingness to accept correction" (p. 350). That means a teacher may, therefore, decide to abandon correction if the error was made by a student who is highly anxious and who lacks confidence. It is thus advisable that teachers should always listen to their students carefully, observe them and try to evaluate each situation individually.

A number of researchers have compared different types of error feedback to see if the level of explicitness makes a difference in student adoption of teacher corrections, finding that some techniques are more efficient than others. One important dichotomy is the distinction between direct and indirect feedback (Bates, Lane & Lange, 1993; Ferris, 1995a, 2002, 2003; Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005; Lalande, 1982).

Researchers observe that indirect error feedback is generally preferable because it forces students to engage in guided learning and problem-solving and helps them build skills as independent self-editors (Lalande, 1982; Bates et al., 1993). Although indirect corrective feedback is recommended, it should also be noted that language learners at lower levels may not have sufficient linguistic knowledge to enable them to self-correct errors even when they are pointed out (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). A judicious combination of direct and indirect feedback is therefore recommended, varying according to error type and situation (Chaney, 1999; Ferris, 1999).

Feedback in second language learning is a complex phenomenon in many ways. An error can be treated by corrective feedback but this is just one of the many options. Corrective feedback is a type of feedback that "takes the form of a response to a learner utterance containing a linguistic error" (Ellis, 2009b. p. 3). Apart from corrective feedback, a teacher can provide other kinds of feedback that can either be positive or negative.

Positive feedback is provided to affirm that a student's response to an activity is correct. It may signal the accuracy of the content or the linguistic correctness of a student's utterance. Ellis (2009b) alludes that "in pedagogical theory, positive feedback is viewed as important because it provides affective support to the learner and fosters motivation to continue learning" (p. 3). The opposite is negative feedback. Tomková (2013) defines feedback as negative if it "signals that the learner's utterance is linguistically deviant or lacks enough veracity" (p. 67).

The strategy for deciding whether feedback should be negative or positive has been widely debated. Zaman and Azad (2012) recommend that "a combination of both negative and positive feedback can serve the purpose better than exclusively negative or positive one" (p. 145). Zaman and Azad base their recommendations on their study, "Feedback in EFL Writing at Tertiary Level: Teachers' and Learners' Perceptions", finding that:

> Only 35% learners agreed that comments made by their teachers on their errors frustrate them, while 45% disagreed to this, and the remaining 20% neither agreed nor disagreed. 37.50% said they expect positive comments from their teachers on their writings. Teachers' opinions establish the fact further that learners are not frustrated by the negative comments. 91.67% teachers believe that negative comments do not frustrate learners nor do they undermine their confidence, while 100% of the teachers participating [in] our survey said that a combination of both negative and positive feedback, i.e. comment and suggestion on both learners' weaknesses and strengths, would help better (2012, pp. 147-148).

Additionally, teachers should praise students for correct answers, so that they can be aware of the progress they are making in their interlanguage development. This kind of positive feedback motivates students to become more willing to risk and experiment with the target language. Importantly, teachers should seriously be aware of the point that feedback should never be practised as a kind of punishment to students for the errors made. In language learning, errors should be regarded as positive in that they indicate that “learning is taking place and that learners are taking risks with the language” (Spratt et al., 2010, p. 143). Errors should, therefore, not be seen as signs of failure or inhibition, but rather as evidence of students experimenting with language. Tomková (2013) also urges that “what teachers must avoid at all costs, on the contrary, is corrective feedback that is derogatory or punitive in any

way" (p. 76). It is, therefore, vital for teachers to demonstrate positive attitudes towards correction and try to avoid humiliating feedback.

The complexity of corrective feedback is manifested in the many decisions that teachers have to make (Ellis, 2009b). Despite the fact that corrective feedback has been the subject of many studies that are conducted in language classrooms, there are still no simple conclusions regarding successful ways of providing correction. Although it is not easy and probably impossible to give teachers any clear cut prescriptions for handling errors and mistakes, any awareness of the possible steps that can be taken in making each decision can work as helpful guidelines for teachers. It is, therefore, advisable that teachers' decisions on correction must be led by specific situations and student needs, alongside any general guidelines that might be available.

2.11.5.8 The role of teachers' non-verbal behaviour in providing corrective feedback to students

Many empirical studies focusing on corrective feedback primarily only consider verbal-correction provided by teachers to their students in classroom situations. Scholars such as Krashen and Terrell (1995), claim that teachers are the primary sources of linguistic feedback for students. Allen (2000) also asserts that "systematic observational studies conducted in FL (Foreign Language) classes over the past three decades have focused almost exclusively on verbal behaviour" (p. 156). It, thus, becomes evident that much of the corrective feedback literature ignores the role of teachers' non-verbal behaviour in providing corrective feedback to their students.

Guvendir (2011) states that "… research dealing only with verbal corrections provided by language teachers cannot fully define the classroom interaction in terms of teachers' use of error correction techniques and student notification and uptake" (p. 577). In their study, Kellogg and Lawson (1993) indicated that 82% of all teachers' communication attempts are non-verbal. Bancroft (1997) also stated that about two thirds of human communication is ruled by non-verbal behaviour. It is, therefore, vitally important to realise that corrective feedback to students cannot be entirely examined without taking into account the non-verbal behaviour of students and teachers in the classroom.

Non-verbal communication can be considered broadly as involving various manifestations such as facial expressions, gestures, gaze, touch, paralinguistics, mannerisms, humor, language of touch, and other forms of body language. In a classroom situation when a student makes a mistake, for example, using a verb tense incorrectly, a teacher can use an *exaggerated* facial expression such as giving an open-mouthed sign, a wide-eyed stare, or an arched eyebrow to signal the mistake**.** Gestures are other effective ways to show students that they have made a mistake. A teacher may gesture backwards or point to the back with his or her hand to indicate to a student that he or she has to use the verb in the past. It's quite common for students to use wrong pronouns, for example, "*She asked our father for permission to go out with* ***your*** *boyfriend.*" (own example); in such a case, a teacher may use a gesture by simply pointing to him- or herself with a look of shock or surprise. Otherwise, a teacher may also implement a gesture to indicate to a student to repeat

something, and if a student repeats the mistake, a teacher can raise a finger to show them *where* in the sentence the mistake is. However, a student still has to figure out what the problem is.

Guvendir (2011) highlights that according to studies dealing with the commonality and the importance of non-verbal communication in second language classrooms, it can be concluded that teachers frequently use non-verbal communication. Guvendir's study on the role of non-verbal behaviour of teachers in providing corrective feedback to students suggests that a language teacher displays coherent forms of non-verbal behaviour to indicate that he or she is correcting the students' errors or providing them with clues to allow them to correct themselves. According to Guvendir (2011), the teacher whose class was observed for the study often did not directly correct the students' errors verbally, but displayed various non-verbal behaviours to give the students the chance to review their problematic output; most of the time teachers only turned to verbal correction as a last resort. Guvendir demonstrates that research dealing only with verbal corrections provided by language teachers cannot fully describe classroom interaction in terms of teachers' use of error correction techniques and student notification and uptake. In this sense, present study will therefore consider examining non-verbal communication behaviour of lecturers and students during L2 learning and teaching in the classroom.

2.12 Conclusion

This literature review has reported on the studies relevant to the issues covered in this study – teachers' and students' perceptions and preferences on ESL corrective

feedback, corrective feedback strategies, efficacy of corrective feedback, and providing corrective feedback. This chapter has not only discussed different aspects of provision of corrective feedback in ESL, it has also highlighted several SLA theories and presented the theoretical framework of the study. The chapter has also deliberated in detail on questions prompted by Lyster and Ranta (1997). These questions seek answers to issues, such as, what errors should be corrected, how much should be corrected, who should provide corrective feedback, when to provide corrective feedback, and what type of feedback should be given. Despite the numerous research studies that have been conducted on corrective feedback in the last decade, these questions remain unsatisfactorily answered.

Finally, the available research studies investigating corrective feedback in ESL did not examine the aspect of teachers' and students' perceptions and preferences on ESL corrective feedback. To be specific, no study has ever been done in Namibia to identify lecturers' and students' perceptions and preferences on ESL corrective feedback, not only at tertiary level but also at secondary or primary levels. The present study is, therefore, an attempt to address this under-researched area in Namibia.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides details of the research design and methodology. The chapter gives an overview of organisation, justification and selection of subjects, as well as procedures used during data collection. It also provides a description of the subjects of the study and explains the instruments used for data collection. Both quantitative and qualitative data was collected by means of observation, written questionnaires and interviews that elicited participants' perceptions and preferences on English as a Second Language corrective feedback. Open-ended questions were used to collect qualitative data in order to obtain in-depth information elaborating on why lecturers and students preferred a particular type of feedback or a certain amount of feedback.

The data described in this chapter were collected by the researcher herself in order to ensure reliability of the data. Richards and Schmidt (2010) define reliability as "a measure of the degree to which a test gives consistent results" (p. 454). A further clarification on reliability is that "a test is said to be reliable if it gives the same results when it is given on different occasions or when it is used by different people" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 454). In other words, reliability has to do with the consistency or the repeatability of a measure or an instrument such as a questionnaire. High reliability is, therefore, attained when the measure or instrument gives the same results if the research is repeated on the same sample.

The researcher observed the entire process and prepared the survey to take place in a controlled environment in order to ensure that all factors that might interfere with data collection were minimised. This procedure also enabled the researcher to explain questions for which participants needed clarification and to lead the process in order to save time.

The survey was conducted over a two-week period in October 2014 before the end-of-semester examinations. This was regarded by the researcher as the best time to conduct the survey because feedback practices were most likely to be well-implemented by that point.

The chapter closes with an explanation of the methods of data analysis that were used, both quantitative and qualitative, in the context of the research questions.

3.2 Population and sampling

The study was conducted in the Faculty of Human Sciences, Department of Education and Languages at the Namibia University of Science and Technology. The data for this research were collected through a survey carried out among eight lecturers and two hundred and forty students. The lecturers' group consisted of two males and six females, aged between twenty five and forty seven. Out of eight lecturers, three had an MA in TESOL and among whom one had a PhD. Two were doing an MA in English Literature and two had BA Honours degrees. They had various lengths of experience in teaching English language at tertiary level, ranging from two to fifteen years.

A sample of two hundred and forty students was conveniently selected from the population of six hundred students who were doing Language in Practice (LIP) English course. All two hundred and forty students were observed during LIP lectures, in eight LIP English course classes. A further sample of forty students was purposively selected from the two hundred and forty students, for the purpose of interviews and completion of questionnaires. LIP is the first level of the four English service courses that are offered to students who are enrolled at the Namibia University of Science and Technology. Courses are offered depending on the grade they scored for Grade 12 English as a Second Language end-of-year examination or their performance for an English placement examination offered by the Namibia University of Science and Technology. These service courses provide training in both oral and written communication, with a special focus on the four main language domains of listening, speaking, reading and writing, as well as the research skills required of tertiary level students. The LIP course mainly focuses on improving students' writing and listening abilities, especially grammar aspects such as tenses, parts of speech and academic essay writing. Students are also introduced to the aspects of rudimentary critical reading.

Richards and Schmidt (2010) define a sample as "any group of individuals that is selected to represent a population" (p. 465). The selected subjects should remain as representative as possible. Terre Blanche (2006) defines sampling as a process of selecting research participants from an entire population, and involves decisions about which people, settings, events, behaviours and social processes to observe.

According to Maree (2007), sampling refers to the process used to select a portion of the population for study. For the present study, samples of five students were selected from each class, consisting of nineteen males and twenty one females, whose age ranged between seventeen and thirty five. Of the forty student participants, 67.5% stated that their native language was Oshiwambo, 5% Otjiherero and 5% Rukavango. The remaining 22.5% specified other native languages such as French, Rukwangari , Xhosa, Rumanyo, Choque, Tswana, Silozi, Thimbukushu and Ggciriku, representing 2.5% each. Although the sampling was conducted in eight class groups where there were about thirty students in each, totalling two hundred and forty, those students who were absent from class during observation were excluded from the study.

3.3 Research design

This is a mixed method research; it is both qualitative and quantitative in nature. Although mixed method research is still relatively new, this approach is increasingly used in social science fields. A mixed method approach has a number of benefits, such as being "helpful in gaining in-depth understanding of trends and patterns; generating and testing theories; developing new measurement instruments; studying diverse perspectives; and understanding the relationship between variables" (Ivankova & Creswell, 2009, p. 145). Patton (2002) perceives studies that use only one research method, either qualitative or quantitative, to be more vulnerable to errors linked to that particular method, in comparison with studies that use multiple methods in which different types of data can help validate each other. In mixed method research, a researcher collects numeric information, for example, through

closed-response items on questionnaires, and text information from face-to-face interviews to answer the research questions better (Ivankova & Creswell, 2009, p. 137). Therefore, a mixed method approach can provide answers to both 'what' and 'why' questions and this way offers a more complete understanding of the research problem than if qualitative or quantitative methods were used solely.

For the present study, class observations and interviews were used to provide data that were analysed qualitatively. The qualitative method involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meaning people bring to them.

Quantitative data were generated through questionnaires. The questionnaires investigated lecturers' and students' perceptions and preferences of necessity of error correction, frequency of correction, timing of correction, types of errors, methods of corrective feedback, and who provides corrective feedback. Collected quantitative data helped the researcher get an overall idea of the lecturers' and students' perceptions and preferences as well as the status quo of corrective feedback practices in the ESL classroom. Significant quantitative results were checked and explored against the qualitative interviews to gain greater insight into the similarities and differences between lecturers' and students' perceptions and preferences on ESL corrective feedback. Hence, the rationale for opting for mixed methods approach was that the qualitative data were anticipated to elaborate on the data retrieved through the quantitative investigation.

3.3.1 Principal method design

The present study used a triangulation design. Richards and Schmidt (2010) define a triangulation design as "the process of collecting data from several different sources or in different ways in order to provide a fuller understanding of a phenomenon" (p. 565). The most common type of triangulation involves obtaining data from more than one source, such as interviews, observations, questionnaires and documents. Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann and Hanson (2003) commend triangulation to be the best method when a researcher intends to collect both types of data simultaneously about a single phenomenon, in order to compare and contrast the different findings, thus producing well-validated conclusions. Creswell (2003) confirms that triangulation results in well-validated and substantiated findings as it can offset any weaknesses of one method with strengths from another method.

For the present study, both the quantitative and qualitative data were collected simultaneously. The class observation, the questionnaires and focus group interviews were conducted at the same time and with the same participants, in order for the researcher to be able to compare the quantitative and qualitative results. The questionnaires contained some close-ended questions to collect quantitative data and open-ended questions to obtain qualitative data.

3.3.2 Class observation framework

The class observation involved eight complete classes and took place during an hour-long LIP class. The eight classes had 27, 27, 29, 30, 32, 33, 34 and 34 students. LIP

courses are semester-long and consist of four hours of face-to-face lectures and two lab-based lessons per week. The eight classes were observed based on their LIP lecturers' agreement and willingness to have their lessons observed.

The focus of observation was on lecturer and student interaction. Observation was conducted during normal lectures where different English related topics were discussed. The researcher was always a passive observer, except in one specific lesson when a lecturer requested the researcher for her opinion on one debated language aspect. Since the researcher also teaches the same course at the same institution, but to different class groups, she shared her opinion on the debated language aspect.

When errors occurred in the students' utterance, the researcher would pay extra attention and closely examine the situation to observe who reacted to the error: the lecturer, other students, the student himself or herself, or nobody. If the error was corrected, the researcher took note of who corrected the error and how. Simultaneously, the researcher observed how the student who made the error responded to the correction or the treatment of his or her error. The researcher also took notes during class observation, with the help of prompts that she prepared for observation purposes, to help with later analysis. If there were unclear points or situations, the researcher would talk with the lecturers and students after the lecture and ask them to explain what happened. Although the lecturers knew that the researcher was interested in classroom interaction, neither the lecturers nor students

were aware that the researcher's interest was focused on errors made and corrective feedback.

3.3.3 Questionnaire

There are important issues that need to be taken into consideration when designing a questionnaire, such as validity, reliability and unambiguity (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 438). Richards and Schmidt (2010) define validity as "the degree to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure, or can be used successfully for the purposes for which it is intended. A number of different statistical procedures can be applied to a test to estimate its validity." (p. 575). Reliability refers to "a measure of the degree to which a test gives consistent results" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 454). The third quality that a questionnaire should have is unambiguity which simply means, the questions in the questionnaire should not imply more than one meaning but they should be specific and indicate clearly what meaning is intended. Maree (2007) also advises that designing a questionnaire requires the researcher to give attention to the following aspects: appearance of questionnaire; question sequence; wording of questions; and response categories.

Best and Kahn (1993) highlight some advantages of using questionnaires as a method of investigation. These are:

i) It seeks only the information, which cannot be obtained from other sources such as school reports or census data.

ii) The questions are objective, with no leading suggestions to the responses desired.

iii) It is easy to tabulate and interpret.

iv) It can be completed at a convenient time.

v) Travelling and subsistence costs are minimal.

vi) Anonymity of the respondents is guaranteed because their names are not given. (p. 231)

Tuckman (1994), however, warns that despite the advantages of a questionnaire, it should be used with caution because "it limits the kind of questions that can be asked and kind of answers that can be obtained; personally sensitive and revealing information is difficult to obtain from the questionnaire; it is difficult to get useful answers to indirect and nonspecific questionnaire; on questionnaires, the researcher must decide all of his or her questions in advance; printing, travelling and postage become very expensive; rate of return of the questionnaire is normally very poor; and the questionnaire may not convey the same meaning to all respondents" (p. 381). Therefore, designing a questionnaire is not a simple exercise. A well-designed questionnaire is essential to a successful survey. Hence, it can be concluded that a good questionnaire should directly achieve the research objectives; it should be brief and easy to complete; it should enable the respondent to provide complete and accurate information; and it should be designed to make sound analysis and interpretation possible.

3.3.3.1 Types of questionnaires used

Two different questionnaires were used in this survey, one specifically for students and the other for lecturers. Questionnaires were designed by adapting the instrument

used by Leki (1991) in the study "Survey of ESL Students' Preferences for Error Correction". The parallel questionnaires were designed to collect quantitative and qualitative data and allow the comparison of lecturers' and students' perceptions and preferences, with reasons, on corrective feedback. The instructions and wording of the items were constructed to be suitable for each group, that is, lecturers and students. Close-ended questions were set to collect the quantitative data for this study, while open-ended questions were constructed to collect qualitative data.

Close-ended questions were set with some stimuli which were either questions or statements that the participants read, after which they choose the most appropriate response from a list of possible responses. Dichotomous choices such as *yes or no* or *agree or disagree* were used in some questions. Questions could also be in the multiple choice format where all of the possible answers were listed, or constructed in the form of Likert scale items where the respondents had a number of possible responses to choose from such as *highly agree, partially agree, not sure, partially disagree*, and *highly disagree*. Wagner (2011), however, indicates that some researchers do not prefer giving the survey takers an option such as *not sure*, because of the observation that "participants who do not have strong feelings about the material in the survey tend to select this category" (p. 27). According to Wagner (2011), these researchers believe that "not giving the participants this option can lead to more interpretable results" (p. 27). However, the researcher of the present study tends to disagree with this claim because, from the experience of completing various survey tools, if response options omit that neutral choice the respondents are forced to either agree or disagree even if they have no idea or cannot make a precise

decision about the material in question. Vogt (2007 as cited in Wagner, 2011) also contends that "respondents choose this neutral response because it most accurately describes their response to the statement, and that it is inappropriate not to offer this response simply because it is inconvenient for the researcher" (p. 28). Thus, the researcher of the present study deemed it vital to include the neutral option.

For some questions where the researcher needed to elicit elaborative information from the respondents, open-ended questions were constructed. Some of these open-ended questions required the respondents to provide a reason for the answer they had given or to provide additional information beyond the possible responses provided. As well as eliciting objective data such as background information about the participants such as gender, age, nationality, and so on, open-ended questions were used to obtain subjective data such as information about the beliefs, attitudes and preferences of the participants concerning corrective feedback.

In order to increase the validity of the questionnaires as research tools, some items were adapted from questionnaires used in previous studies that examined similar research questions, such as Tomková (2013) and Johnstun (2008). Freeman (2009) explains that "the methodicalness of data collection and analysis encapsulates the potential for publicness in the research process" (p. 34). The methodicalness alluded to in this context refers to how the work is being organised in the setting or place; how the work is being organised and sequenced reflects the methodology in time. Freeman further warns that the conclusions of research studies can be challenged based on the means that the researcher used to arrive at certain conclusions; the

methodology needs carefully to embody considerations concerning "what the data were; how they were gathered; and how they were analysed" (p. 34). In particular, the issues of replicability and generalisability of the research have to be taken into consideration by ensuring that the conclusions of a research study are comparable and relevant to other settings.

3.3.3.2 The structure of the questionnaires

The questionnaires in this study consisted of three parts. The first part contained items aimed at obtaining participants' demographic information. The demographic section for student participants was designed to elicit three pieces of information about their gender, native language and age group, while the lecturer participants' demographic section contained items that elicited six items of information namely gender, native language, age group, academic status, their major, and length of teaching English.

The second part of each questionnaire consisted of fourteen items for student participants and fifteen items for lecturer participants, focusing on items eliciting information concerning corrective feedback related to speaking provided in the ESL classroom. The last part concentrated on the provision of written corrective feedback on students' written work, consisting of eighteen items for student participants and twenty four for lecturer participants.

Both questionnaires were specifically designed to investigate issues such as: assessing own level of English proficiency; the status quo regarding corrective

feedback practices; participants' perceptions and preferences of corrective feedback; types of errors committed and the types of corrective feedback provided during lessons; perceptions on types of errors that need to be corrected; perceptions on who to correct which type of errors; how each student responds to the feedback he or she receives; and preferences for timing of error correction. A sample of each questionnaire used for the present study is included in the Appendices.

3.3.3.3 Administration of questionnaires: Procedure

The questionnaires were initially administered for piloting purposes to ten students from LIP English classes and two lecturers who teach LIP English to these ten students. This preliminary testing of the questionnaires highlighted some ambiguities in certain questions that were rectified before the questionnaires were administered to participants in the actual survey. All the participants, lecturers and students, in the pilot study were informed to finish the questionnaire in not more than forty minutes. Participants were observed while completing the questionnaires and requested to indicate any difficulties they encountered, such as items that were unclear or difficult to answer. Not all participants could finish completing the entire questionnaire in the given time.

As a result of the piloting exercise, some questionnaire items were removed because participants had indicated that the questionnaire was too long. Also, three items – mechanics, concord, and style and register – were simplified because some students had difficulties understanding them. After the participants in the piloting exercise had finished completing the questionnaires, the researcher held a discussion with

them to elicit verbal feedback about the questionnaires. None of the data collected in the pilot was used in the actual study.

Before the participants started completing the questionnaire, the researcher explained the purpose and the potential usefulness of the survey and made it clear that the questionnaire was not a test. The researcher assured the participants that their responses would be used for research purposes only. Before signing the consent form, the participants were informed that their participation was voluntary and the survey was anonymous. All participants were given an opportunity to read the consent form, and once they were satisfied and understood the content, they were requested to sign it.

Ultimately, the researcher emphasised the importance of giving honest answers, and after all the explanations and clarifications, participants were assured of confidentiality and of the potential usefulness of the data. After collecting the consent forms from the participants, the researcher distributed the questionnaire for completion. Some participants conveyed to the researcher their thanks and commended the effort to conduct such a survey because they felt it was vital. They encouraged researchers to continue engaging in such studies in order to make an impact in the Namibian educational system.

3.3.3.4 Completion of questionnaires

It is a common practice that researchers do not always deliver questionnaires personally to their respondents. They either post questionnaires to respondents or

drop them to specific places and let the correspondents collect questionnaires from those points. According to Welman (2005), research has indicated that if questionnaires are posted to respondents, they either do not come back to the researcher, or if they happened to be returned, there may be a delay in coming back; otherwise, sometimes respondents do not fill the questionnaires correctly. Therefore, Welman claims that the researcher has the least control over the conditions under which postal questionnaires are completed. The chances are high that some questions may be omitted or not responded to in the order presented, or even that someone else may complete or censor some of the questions. When a respondent leaves a single question unanswered, it may even mean that the rest of his or her responses cannot be relied upon for analysis. It is, therefore, of vital importance that the researcher chooses the most convenient and safe mode to deliver the questionnaires to the respondents. The researcher's lack of control over the completion of the questionnaires may result not only in a poor response rate in terms of the percentage of questionnaires handed back but also in poorly completed questionnaires.

The researcher of the present study opted to deliver the questionnaires personally to the respondents in order to ensure a high response rate and proper completion. For the student participants, questionnaires were distributed in person at the institution and were completed at the time of distribution. Student participants completed the questionnaire outside of scheduled class time during a lunch hour or at a time they found suitable, in order to complete the questionnaire under the supervision of the researcher. The researcher encouraged student participants to attend to all questions.

In order to prevent cross-contamination of opinions, student participants were not allowed to consult with one another while completing the questionnaire. Student participants were given unlimited time, but none of them took more than forty minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Lecturer participants completed the questionnaires outside of their work time. This was done due to the fact that it was impossible to get all the lecturers together and complete the questionnaire at the same time. Lecturers were also given unlimited time, but because they completed the questionnaire at different places during their own free time, the researcher could not monitor the process and record the time each of them used. However, when the researcher asked the lecturers to indicate the total time they spent to complete the questionnaire none of them indicated that they had taken more than forty minutes. The researcher delivered the questionnaire to LIP lecturers in their offices or pigeon holes, and one was sent via e-mail. When the lecturers had finished completing the questionnaire, the researcher either collected it in person or the lecturer brought the questionnaire back to the researcher. All the eight questionnaires given to lecturers were returned. However, unlike in the student participants' questionnaires, some questions in some of the lecturer participants' questionnaires were not completely answered. This demonstrates that the presence of the researcher during the completion of questionnaires plays an important role in order to obtain all the necessary information from the respondents.

3.4 Interview schedule

The researcher used a standardised, open-ended interview approach where the same open-ended questions were asked to all interviewees. A standardised, open-ended interview facilitates interviews that can be more easily analysed and compared. Semi-structured interviews with participants were conducted after the class visits and the completion of questionnaires.

During interviews, the researcher asked the participants some questions about their views on language teaching and learning. The participants were asked to identify and explain the best ways that they think help students to learn English. They were also requested to highlight any possible frustrations that they think may occur in the process of second language English teaching and learning. Participants were asked to reflect on how students' spoken errors are corrected in class and give their comments on how students may feel about it. They were further requested to explain how they would prefer lecturers and students to respond to the errors made by other students in class. The researcher referred to some aspects of the observed lesson and asked the student participants to comment in some detail on the way the errors were treated. The student participants were also requested to make suggestions for preferred corrective feedback types. Finally, web-based language learning has recently been identified as one of the effective strategies for ESL language teaching; thus, the issue of electronic feedback has also become an interesting part of research especially when looking at the issue of ESL corrective feedback (Farag Allah, 2008). In this study during the interview, participants were also asked to explain how effectively

they think feedback provided in web-based language learning contributes to students' language proficiency, especially the speaking and writing skills.

The researcher, as interviewer, recorded the interviews in order to supplement field notes and to ensure that she had an accurate record of what was mentioned by the interviewees. Recording the interviews was also a way to enable the researcher to concentrate more on what the interviewee was saying and not be distracted too much by note taking.

3.5 Data analysis process

Two sets of data were examined in order to provide some answers to the research questions. The first set of data was based on the lecturers' perceptions and preferences, and the second set of data was obtained from students' perceptions and preferences on ESL corrective feedback. The two sets of data allowed a comparison between the lecturers' and students' perceptions and preferences on ESL corrective feedback in order to answer the following research questions: How do ESL lecturers and students perceive corrective feedback at a tertiary level? How do ESL tertiary level students respond to the corrective feedback provided to their errors? What do ESL lecturers and students prefer as far as error treatment practice is concerned and why? How can ESL students' errors be treated to promote the correct use of the English language?

The mixing of the two methods occurred during the interpretation of the results from the two components of the study. For data analysis the researcher compared the

qualitative results and quantitative findings to confirm or cross-validate the findings across the entire study. The researcher also quantified the data by transforming qualitative data into quantitative data by counting codes, categories and themes.

From the qualitative approach perspective, content analysis was used to summarise and categorise the interview field notes and recordings according to common themes. Content analysis is useful for examining trends and patterns in documents. The researcher organised data by breaking it into manageable units, synthesising it, discerning patterns of behaviour, and identifying what was deemed important and what was to be learned. Conceptual analysis was used to establish the existence and frequency of concepts in the text. Individual themes were used as the coding sampling units for analysis.

In addition, descriptive statistics techniques were used for the quantitative approach, to transform the respondents' answers into numerical data summaries and to tabulate the information. The lecturers' and students' data were compared for similarities and differences. The researcher then correlated the collected data to the status quo in order to identify similarities and differences in that regard. In addition to the findings of this study, the researcher took into consideration the findings of studies that had already investigated corrective feedback, in order to compose an intervention model for corrective feedback in the ESL classroom in Namibia.

3.6 Research ethics

Firstly, since the research is based on the authentic data that are the results of the research work and interviews conducted with students from an educational institution, the researcher received written consent from all concerned parties: the institution, the students and the lecturers involved. The researcher also received an ethical clearance certificate and a research permission letter from UNAM, the institution that oversees this study. Secondly, the researcher administered the questionnaire herself in order to explain the purpose and potential usefulness of the research. The researcher also clarified to the participants that the questionnaire was not a test or assessment tool that might work against them in any way and assured the subjects that their responses were going to be used for research purposes only. The researcher further explained that all the data would be kept confidential. In conclusion, the researcher acknowledged the sources of any information and ideas which had been used. The researcher also made sure that all the quoted or cited sources were indicated in the list of references.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter attempted to provide the details of the research methods used in conducting this study. This includes an indication of where the study was conducted, the description of the sampling procedure and administration, followed by an outline of how the population was selected. The chapter further gave a detailed description of the tools or instruments used, and provided details on the perspectives of other researchers about the tools or instruments used to collect the data. Ultimately, this chapter illustrated how the data collected in this study were processed, and explained

how the data were analysed. The next two chapters, Chapters 4 and 5 both focus on an in-depth data analysis followed by interpretation, and show how the findings led to the conclusion of this study.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION: PART 1

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter outlined the rationale for adopting triangulation as part of the research paradigm employed in this study. Chapter 4 and 5 present data analysis, findings and discussion of the data collected in this study.

According to Vithal and Jansen (2005), the purpose of data analysis is to break down and scrutinise the research information to make sense. Neuman (2006) advises that when analysing data, the researcher's goal should be "to organise specific details into a coherent picture, model or set of interlocked concepts" (pp. 458-459). Therefore, data collected in this study were categorised into two main parts. Chapter 4 presents the first part of data analysis that discusses the findings about participants' demographic information and self-knowledge assessment as well as the text data obtained through class observations and the participant interviews. The second part of data analysis is presented in Chapter 5, discussing the numerical and theoretical data collected from the questionnaires about corrective feedback focusing on speaking and writing skills in the ESL classroom. These two chapters simultaneously discuss the findings of the present study and connect the results to the findings of other previous related studies.

4.2 Participants demographic information

This part displays the participants' demographic data gathered at the beginning of the questionnaires. Participants' demographic data were drawn in aspects such as gender, age, and native language. It was deemed necessary for the researcher to get a clear insight of the type of respondents to participate in the survey, as this can be useful in scrutinising the choices certain genders make and which may be due to certain gender specific attitudes. Furthermore, information about highest qualification, qualification specifications and lecturing experience were also gathered from lecturers.

The two questionnaires, the students' questionnaire and the lecturers' questionnaire, can be found as Appendix 1 and Appendix 2 respectively, while the results for the questionnaires are under Appendix 3.

4.2.1 Students' questionnaire

A sample of forty students, who were purposively selected from the accessible two hundred and forty students in eight Language in Practice course class groups at the Namibia University of Science and Technology, completed the students' questionnaire. Tables 1, 2 and 3 below display their demographic information as provided in the first part of their questionnaire.

4.2.2 Student participants' gender and age presentation

Table 1: Students responses to Section A of their Questionnaire

Age group ↓	Gender		Total
	20 Females	20 Males	40
	↓	↓	↓
17-19	10	5	15
20-24	10	14	24
25-30	0	0	0
31-35	0	1	1
Total	20	20	40

Figure 1:

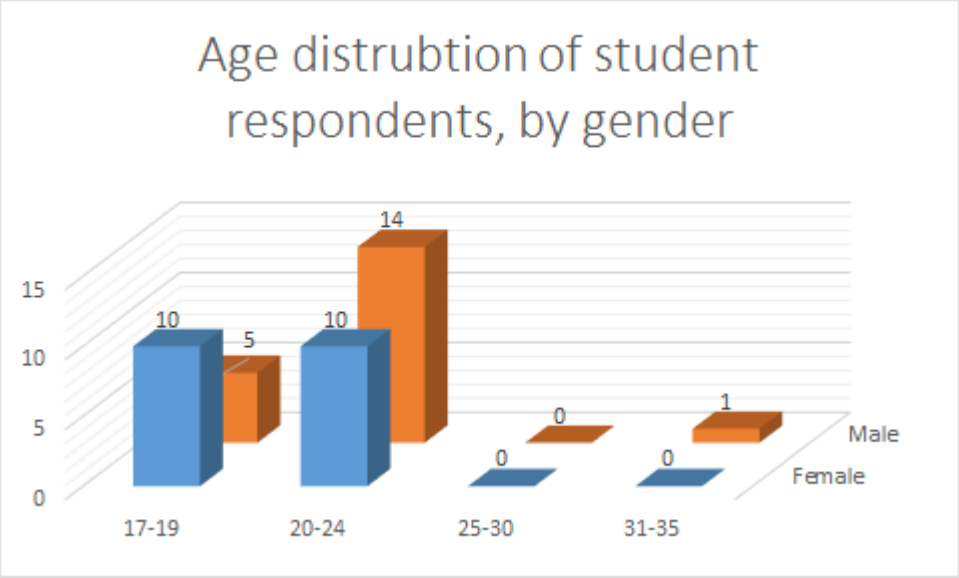


Table 1 and Figure 1 above display gender information of students who participated in the study. The majority, 24 respondents, were between the ages of 20 to 24. Fifteen were between the age of 17 to 19 and only one respondent fell in the age group of 31 to 35. Although the students' questionnaire had provision of the 25-30

age group, no student fell under this category. The original age distribution in the questionnaire had also included the age groups of up to 50 years old, due to the nature of Language in Practice course that includes young students from high schools as well as other students who enter the course after a mature age test. The researcher deemed it vital to record gender as it may enable her to scrutinise the responses by gender and may assist in drawing some conclusions on the findings.

4.2.3 Student participants' native language presentation

Table 2: Students responses to Section A of their Questionnaire

Native language ↓	Gender		Total
	Female	Male	
Choque	0	1	1
French	1	0	1
Ggciriku	0	1	1
Oshiwambo	18	9	27
Tswana	1	0	1
Otjiherero	0	2	2
Rukwangali	0	3	3
Rumanyo	0	1	1
Silozi	0	1	1
Thimbukushu	0	1	1
Xhosa	0	1	1
Total	20	20	40

Figure 2: Native Languages of student respondents, by gender

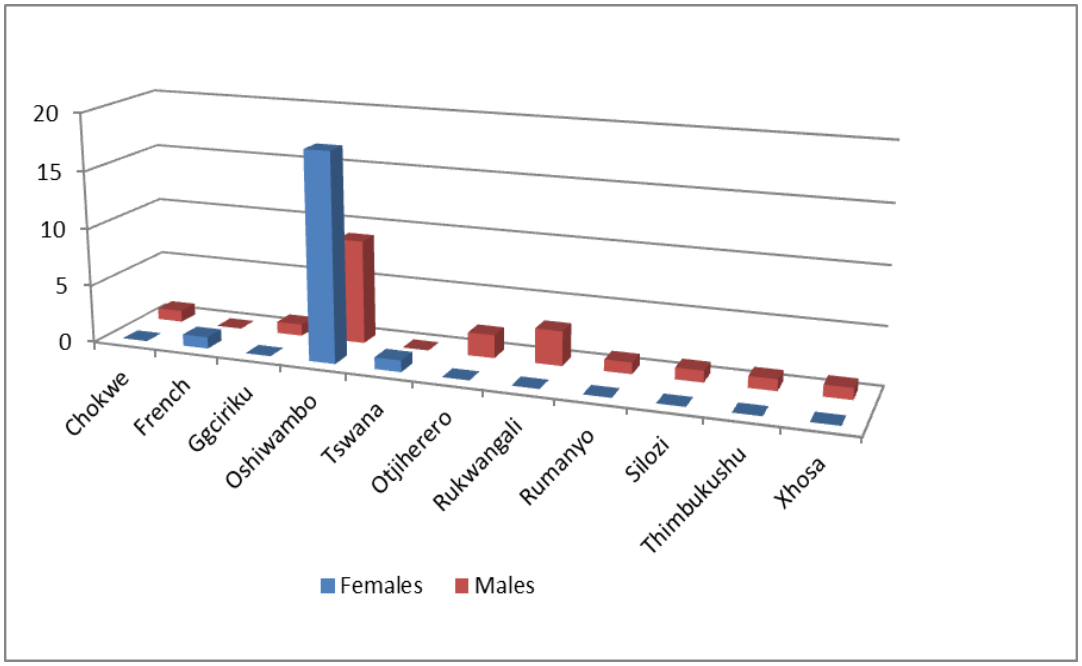


Table 2 and Figure 2 display information about the native languages of the students. The predominant native language of the students who were surveyed is Oshiwambo that was represented by 27 out of forty students, followed by Rukwangari and Otjiherero that were represented by three and two students respectively. Other native languages such as Chokwe, French, Ggciriku, Tswana, Rumanyo, Silozi, Thimbukushu and Xhosa were each represented by one student. It is not surprising for Oshiwambo to have such a large number because Oshiwambo speaking people form more than half of the Namibian population and in several areas in Namibia, Oshiwambo speaking people outnumber speakers of other languages.

4.2.4 Lecturers' questionnaire

Eight lecturers of the Language in Practice course at the Namibia University of Science and Technology, who were conveniently sampled, participated in this study. Table 3 below displays the demographic information they provided in the first part of their questionnaire.

4.2.5 Lecturer participants' profile

Table 3: Lecturers' responses for Section A in their Questionnaire

	Lecturer Gender	Age group	Native language	Highest qualification	Qualification major	ESL teaching experience
1	Male	31-35	Shona	Master (incomplete)	Communication	2 years
2	Male	41-45	Spanish/ English	Master (complete)	Linguistics	5 years
3	Female	25-30	Oshiwambo	Master (complete)	Literature	4 years
4	Female	25-30	English	Master (complete)	Linguistics Other: Literature	8 years
5	Female	31-35	Damara	Master (complete)	Literature	8 years
6	Female	41-45	Afrikaans	Master (complete)	Education	19 years
7	Female	46-50	Oshiwambo	Master (complete)	Applied Ling. Other: Education	22 years
8	Female	36-40	English	Doctorate (complete)	Other (not specified)	15 years

As displayed in Table 3 above, there were two males and six females whose ages ranged between 25 and 50, while the ages of the majority of lecturers ranged between

25 and 35 which can be considered young participants are young. It can therefore be surmised that they should be acquainted with the latest language teaching methodologies such as the communicative approach or teaching language across the curriculum; they could not have been exposed exclusively to traditional teaching methods. The native languages of the lecturers included Shona, Spanish, English, Oshiwambo, Damara and Afrikaans.

In schools, some staff members teach subjects that are not in their field of studies, but only teach them in order to reach their full workload. Dowden, Pittaway, Yost and McCarthy (2013) also highlighted that most teaching staff members do not have teaching qualifications for the subjects they teach, which might cause them to provide poor quality feedback to students, as they were never trained how to do it. Therefore, the researcher of this study requested the lecturers to indicate their qualifications and field of studies. All the six lecturers were Master's degree holders except for one who was still pursuing his Master's degree in Communication; the other one is a Doctorate holder who did not specify the field of specification. The other qualification majors ranged from Linguistics, Literature, Education, and Applied Linguistics. Lecturer participants had varied English lecturing experiences, ranging from 2 years to 22 years. From these findings, it can be identified that most lecturers who participated in this survey are experienced with ESL lecturing, except for two lecturers who had two and four years of lecturing experience.

4.3 ESL lecturers' and students' perceptions about corrective feedback at tertiary level

4.3.1 General perspective information about errors

4.3.1.1 Definition of an error

It was important to find out about general perspections of both lecturers and students on how they define an error in ESL situation. An identical question was provided to both lecturers and students to express their views on what an error is. They were requested to select any responses they considered applicable to each statement displayed in Table 4.

Table 4: ***Responses on Question B13 (students' questionnaire) and Question B14 (lecturers' questionnaire)***

Note: Some respondents chose more than one definitions, thus some totals are not 100%.

In my opinion an error is … (tick any appropriate box):									
Respondent → **Females = F** **Males = M**	Students (%)				Lecturers (%)			Stu. & Lect. Total (%)	
	F	M	Total		F	M	Total	F	M
1. anything in conflict with an expected reaction.	5	15	10		0	0	0	3.8	13.6
2. anything not included in rules of British English.	30	35	32.5		33.3	0	25	30.8	31.8
3. anything that a native speaker would not say, for example, slang, informal words etc. should be considered as errors.	15	20	17.5		33.3	0	25	19.2	18.2
4. anything preventing understanding the sense or successful communication.	55	50	52.2		83.3	100	87.5	61.5	54.5
Other definition (please specify): See Appendix 3									

Table 4 displays that, overall, the vast percentages of 87.5% of lecturers and 52.2% of students define an error as anything preventing understanding the sense or successful communication (Option 4). The second highest definition of error selected was that an error is anything not included in rules of British English (Option 2), which was opted by 32.5% of students and 25% of lecturers. The latter option of defining an error could be explained by the fact that the educational system in Namibia uses British English as the medium of instruction, thus both students and lecturers view the correctness of English language to be aligned, to a certain extent, with British English. It was also interesting to see that an equal proportion of 25% of lecturers opted to define an error as anything that a native speaker would not say, including slang and informal words. Some 15% of male and 5% of female students showed some preference for defining an error as anything in conflict with an expected reaction but none of the lecturers chose this option.

For the option of *other* definitions, 15% of students provided further individual definitions of an error; however, none of the lecturers provided any *other* individual definition of an error. Some female students (15%) related an error to direct translation or using idioms in contexts where they do not fit. They also viewed an error as disorganisation of words in the English language. They further related an error to the use of slang language. The last definition provided by female student respondents is that an error is anything that prevents a person from getting the correct answer (See Appendix 3).

Furthermore, 15% of male students defined an error to be anything that is wrong and not expected when speaking. The other definition offered by male student respondents is that an error is anything that is confusing and colliding with or contradicting correction or expected reaction. The last option provided (un-numbered) was that an error refers to anything else that does not make sense.

4.3.1.2 Students' self-assessment on English proficiency level

Table 5 below illustrates how students in this study assess their own English proficiency level in comparison to their peers. Lyster and Ranta (1997) urge that teachers, or lecturers in the case of this study, needed to "carefully take into account their students' level of L2 proficiency when making decisions about feedback" (p. 56). Therefore, students in this study were requested to complete the statement displayed in Table 5 below, for self-assessment:

Table 5: Responses on Question B1 (students' questionnaire)

In comparison with students of the same level of English, I make errors...:			**Total**
Respondents →	Female (%)	Male (%)	F + M (%)
a) more often	35	25	30
b) similarly frequently	20	55	37.5
c) less often	45	20	32.5
Total	100	100	100

Table 5 illustrates the results of students' self-assessment regarding their English language proficiency with respect to the rate of making errors in comparison with other students. The highest total of 37.5% rated themselves to be making errors similarly frequently to their peers. The next highest percentage is 32.5% representing students who felt stronger than others. However, the distribution of responses is broadly even across the categories.

Looking at the ratings in terms of female and male students, female students felt stronger than their male counterparts. More than half of the male respondents believed that they make errors equally frequently to their peers, while only 35% of female respondents felt weaker than their peers. A similar study was carried out by Tomkova (2013) where contrary results were yielded when almost half of all boys studied felt stronger than the girls.

4.4 Qualitative data obtained through interviews and class observations

4.4.1 Introduction

This part presents students and lecturers' responses to the five questions that were asked during the focus group interviews. These data were presented together with the data collected during classroom observations and then discussed holistically. It is vital to mention here that the researcher conducted classroom observations, but this research method did not generate as much relevant data as anticipated.

Flick (2006) defines observation as “an attempt to observe events as they naturally occur” (p. 219). Sometimes in life things do not happen the way they were contemplated to happen. In situations such as classroom observation, there is always nothing much the observer can do to manipulate the situation in order to create a conducive environment that brings out relevant outcomes for the benefit of the observed phenomena. Therefore, there was little data collected from classroom observations as far as corrective feedback is concerned. Hence, most of the data discussed in this section are dominantly derived from focus group interviews. The findings are intended to supplement the quantitative data derived from the lecturers’ and students’ questionnaires that will be discussed in Chapter 5.

The qualitative data collected through class observations and focus group interviews are summarised and categorised according to common themes, for data analysis and discussion of findings. Conceptual analysis was used to establish the existence and frequency of concepts in the text. Therefore, the researcher organised data by breaking it into manageable units in relation to five key themes that emerged from the findings: A) Best ways that may help students to learn English better, B) Frustrations that may occur in the process of ESL teaching and learning, C) Ways of correcting students’ spoken errors in class and students reactions, D) Preference and justification of agents of corrective feedback in class, and E) Perception about corrective feedback provided in web-based language learning.

4.4.2 Lecturers' and students' responses to interview Question 1 and related classroom observation findings

Interview Question 1: *Identify and explain the best ways that you think help students to learn English better.*

One of the responses provided by the students for this question highlighted the importance of pre-activities. Students felt that they should be informed in advance of the topic to be discussed in the next class for them to prepare, find information and develop more insight. This gives them confidence to participate because they feel they have something to contribute during the lesson instead of the lecturer alone giving them all the information. This finding resonates with some lecturers' perceptions about the best way to learn a language that students can learn a language better by participating in exercises. Making students to contribute in an English language class should, though, be approached cautiously. Sato and Lyster (2007) conducted an interview with students and found that students felt uncomfortable speaking English in front of people who were good at English language, the native English speakers, because they thought that their own English was not good enough, while the people they were to talk to, speak "perfect English" (p. 138). This finding can translate to an ESL classroom situation where students have to speak to lecturers whose English proficiency can be regarded higher than that of their students; so, students can feel intimidated and may withdraw from participating in class. Sato and Lyster's (2007) findings further reveal that students felt more comfortable and less

pressurised when working with peers, took time to decide how to express themselves and freely tested their linguistic hypotheses.

One lecturer elucidated that constant work, practice and feedback seem to be the most effective tools for teaching English. She indicated that she tries to create an English-only atmosphere in class and immerses students in practising English. Another lecturer expounded that when a lecturer is presenting a lesson, it is very important to involve the students so that they can actively participate in the lesson activities for them to be able to grasp the knowledge much better. This lecturer suggested that one possible way of engaging students during lessons is through practical activities. In other words, instead of just the lecturer presenting the theory and informing the students what to do and how to improve their language skills, students should instead be given tasks that can involve them in doing, so that they can put in practice the theory they have been taught by the lecturer; potentially helping them to remember what they did or what the lecturer said, later on.

Another lecturer accentuated that practising the language helps improve students' writing, speaking, reading and listening skills of the language. It is therefore important to know and understand the rules of grammar. As reported by Sato and Lyster (2007), the lecturer further suggested that one way to motivate students to be actively involved in the lesson is, for example, to give them pair work and group work, and then the lecturer checks and interacts with them when they are working. In that way, students are actively engaged. They are working and at the same time being monitored by who provides feedback on their performance, just to make sure that

they grasp the concept of the lesson objectives and the corrective feedback given to them. Pair work and group work were practised in some classes that were observed by the researcher of the present study. Lecturers went around and monitored what students were doing in their groups or pairs.

When it comes to writing tasks, students also emphasised the value of a pre-writing stage. Students suggested that if they were given homework and then their work is discussed in class, they should be given time to go and relook at what they had done wrongly before they submit the final work for marking. In other words, students preferred to write the first draft and get general feedback in class before they submit the final version to their lecturer for marking. In reference to the lessons observed only two out of three lecturers gave homework to students and no follow up on any previous homework was done during the classes observed. During the interview session, one of the lecturers who had given homework stated that she gives daily homework and they do mini-revision sessions at the beginning of each class. This is probably a good strategy to motivate students to do their homework because they know there is always a follow-up session on their work where they check their performance and receive feedback. This will probably also inspire them to recognise the value of feedback and develop a culture of responding to any type of corrective feedback they receive for their work, be it written or oral.

Similarly, students expressed the same sentiments regarding follow-up strategies after receiving feedback from their lecturers. In written work, students felt that they learn better if they first go and revise their work on their own once they receive

marked assignments with corrective feedback, do the corrections and then resubmit their revised answers to their lecturers. This process sounds like an ideal exercise; however, there is very limited time at the lecturers' disposal to follow that procedure for all the written work that they give to their students. Lecturers seem to be always pressurised to ensure they finish the syllabus or course outline content, having to cover schemes of work before end-of-semester or end-of-year examination.

Students also suggested how their lecturers may correct errors for them meaningfully. Students advised that lecturers should be selective when correcting students' errors. They explained that if lecturers try to correct everything and pinpoint all errors, nobody learns anything. They opined that it would be a waste of time referring to all the errors that were made by all students. Students felt that it would be better if lecturers focus on the errors that are repeated more often, as this will make the correction relevant to most of the students.

Granville and Dison (2009) argue that "feedback should be specific and written in a simple language that students will understand" (p. 54). Student participants in this study also mentioned the importance of using simple language when their lecturers communicate to them. Students claimed that one aspect that can make them learn and understand English better is when their lecturers communicate to them in the language they can understand or make use of concepts that they are already acquainted with. For example, students sometimes do not understand all of the more difficult vocabulary used by lecturers. This puts them off and they feel discouraged to continue reading or listening to what is being communicated to them. Students

explicated that they can always be motivated to do their work diligently and follow up to understand better the feedback given to them, provided the instructions or comments are expressed in a simple language that they can understand. Thus, lecturers should always refrain from using bombastic words when communicating to their students and try using the simple terms that are not above their students' level of understanding; the key is to be able to comprehend them easily.

One male student reflected on his high school English teacher's advice and explained: "My previous teacher taught us how we should answer different questions and how we should approach different types of questions like critical thinking and reading comprehension questions." The student acknowledged that their high school teacher's advice helped him to develop different strategies on how to deal with various language tasks. The student further advised that lecturers should, therefore, provide guidance to students on how to approach different tasks because that would not only help them respond to tasks appropriately but also assist them to manage their time effectively. Consequently, if students are able to follow task instructions carefully and respond to tasks appropriately in class, then it also proves that their language proficiency and language skills have improved. It is therefore imperative that together with corrective feedback, lecturers provide guidance on strategies to be utilised by students when dealing with different language features and tackling a variety of tasks.

Students identified the reading of a variety of texts in order to enhance their language proficiency, for example reading novels or different literature genres. One student

mentioned reading novels as one way that he believed improved his language skills. This student claimed that reading different types of literature made him improve his language because they combine modern works and olden works from Shakespeare. A number of lecturers also emphasised reading to be the best way for a student to learn English, especially the reading of literature. The lecturers elaborated that although not everybody likes reading literary books, students should be encouraged to read any material that they have an interest in. This advice corroborates with Chokwe (2011) when in his study some tutors and a student acknowledged that ESL students can improve their writing through reading magazines, newspaper and other materials. Jurecic (2006) also maintains that "students need to read more to be prepared for reading and writing in different disciplines" (p. 10). Reading widely is, therefore, one other important aspect that lecturers can consider recommending to their students as part of their corrective feedback. Therefore, lecturers should recommend that their students read a variety of texts for them to improve their language skills.

One male student made reference to a common saying that goes, "charity starts at home". This student claimed that if one speaks English at home, it improves one's language. The student further clarified that he knew that sometimes it could be impossible for some students to speak English at home because they have no one there who can speak English. The student, however, advised that those students can listen to radio programmes where English is used as medium of broadcasting and also watch TV programmes. He further gave an example of how he improves his pronunciation, "when news is being broadcast on TV, there are headlines displayed simultaneously on the screen; if there are some words that I do not know how to

pronounce correctly, I can always listen to how they are mentioned by the newsreader. That's how I learn pronunciation of some words from TV." This strategy was also recommended by some lecturers. One of these lecturers expressed the view that students need to create an English environment outside of class by speaking English with friends or family and listening to English radio or TV. She concluded that students need to actively cultivate their skills in English inside and outside of the classroom. Lecturers should sometimes, therefore, make this strategy part of the feedback they provide to their students as advice on how they can improve their language skills even outside classroom situation.

It is a well-known fact that language users in general mostly exhibit better performance on their receptive competencies, reading and listening, compared to their productive skills, speaking and writing. One commonly expressed saying is that many language users could read a number of great novels, but could not write one. Thus, scholars such as Krashen (1982), advocate that language teaching should focus more attention in the development of students' receptive competence than their productive competence. This practice would automatically enhance students' productive ability through their receptive capabilities.

4.4.3 Lecturers' and students' responses to interview Question 2 and related classroom observation findings

Question 2: *Can you mention things that you think may frustrate students most when they learn English as a Second language?*

Some of the responses to this question reveal that some students get frustrated when a lecturer asks questions in class, some students make errors when trying to respond, and then their classmates laugh at them, instead of correcting them. One student revealed that once other students react negatively to his error, it discourages him a lot and makes him feel like not going ahead with what he was talking about. Another student added that if others laugh at her error in class she just gets stuck and does not continue anymore. This student suggested that: "If I make a mistake in class, my lecturer and my classmates should just let me finish whatever I say and then later on is when they can correct my error". She continued explaining that in the case of a speaking error, the lecturer might plan correcting the error as part of the lesson, but it should not be obvious that someone is being corrected, otherwise that person may feel down or bad about himself or herself.

Even though this finding reveals that students do not prefer to be given immediate feedback, especially negatively, one lecturer expressed that she provides corrective feedback right away while the error is still fresh, not just in her mind but also in the students' minds. She elaborated on her strategy that if it was a timed speaking activity, for example, she allows the students to complete the speaking activity, and

then after that she takes them back to that error and corrects it, or sometimes she refers the students to the study guide to read up for themselves.

Of course, lecturers or teachers sometimes seem not to consider the emotional aspect on the side of students when providing corrective feedback. Boud and Molloy (2013) proposed a “sandwich” approach for providing corrective feedback that may be better received by students than other methods. “Sandwich approach” refers to a situation when a negative feedback is placed between two positive feedbacks. In the same vein, Lillis (2003) urges that feedback should be more “dialogical and on-going”. Lillis suggests another term “feedforward” and explains that this term refers to “discussion, clarification and negotiation” that can take place between students and lecturers and can provide students with a detailed comprehension of what they are expected to do. These approaches are some of the possible strategies that can be tried in the quest for ways to eliminate frustrations regarding corrective feedback.

In another scenario narrated in response to Question 2, a student explained that he gets disappointed when he reads a newspaper or a novel and comes across a word that he does not understand. He does not have a dictionary that time, so he starts looking for clues in the text that could help to reveal the meaning, but to no avail. This finding was confirmed by two lecturers’ perceptions that indicated, firstly, if students do not understand the vocabulary that we use as lecturers in class, or if the words are out of their reach or not what they are used to, they may get frustrated. Secondly, the two lecturers feel that many of our Namibian students are very good at spoken English, but they struggle and become frustrated with written English.

Also in response to Question 2, a student referred to a situation when she does her homework and after that no follow up is done on the homework. She described this as bad, disappointing and discouraging. In addition, another student shared a frustrating moment as follows: “When the lecturer marked your work and some of your answers were marked wrong but you do not understand why, and when you ask the lecturer to explain what is wrong or to give you the correct answer, he or she confuses you even more, going the other direction that you do not even understand and you will still be left unsure”. Furthermore, students get disappointed when they write a test and the lecturer, after marking the test, only proceeds with the new topic without giving feedback to them, so that they can get to know their mistakes and get corrections.

One lecturer though raised a concern about lack of time and expressed his grievance, “*When students submit their work for marking, you mark the work and you have to take it back, and then give feedback. In many cases it takes approximately the whole hour to give feedback. And then that means you will have to devote a day for feedback and you will not be able to do anything else that day.*” Many lecturers can relate to this scenario and what can be more discouraging is the fact that some students do not even see the value of spending time discussing previous work. Another lecturer explained that if a lecturer uses a lesson to discuss feedback, students may even think that they were not taught, claiming that they did nothing relevant in class because they were only given their test papers back. However, while

students may not see the value of feedback, follow up on feedback is imperative, despite the fact that there may be insufficient time to always do it effectively.

Lecturers provided further scenarios, such as students getting frustrated when they do not understand a concept or when they fail to express themselves properly (verbally or in writing) despite having the idea in their mind of what they want to express. This observation resonates with Chokwe (2015), when he referred to a student who was disheartened by the way lecturers mark students' written work and pleaded: *"When marking our assignments, please do not look down on us. Place yourself in our position and try to think like we do. A student's perceptions on a certain topic will not always be the same as those of the lecturer's."* (p. 46). This grievance was echoed by Dowden et al. (2013) that students' emotions are sometimes not taken into consideration when providing corrective feedback.

The other point is that, students get frustrated that they usually do not score high marks in English due to the subject's complexity. This finding may suggest that students put more value on grades than on the feedback including why and how to enhance their performance in future. Weaver (2006) adds that academics can be discouraged by the fact that students are most interested in their grade; consequently, these academics believe that feedback does not work. Weaver further encourages teachers to provide apposite feedback that entails proper guidance and motivation rather than engaging in only detecting errors and justifying the marks. For teachers or lecturers to provide effective feedback, which can guide and motivate students adequately, scholars such as Spencer (2007) suggest that lecturers should receive

constant in-service training regarding corrective feedback, in order for them to gain confident and adequate skills in dealing with corrective feedback effectively.

Another point expressed that frustrates students is the way their English tasks are marked when requirements focus on both content and language aspects, this being different to other subjects. Recently, alongside the implementation of the Learner Centred Method in the Namibian educational system, a recommendation for teaching language across the curriculum was reinforced. All teachers and lecturers were urged not to focus only on subject content when marking students work but also to pay some attention to the language form used by the students when providing their answers.

Traditionally, teachers or lecturers of subjects other than English subject utilised a standard marking system that only expected students to prove their understanding of specific subject content and concepts, regardless of the correctness of the language and expressions the students use. Based on evidence obtained from some content subject teachers who are also markers of Grade 10 (JSC) and Grade 12 (NSSC) national examinations, it appears that language is never taken into consideration when marking students' answers. Markers solely focus on students' knowledge of the subject content. Hence, if a question in a History assessment paper, for example, asks who the Namibian founding president is, a student who answers, "She is Dr Sam Nujoma" will score a full mark for providing the correct name of the founding president, despite the fact that the answer was not entirely correct due to the wrong pronoun being used, which is suggesting that the founding president is female.

Therefore, the notion of teaching the language across the curriculum in the Namibian education system remains a challenge due to discrepancies in the way students' work is marked and the way feedback is provided. Due to these inconsistencies in providing corrective feedback to the same students but from various subjects, Boud and Molloy (2013) proposed that corrective feedback should be made part of the curriculum so that it can be taken seriously by lecturers of all subjects, and students as well.

These discrepancies in marking demonstrate how important it is to follow up on the corrective feedback provided in ESL students' work in order to clear the air and eliminate the dilemma students may find themselves in when receiving different types of feedback in different disciplines. A point therefore needs to be made clear that language is a skill; thus, learning a language entails not only the knowledge of language features but also how these features function to convey unambiguous information to ensure accurate and effective communication. Hence, ESL corrective feedback serves a unique purpose and has to be practised in a unique manner that needs to be clarified and understood by all language practitioners.

One lecturer also referred to the situation where more theoretical teaching of a second language can frustrate students because students may fail to apply the theoretical elements of language in their day to day use of the language. Corrective feedback should, therefore, be made relevant to integrate holistically the usage of a language into real life situations.

There seemed to be much frustration among students caused by various aspects of corrective feedback practice. Corrective feedback is one of the instructional methods, intended to assist students develop and improve their ESL acquisition. This point has been made by many scholars, (Saddler, 2010; Boud & Molloy, 2013; Price et al., 2010; Dowden et al., 2013) who advocate for what they call "assessment literacy" for students. These scholars concur that students need to be given training on assessment literacy to understand the importance of corrective feedback and how it really works. Blair and McGinty (2013) also confirm the necessity of educating students to be assessment literate and suggest that students may, at times, seek opportunities to meet the markers of their work for further clarity on how and why the feedback was given. To ensure that students are enlightened concerning corrective feedback, lecturers could consider holding regular discussions with their students to explain the efficacy of corrective feedback.

4.4.4 Lecturers' and students' responses to interview Question 3 and related classroom observation findings

Question 3 (Students): *Reflect on the way your spoken errors are corrected in class and give your comments on how you feel about it.*

To answer this question, students did not say much but rather repeated the same feeling they shared in interview Question 2 in this section. Students repeated that if they make an error and others laugh at them, they actually feel ashamed and from there they do not want to try anymore.

Question 3 (Lecturers): *Reflect on the way you respond to your students' spoken errors in your class and give your comments on how you think your responses may help them to improve their speaking skills.*

When lecturers were asked to reflect on the way they respond to their students' spoken errors in class and how they feel they may help improve their students' speaking skills, several responses were provided. Firstly, one lecturer indicated that she covertly corrects the error as soon as it was uttered, by repeating the right version of what was said. A number of lecturers indicated that their responses to the students' errors depend on the situation. One lecturer narrated that sometimes she responds immediately but at other times she waits until they are done with the activity. She alerts them to the error and gives them the correction. Sometimes she engages other students to address the identified error. That way she determines if the other students have also identified the error and whether they also do not know the correct version. Another lecturer also shed light on the same point that if it is grammar, she definitely corrects them. Otherwise, if the purpose of the activity is, for example, communication, she does not always correct them in order not to discourage participation. She usually corrects them herself and even addresses similar common errors.

The third lecturer elucidated that she sees spoken errors as something a bit sensitive, for example, if a student makes a speaking error in class, in many cases, this lecturer does not intervene directly because it would make a student feel a bit embarrassed should others find out that he or she made a mistake. What she sometimes does is to

take note of those mistakes and then at a later stage brings them up as if talking in general, without referring to any specific student. This was reiterated by another lecturer who recounted that: “I often do not correct students on spoken English in class as I do not want to embarrass them or stop their train of thought. Though, I often doubt if I am doing the right thing by not giving immediate feedback”. What these two lecturers advocate is what some students expect from their ESL lecturers (See interview Question 2).

The last response on Question 3 was given by one male lecturer who added that how he responds to his students’ spoken errors in his class and how he thinks his responses may help his students improve their speaking skills, depends on the type of students. This statement concurs with Lyster and Ranta (1997) when they advise that teachers need to “carefully take into account their students’ level of L2 proficiency when making decisions about feedback” (p. 56). This male lecturer also highlighted that: “That’s where knowing your students comes into play”. He further clarified that knowing his students, and being able to identify more deep-seated issues that need a bit more and detailed attention than just him correcting them right there, would guide him to determine whether to provide immediate correction or delay the correction.

Although some lecturers claimed not to provide corrective immediate verbal feedback, it was apparent from classroom observations that lecturers sometimes used nonverbal signals such as gestures or facial expressions to illustrate to students that they had just made an error. However, some of these gestures were not picked up and thus were not taken further.

4.4.5 Lecturers' and students' responses to interview Question 4 and related classroom observation findings

Question 4 (Students): *How would you prefer your lecturer and your classmates to respond to your errors when you make them in class?*

One student responded to Question 4 that if a student makes a mistake or an error in the ESL class, especially on grammar, he or she should not be corrected by someone else. They have to try and do correction on their own. After the correction, they need to be given further similar questions to see if they can get it correct without the same errors. This strategy may be helpful to students in avoiding pure regurgitation, so they have to try out or adapt the same type of concept in other examples, to prove they have learned and corrected their error.

Another student expressed opposite opinions that if she makes an error in the ESL class, she prefers to be corrected right away, at the time she made that error. She said that if all students were open and willing to be corrected, that would be a good approach to learning from one another.

One of the students made a rather unusual recommendation. He suggested that a lecturer can always bring a recorder to the ESL class and record the conversation when students are discussing in class. The lecturer can just put the recorder somewhere in the class and let it record the whole lesson and only stop it at the end

of the lesson. The lecturer can go and then listen to the recording at home and pay attention to the way the students answered the questions and the mistakes that they made instead of trying to teach broadly. This was a very rare demand, but the student maintained, it might help students improve their language and get all their mistakes corrected.

Question 4 (Lecturers): *How helpful do you think it is when students correct other students' errors in class?*

Lecturers provided contradictory responses for Question 4 where some lecturers advocated peer correction in class while others had negative impressions of students correcting each other's errors in class. On the one hand, some lecturers offered positive responses for this question that it is most useful, provided that students are encouraged to correct each other in a polite manner and understand that they are all learning, so they must always help one another. Another lecturer also regarded peer-to-peer feedback as one of the most effective, least-threatening forms of feedback. She illustrated that she often has students giving mini-presentations and then their peers fill in a grid, rating them on their elocution, pronunciation, error control and general skills. She further explained that peer repair is also very instructive for the student who is giving feedback. Lyster, Saito and Sato (2013) highlighted the same sentiment that, for students to correct their peers' errors, they first need to notice the error. These researchers suggested two functions of peer corrective feedback that "learners may benefit not only from receiving, as is the case with teacher CF (Corrective feedback), but also from providing CF" (p. 29).

On the other hand, one male lecturer seemed to hold a stereotypical opinion towards ESL students, and thus carried ambiguous thoughts about students correcting one another. This lecturer acknowledged that peer correction encourages students' participation in class; nevertheless, students do not always provide correct answers to their peers. The lecturer seemed to doubt the students' competency to peer correct, since they are all learning English in the same course. He reckoned that their level of language proficiency may not differ that much. In their study about correlational analyses, Sato and Lyster (2012) found the frequency of feedback provided by peers positively correlating with Second Language development scores, demonstrated by the difference between pre- and post-tests. In other words, the findings support the claim that teacher-student corrective feedback and student-student corrective feedback seem to both contribute positively towards second language learning. Other scholars (Yoshida, 2008; Philp, Walter & Basturkmen, 2010) conclude that student-student corrective feedback, in a way, lacks pedagogical force because students may deliberately ignore their peers' corrective feedback due to lack of confidence and mistrust of other students' linguistic competencies. However, lecturers and students should not be carried away by the notion of students' lack of confidence in themselves. Lecturers are there to monitor feedback discussions and students can verify with their lecturer if in doubt of any concept emerging from their student-student discussion. To conclude, in order for teachers and lecturers to boost their students' confidence and interest in learning, they should refrain from undermining their students' capability to learn. Lecturers or teachers are the hope of their students.

Students can only believe in what they are taught if lecturers or teachers show interest and develop shared confidence in what the students can do.

4.4.6 Lecturers' and students' responses to interview Question 5 and related classroom observation findings

Nowadays, language instructors recognise the usage of web-based language learning in the quest for effective strategies for ESL language teaching. Farag Allah (2008) claims that there are many serious obstacles that ESL teachers and students encounter regarding providing ESL corrective feedback. Amongst those corrective feedback problems, Farag Allah mentioned superficial feedback that both teachers and peers provide when they mostly focus only on surface-level errors. Other scholars highlighted several other problems that teachers and students face when dealing with corrective feedback. For example, Ferris (2003) identified the problem that teachers tend to provide ambiguous comments, which create even more problems for students. Scholars such as Kroll (2003) and Ferris and Hedgecock (2005) observe that cultural background influences students and sometimes makes them feel awkward to speak freely in the presence of a teacher. As a result, for more than two decades now, researchers have focused their interest on the issue of electronic feedback (Farag Allah, 2008). Electronic feedback encourages students to actively participate, because doing so is an effective way of learning. Question 5 below was therefore posed to teachers to share their views on the effectiveness of the corrective feedback provided in the web-based language learning platform.

Question 5: *How effectively do you think the feedback provided in web-based language learning contribute to students' language proficiency, especially the speaking and writing skills?*

Responding to the question, one lecturer explained that web-based learning feedback has been effective with listening and reading activities or activities that require short answers. She indicated that she has not seen a tool that effectively provides feedback for speaking and writing, for example, essays. She acknowledged that these tools might be available but to date she has not looked for them. In addition, another lecturer acknowledged that web-based learning is excellent for correcting written errors as the student receives immediate feedback, for instance, when completing an online grammar quiz. She, however, did not think that web-based learning can provide much corrective feedback for spoken errors. She referred to one activity that was designed to assist their students' spoken English skills when they created and uploaded their video presentations on Moodle. The students first had to write a script and then present on camera. One other lecturer also felt that, for speaking, students could somehow try to imitate English first language speakers, and so learn how to pronounce words better. In that way, perhaps, web-based language learning might well help improve speaking skills.

Student participants in this study indicated that they found the web-based language learning method to be the best way of studying English. They expressed that web-based language learning is quite efficient because when you are doing exercises, you receive immediate feedback, so you get to know where you were wrong and

sometimes it even gives a clue concerning why you were wrong and how you can correct the error. The best part of the web-based language learning is that students do exercises, check for answers and can also repeat the exercise until he or she gets the correct answer. One lecturer, however, contended that it all depends on the nature of the feedback provided because it can only be helpful if it is interactive and explanatory in nature, otherwise the student might still not know why his or her answer is wrong. These findings depict that students found the web-based language learning quite efficient, because it does not keep them in suspense of their performance. The findings further show that students like trying on their own with the guidance of the corrective feedback they receive to correct their errors.

One male student viewed the web-based language learning method to be effective when he claimed that "it made me learn English better by doing different English quizzes, for example on tenses, when learning about verb forms on line. It is more fun than the way the lecturer teaches me in class". Another student added that web-based lessons are the best, but warned that some students will get online and start doing their own things unrelated to the lesson objectives, putting the onus on the lecturer to monitor whether students are really studying. This finding concurs with one lecturer's opinion that web-based language learning can be very effective provided that students take the session seriously. Another lecturer referred specifically to their Language in Practice English course e-learning activities at the Namibia University of Science and Technology. She indicated that the e-learning activities were not really bad but thought they needed to add more assessment activities, so that students study the theory, do some activities for practice, and then

work out the assessment tasks. Work can still be sent to lecturers for checking and feedback can also be provided online. These mechanisms would also enable lecturers to monitor and confirm that students are really doing the work and ensure that learning takes place.

Despite the fact that the web-based language learning method was highly appreciated by many lecturers and students, one lecturer shared a concern with regards to web-based learning in language labs. During web-based lessons lecturers assume students already know, for example, how to use the computer and can understand the instructions for the particular activity. In support of this claim, some students shared the same sentiments and expressed their concerns about the web-based language learning method. Other students indicated that they found lab tutorials to be difficult to follow on their own; so, it was quite hard for them to adapt to the e-learning tutorials. They complained that the pronunciation of the instructor who was giving tutorials was difficult to understand; the language difference between their lecturer and the instructor in the e-learning tutorials was what made it hard to understand. Due to this constraint, some students preferred to attend a lecture where they have a lecturer available to give them feedback on tasks that a computer is unable to do.

One lecturer also expressed the same concern about writing tasks. She did not think that web-based language learning is that effective for writing skills because of the absence of a lecturer, presenter or instructor intervention. There is no one from whom the students can seek assistance, because it is a computer or a laptop they are working with. The absence of an instructor who could give corrective feedback is

one obstacle that might make language learning for writing skills less effective in web-based learning. This quest for a lecturer's input may sound reasonable, yet of course web-based tutorials and assessment tasks were considered as a remedy to the issues that were perceived in teacher or lecturer feedback. Problems such as incomprehensible corrective feedback and comments, ambiguous feedback that cause even more confusion and indecipherable handwriting, remain the reality and are difficult to solve.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter displayed Part 1 of data analysis, findings and discussion of the data collected through three data collection methods used in this study. Firstly, the chapter presented data analysis that discussed the findings about participants' demographic information and self-knowledge assessment. Next, the data obtained through class observations and the participant interviews were discussed. The next chapter will present Part 2 of data analysis, findings and discussion of the data collected in this study.

CHAPTER 5

DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION: PART 2

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented Part 1 of data analysis, findings and discussion focused on the participants' demographic information as well as the text data obtained through class observations and the participant interviews. This chapter presents Part 2 of data analysis, findings and discussion of the statistical and theoretical responses that were based on lecturers' and students' perceptions, practices and preferences concerning corrective feedback in the ESL classroom focusing on two language productive domains, speaking and writing skills. Just like the previous chapter, this chapter discusses the findings of the present study and connects the results to the findings of other previous related studies.

The quantitative data presentation and discussion of the findings were subdivided into two categories: Spoken errors corrective feedback in class; and Written corrective feedback. The discussion and analysis in each section were presented in relation to three key themes: lecturers' and students' perceptions, practice and preferences about corrective feedback.

5.2 Corrective feedback on spoken errors during ESL class

5.2.1 Lecturers' and students' reaction to spoken errors in class

In order to find out about the lecturers' typical reactions to students' spoken errors in class, both the lecturers and the students were asked to complete the statement in the following table:

Table 6: Responses on Question B2 (students' questionnaire) and Question B1 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Statement: →	*If a student makes an error when speaking in class, a lecturer's typical reactions are: (Arrange the following from the most frequent practice = 1 to the least = 4.)*							
Rating →	**1**		**2**		**3**		**4**	
Respondent → S = Students; L = Lecturers	S (%)	L (%)	S (%)	L (%)	S (%)	L (%)	S (%)	L (%)
1. correction.	70	25	20	25	5	12.5	5	37.5
2. no correction, must self-correct.	5	0	12.5	25	37.5	35.5	45	37.5
3. no correction, other students correct.	2.5	0	17.5	37.5	52.5	50	27.5	12.5
4. sometimes correction, sometimes no reaction.	22.5	75	50	12.5	5	0	22.5	12.5

Table 6 above presents both lecturers' and students' perceptions on the lecturers' typical reactions to students' spoken errors in class. The vast majority of 70% of students responded that if a student makes an error when speaking in class, a lecturer's typical reactions are corrections; while lecturers' highest percentage (50%) indicated that the lecturer's feel that corrective feedback is provided at the minimal rate. This finding suggests that lecturers probably correct students' errors just

because they are conscious in their mind that they are in an English class, to teach English, and thus they unknowingly end up correcting every error they hear.

Table 7 below presents a further question that was given to both students and lecturers to find out about their perceptions on who provides feedback the most on students' errors in class.

Table 7: ***Responses on Question B11 (students' questionnaire) and Question B12 (lecturers' questionnaire)***

Statement →	*When I make an error in class, it is mostly …: (Rate the following from the most frequent practice = 1 to the least = 4.)*				*When a student makes an error in my class, it is mostly…: (Rate the following from the most frequent practice = 1 to the least = 4.)*			
Respondent →	Students (%)				Lecturers (%)			
Rating →	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
1. corrected by the lecturer.	62.5	22.5	10	2.5	37.5	0	62.5	0
2. corrected by other students.	20	47.5	20	12.5	25	62.5	0	12.5
3. corrected by student self.	17.5	27.5	52.5	5	37.5	25	37.5	0
4. not corrected.	0	2.5	17.5	80	0	12.5	0	87.5

Based on the results displayed in Table 7, it becomes apparent that corrective feedback takes place in class given that 80% of students and 87.5% of lecturers rated the statement *not corrected* the least frequent. This finding corresponds with the expectations of teachers' and students' that were surveyed by Ancker (2000), which

revealed that 25% of 802 teachers and 76% of 143 students preferred that all errors should be corrected.

Despite the fact that corrective feedback is provided in class, the results in Table 6 illustrate that corrective feedback is not provided so often because the statement *sometimes correction, sometimes no reaction* emerges as the most likely option for lecturers with 75% and the second most likely option for students with 50%. Therefore, the responses to Statement 1 in Table 7 also show that lecturers provide corrective feedback to their students at a minimal frequency, which corresponds with their responses to Statement 4 in Table 6 that they only sometimes provide corrective feedback.

It becomes interesting that there is a correlation in the results displayed in Tables 6 and 7 when it comes to corrective feedback provided by the lecturers. In both cases students felt that lecturers are the ones providing feedback in class, while lecturers expressed the opposite opinion. For instance, in Table 7, the respondents' responses differ on the point of *who corrects the errors* when the highest number of 62.5% of students indicated that errors are corrected by the lecturers, while the same percentages of 62.5% of lecturers felt that they are not really the ones who correct errors in class, by rating the statement second least likely. In fact, with the communicative language teaching approach, the lecturer has a choice about who is to treat the errors in class. Some advocates for a communicative language teaching approach, such as Scrivener (2005) state that "it may be that being over-helpful as a teacher, could get in the way of learning. I cannot learn for my students. The more I

do [the work] myself, the less space there will be for the learners to do things" (p. 21). Of course, the lecturer can still treat the error but perhaps so can the student who made the error, or other students in the class.

There was however a general agreement from both respondents when they indicated that *other students* took the second most frequent position out of the four options as agents of corrective feedback. The findings further illustrate that both lecturers and students felt that self-correction is least practised in class. These results could be interpreted that when students make errors in class, they are not given ample time to reflect on what they say and to make any necessary correction; instead they receive corrective feedback from either the lecturer or their classmates.

5.2.2 Preferences of who to correct errors

Basturkmen, Loewen and Ellis (2004) highlighted the importance of studies on corrective feedback preferences by saying that they are aimed at informing practitioners and enhancing language learning and teaching practice. In order to find out about lecturers' and students' preferences of who should provide corrective feedback regarding speaking errors, respondents were requested to complete the statement in Table 8. To complete this statement, some students ranked the statements rather than ticking one option only, as instructed. In such cases, the researcher considered the statement that was ranked number one as the response.

Table 8: ***Responses on Question B12 (students' questionnaire) and Question B13 (lecturers' questionnaire)***

Statement →	*I believe that I learn English better when my errors are…: (Tick one option only.)*			*I believe that students learn English better when their errors are…: (Tick one option only.)*		
Respondents →	Students (%)			Lecturers (%)		
F = Female **M = Male**	F	M	Total F + M	F	M	Total F + M
1. corrected by the lecturer.	30	40	35	0	0	0
2. corrected by other students.	5	0	2.5	0	0	0
3. corrected by myself/themselves.	15	15	15	33.3	50	37.5
4. all the three options above.	50	45	47.5	66.7	50	62.5
5. not corrected.	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

According to the findings displayed in Table 8, both students and lecturers overwhelmingly indicated that students learn English better when their errors are treated and not ignored. A total number of 47% of students and 62.5% of lecturers believed that errors should be corrected either by the lecturer, other students or self. The findings displayed in Table 8 correspond with Jean and Simard (2011) who studied corrective feedback perceptions of high school students and teachers in Canada, and found that students preferred corrective feedback very much. The students in Jean and Simard's study also indicated that they preferred to "get their oral errors corrected all the time" (p. 474).

The second highest percentages (35%) of students believed that they learn English better if their errors are corrected by the lecturer (Statement 1); while, none of the lecturers supported the practice expressed in Statement 1. None of the lecturers felt

that students would learn English better if they only get corrective feedback from their peers. The results in Table 8 illustrate that students seemed to have low self-confidence and do not believe in their own ability to correct their errors. Yoshida (2008) also observed that students may deliberately ignore their peers' corrective feedback because they may doubt their linguistic abilities as students. However, 37.5% of the lecturers believed that students learn language the best if they are able to self-correct. These findings appear problematic because none of the participants wanted to take responsibility to correct errors. Students tried to shift this obligation to the lecturers and vice versa.

5.2.3 How lecturers feel about the practice of correcting errors

Although lecturers had generally agreed with students that errors should be corrected, as indicated in Statement 4 of Table 8, what lecturers still have to decide on is how to correct the errors. In order to find out how lecturers feel and what they do when they realise a student has made an error, lecturers were requested to complete the statement in the following table.

Table 9: Responses on Question B11 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Considering error correction in general, I can say that…: (Tick a box)				
Respondents → **F = Females M = Males**	Lecturers F (%)		Lecturers M (%)	Total F+M (%)
I always know how to deal with an error.	33.3		100	50
I am sometimes hesitant whether to correct or not, and if I opt to correct, I am not sure	50		0	37.5

how I should assist the student suitably.				
I often experience trouble with correcting errors, as I am worried about how my students react to it.	16.7		0	12.5
I do not correct errors; it deprives my students too much.	0		0	0

The highest overall percentage for males and females combined (50%) showed self-confidence and acknowledged that they often feel they know how to deal with an error. The second highest overall percentage (37.5%) indicated that they are sometimes hesitant whether to correct or not, and if they opt to correct, they are not always sure how they should assist the student suitably. An overall percentage of 12.5% of the respondents expressed that they often experience trouble with correcting errors, as they are worried about how their students may react to it. None of the lecturer participants opted for the last statement *I do not correct errors; it deprives my students too much*, which concurred with the results displayed in Statement 4 of Table 7, confirming that lecturers do indeed correct students' errors in class.

The general conclusion that can be drawn from the findings displayed in Table 9 is that some lecturers find it challenging as to how they should correct their students' errors. Shaffer (2008) reported similar findings, that one of the problems encountered by ESL teachers is how to correct oral errors and how much to correct. Only half the lecturer participants in the present study appeared to be confident with how to deal with their students errors; the other half were hesitant or experienced

trouble when having to correct errors. However, providing oral feedback seemed to be easier than giving the written feedback, in the sense that the lecturer can observe the behaviour and reactions of the student who erred and can use that to help decide whether to go on or to withdraw the correction.

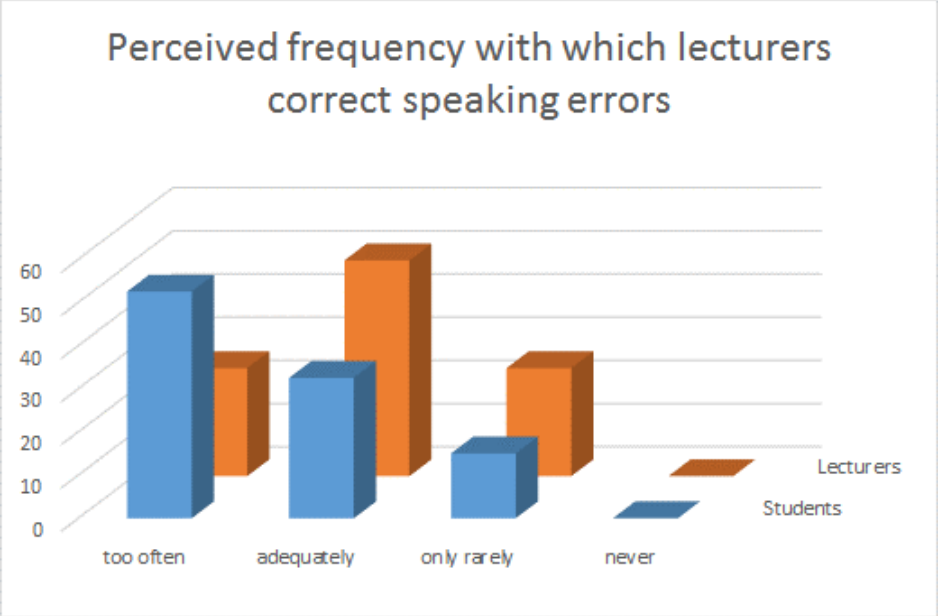
5.2.4 Frequency of corrective feedback

Both lecturers and students were asked to indicate how often the lecturers correct students' speaking errors in class. Table 10 below illustrates the participants' responses.

Table 10: Responses on Question B3 (students' questionnaire) and Question B2 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Statement →	*My lecturer corrects my errors …: (Circle one option.)*			*In class, I correct my students' errors…: (Circle one option.)*		
Respondent →	**Students (%)**			**Lecturers (%)**		
	Females	Males	Total	Females	Males	Total
too often	60	45	52.5	33.3	0	25
adequately	30	35	32.5	33.3	100	50
only rarely	10	20	15	33.3	0	25
never	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Figure 3:



According to the findings displayed in Table 10 and Figure 3, both lecturers and students reaffirmed the findings discussed earlier in this study about the lecturers' practice of providing corrective feedback in class (See Table 6). However, 52.5% of students felt their lecturers correct their errors too often. While some lecturers acknowledged that they might correct too often, 50% felt that they provide corrective feedback adequately often.

5.2.5 Deciding which errors to correct

Lecturers were further requested to highlight the types of error they focus on correcting during a speaking activity in class.

Table 11: Responses on Question B7 (lecturers' questionnaire)

When correcting my students' errors during a speaking activity…: *(Tick one option only.)*				
Respondents → Lecturers	**Females** (%)		**Males** (%)	**Total** (%)
I correct all the errors I hear.	16.7		50	25
I only correct grammar errors.	16.7		0	12.5
I only correct those errors that affect the message.	66.6		50	62.5

The findings displayed in Table 11 above reveal that 62.5% of lecturers claim only to correct errors that affect the message during a speaking activity rather than grammar errors or any other type of error. A quarter indicated they correct all the errors they hear and only 12.5% indicated they focus only on grammar errors. Jean and Simard (2011) reported similar arguments from the teachers in their study, that they correct only errors that impede communication.

Table 12 below presents the lecturers' responses on a further question that requested them to share their opinion about whether spoken errors should be corrected or not. By stating their correction preferences, they had options that enabled them to consider the relevancy of correction during fluency activities and also during accuracy activities.

Table 12: Responses on Question B9 (lecturers' questionnaire)

In my opinion, errors in speaking should…: (Tick a box.)			
Respondents →	Lecturers Female (%)	Lecturers Male (%)	Total (%)
never be corrected.	0	0	0
be corrected in fluency activities only.	16.7	0	12.5
be corrected in accuracy activities only.	16.7	50	25
always be corrected, if possible.	66.7	50	62.5
Write the reason for your choice here: (See Appendix 3)			

Table 12 shows that more than half (62.5%) of the lecturer respondents felt that, if possible, spoken errors should always be corrected. This option of correcting was backed up with reasons that if a student's error is not corrected, the student will not realise his or her mistake and he or she will continue to make the same error. Another reason that lecturers gave was that students should learn from their mistakes.

The last argument for correction was that correction will help the student to always adhere to language rules and observe good grammar to gain self-confidence. Some 25% of lecturers felt that only spoken errors that deal with accuracy should be corrected; while the remaining 12.5% chose the option of correcting fluency only. According to Brown (2007), "local errors usually need not be corrected since the message is clear and correction might interrupt a learner in the flow of productive communication. Global errors need to be treated in some way since the message may otherwise remain garbled." (p. 347). Some lecturers, who did not support the idea of correcting errors during fluency activities, also had the same argument that

correcting errors in fluency activities can break thought patterns. Thus, some lecturer respondents in this study suggest that correction should be based on activity goals and objectives.

5.2.6 How much is corrected

Respondents in this study were further requested to complete the statements recorded in Table 13 (students) and Table 14 (lecturers) below, in order to indicate the frequency of error correction with regards to different activities and different students in class.

Table 13: Responses on Question B6 (students' questionnaire)

Statement →	*In my opinion, my lecturer corrects errors …: (Please circle one answer only.)*		
Respondent →	**Students (%)**		
F = Female; M = Male	F	M	Total
more or less the same with all activities.	35	55	45
sometimes less, sometimes more - depends on the activity.	65	40	52.5
of some students less and of others more, regardless of the activity.	0	5	2.5
I do not know.	0	0	0
Total	100	100	100

Table 14: Responses on Question B5 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Statement →	*In regards with frequency of providing feedback on errors, I give feedback to my students in speaking …: (Please circle one answer only.)*		
Respondent → **F = Females; M = Males**	**Lecturers** (%)		
	F	M	Total
more or less the same with all activities.	16.7	0	12.5
sometimes less, sometimes more – depends on the activity.	66.7	50	62.5
errors of some students less and of others more, regardless of the activity.	0	0	0
I do not follow any pattern. I correct automatically.	16.7	50	25
Other (please specify if any):	-	-	-
Total	100	100	100

According to the findings displayed in Table 13 and 14 above, the most common option for types of both respondents (52.5% of students and 62.5% of lecturers) was that lecturers provide corrective feedback in speaking *sometimes less, sometimes more – depends on the activity.* Although 45% of students felt their lecturers provide corrective feedback *more or less the same with all activities,* only 12.5% of lecturers had the same opinion. A quarter (25%) of lecturers, however, indicated that they do not follow any pattern when providing corrective feedback, they do it automatically. None of the participants provided extra information to express other perceptions concerning corrective feedback practice that happen in their classes.

5.2.7 Timing of corrective feedback

It becomes clear now that the participants in the present study expressed that errors are corrected in their classes (See Table 6; 7; 9 & 10). At this juncture, lecturers were

given a statement that is recorded in Table 15 below to indicate when they usually correct their students' errors in class. The lecturers were requested to rate each statement with either *most of the time*, *sometimes* or *not at all*.

Table 15: Responses on Question B6 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Note: Some lecturers did not provide any response to the statement: "If I do not give any feedback on my student's spoken error…"

With respect to timing, I usually correct my students' spoken errors…: (Tick the box of the most appropriate answer for each statement.)										
Respondents →	**Lecturers (%) Female**				**Lecturers (%) Male**			**Total** (%)		
Rating →	*most of the time*	*Some times*	*not at all*		*most of the time*	*Some times*	*not at all*	*most of the time*	*Some times*	*not at all*
1.immediately.	16.7	33.3	16.7		50	0	50	37.5	25	25
2. after the sentence containing the error.	16.7	66.7	0		50	50	0	25	62.5	0
3. after the student has stopped talking.	83.3	16.7	0		0	100	0	62.5	37.5	0
4. at the end of the whole activity	0	50	33.3		50	0	50	12.5	37.5	37.5
5. at the end of the lesson.	0	16.7	66.7		0	50	50	0	25	62.5
If I do not give any feedback on my student's spoken error…:										

Respondents →	**Lecturers (%) Females**		**Lecturers (%) Males**	**Total (%)**
it makes me feel guilty.	33.3		50	37.5
it does not worry me much.	50		0	37.5
Any other comment on timing when to provide feedback: *No any other feedback provided.*				

Table 15 above displays the lecturers' responses concerning timing, when they usually correct their students' spoken errors. Specifically, this indicates that *most of the time* lecturers provide corrective feedback *after the student has stopped talking*, sometimes *after the sentence containing the error* but rarely *at the end of the lesson.*

The next most likely options (37.5%) involved providing corrective feedback *immediately* most of the time, *after the student has stopped talking* sometimes, *at the end of the whole activity* sometimes and *never* providing corrective feedback at the end of the whole activity.

Lecturers were also requested to complete another statement to express how they feel if they do not give any feedback on their student's spoken errors. Some lecturers (37.5%) stated that it makes them feel guilty if they do not give any feedback on their student's spoken errors but the same percentage (37.5%) indicated that it does not worry them much. None of the participants shared any further information concerning the timing of providing corrective feedback.

5.2.8 Types of errors corrected

Both lecturers and students were requested to indicate the errors that are typically corrected in class by lecturers. They were asked to rank their choices from the most frequently corrected errors (1) to the least frequently corrected (8), in order to indicate how much attention each error type receives as far as corrective feedback is concerned in class. In this regard, scales 1, 2 and 3 were considered most frequent, 4 and 5 moderate, and 6, 7 and 8 least frequent practised. Table 16 below displays the students' responses, while Table 17 shows the lecturers' responses.

Table 16: Responses on Question B4 (students' questionnaire)

Statement →	*If my lecturer corrects students' errors during a speaking class, it is typically…: (Arrange from the most frequent corrected errors = 1 to the least ones = 8)*							
Respondent →	**Students (%)**							
Rating →	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**
wrong tense used	55	12.5	5	10	5	10	0	2.5
wrong verb form	7.5	35	15	25	12.5	5	0	0
wrong word used	5	2.5	32.5	12.5	22.5	15	10	0
wrong word order	5	5	10	20	15	10	15	20
concord (subject-verb-agreement)	10	17.5	20	17.5	2.5	12.5	17.5	2.5
pronunciation	7.5	10	15	5	22.5	17.5	12.5	10
wrong or irrelevant answer	10	15	2.5	5	10	22.5	25	10
style and register (acceptability in the given situation)	0	0	2.5	5	7.5	7.5	22.5	55

Table 17: Responses on Question B3 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Note: Some respondents did not rank every choice and thus some totals are not 100%.

Respondent →	*If I decide to correct my students' errors during a speaking class, it is typically…: (Arrange from the most frequent corrected errors = 1 to the least ones = 8)*							
Respondent →	**Lecturers (%)**							
Rating →	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**
wrong tense used	12.5	12.5	12.5	25	25	12.5	0	0
wrong verb form	0	12.5	37.5	25	12.5	12.5	0	0
wrong word used	0	25	25	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	0
wrong word order	0	0	0	0	12.5	25	37.5	25
concord (subject-verb-agreement)	25	25	0	0	25	25	0	0
pronunciation	12.5	25	12.5	0	0	12.5	12.5	12.5
wrong or irrelevant answer	50	0	12.5	0	0	0	12.5	12.5
style and register (acceptability in the given situation)	0	0	0	12.5	12.5	0	25	50

According to the results displayed in Tables 16 and 17, students indicated that the three most frequently corrected errors were *wrong tense used* as number one (55%), *wrong verb form* as number two (35%) and *wrong word used* as number three (32.5%). According to lecturers, the most frequently corrected error type is *wrong or irrelevant answer* (50% rated first), followed by *wrong verb form* (37.5% rated second), and the third most frequently corrected error type is *concord (subject-verb-*

agreement) (25% rated this first, 25% second and 25% fifth). *Wrong verb form* was indicated by both students and lecturers to be high on their lists of frequently corrected error types.

In terms of less frequently used types of corrections, students identified *pronunciation* (22.5% ranked fifth), *wrong or irrelevant answer* (25% ranked seventh), and *style and register (acceptability in the given situation)* (55% ranked last). The three least frequently corrected errors indicated by the lecturers were *concord (subject-verb-agreement)* (25% ranked this fifth and another 25% ranked it sixth), *wrong word order* (37.5% ranked seventh), and *style and register (acceptability in the given situation)* (50% ranked last). However, when it comes to *Concord (subject-verb-agreement)* lecturers appeared to be ambivalent because 50 % of them rated concord *first and second* while the other 50% rated it, as indicated above, fifth or sixth.

Over all, there is a discrepancy between lecturers' and students' perceptions about the frequency and types of errors corrected by lecturers in class. These findings agreed with Yoshida (2008) and Kato (2007) who found a similar mismatch between teachers' and students' perceptions about corrected errors.

The respondents in this study only agreed on two types of errors, that *wrong verb form* receives the most correction and that *style and register (acceptability in the given situation)* is given the least attention. Ferris (2002) refers to the *style and register* types of errors, such as "*word choice, word form and awkward or*

unidiomatic sentence structures", as untreatable because "there is no rule to which students can turn to correct an error when it is pointed out to them" (p. 64). The fact that there is no clear-cut rule backing up the correction of *style and register* errors could be one possible explanation for the low rankings given to correcting these errors.

5.2.9 Errors need to be corrected and who to correct them

As presented in Tables 16 and 17 above, the respondents in this study gave their perception about what types of errors receive the most corrective feedback in class and which ones receive minimum attention. In the same vein, the respondents also offered their preferences as to which errors they deem should be corrected.

Tables 18 and 19 below present the lecturers' and students' preference about what errors should be corrected and indicate whom they think should correct the errors.

Table 18: Responses on Question B5 (students' questionnaire)

In my opinion, the following errors should be corrected during a speaking class. (Indicate who should correct each error type you select, for example, L=lecturer, S=self or O=other students.):									
Respondents →	Students (%) Females			Students (%) Males			Total F + M (%)		
L = lecturer; S = self O = other students	L	S	O	L	S	O	L	S	O
wrong tense used	75	0	25	45	35	20	60	17.5	22.5
wrong verb form	70	5	25	45	30	25	57.5	17.5	25
wrong word used	25	40	35	65	25	10	45	32.5	22.5
wrong word order	35	35	30	70	25	5	52.5	30	17.5
concord (subject-verb-agreement)	60	30	15	50	15	35	55	22.5	25
pronunciation	40	25	35	45	40	15	42.5	32.5	25
wrong or irrelevant answer	65	20	15	65	10	25	65	15	20
style and register (acceptability in the given situation)	40	10	50	50	35	15	45	22.5	32.5
TOTAL	51.2	20.6	28.7	54.4	26.9	18.8	52.8	23.7	23.7
Are there any other error types that you think should be corrected? Add them here: (See Appendix 3).									

Table 19: Responses on Question B4 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Note: Some lecturers ticked only some errors and left others blank.

In my opinion, only the following errors should be corrected during speaking.			
Respondents →	Lecturers (%) Female	Lecturers (%) Male	Total (%) F + M
wrong tense used	50	50	50
wrong verb form	66.7	50	62.5
wrong word used	50	50	50
wrong word order	33.3	50	37.5
concord (subject-verb-agreement)	50	50	50

pronunciation	83.3	50	75
wrong/ irrelevant answer	83.3	100	87.5
style and register (acceptability in the given situation)	50	50	50
Are there any other error types that you think should be corrected? See Appendix 3.			

For easy scrutiny, the results in Tables 18 and 19 above are summarised in Table 20.

Table 20: Summary of responses on Question B5 (students' questionnaire) and Question B4 (lecturers' questionnaire)

In my opinion, only the following errors should be corrected during speaking:

Students	**Lecturers**
wrong or irrelevant answer 65%	*wrong/irrelevant answer (87.5%)*
wrong tense used 60%	*Pronunciation (75%)*
wrong verb form (57.5%)	*wrong verb form (62.5%)*
concord (subject-verb-agreement) (55%)	*wrong tense used (50%)*
wrong word order (52.5%)	*wrong word used (50%)*
wrong word used (45%)	*concord (subject-verb-agreement) (50%)*
style and register (acceptability in the given situation) (45%)	*style and register (acceptability in the given situation) (50%)*
Pronunciation (42.5%)	*wrong word order (37.5%)*

It can be clearly seen that lecturers and students both strongly recommended that *wrong or irrelevant answer* should receive the highest attention when it comes to corrective feedback. This finding correlates with Azar and Molavi (2013) when in their study, they found that less than half of learners want ESL teachers to correct their inappropriate expressions most of the time. These findings seem to suggest that students have low confidence in their abilities to correct their own errors. Both lecturer and student respondents in this study were also in agreement that *wrong*

tense used, wrong verb form, and concord (subject-verb-agreement) should also receive priority for corrective feedback. The difference, however, came with *pronunciation* and *wrong word order*. Lecturers very often rated pronunciation as the second highest (75%) type of error that needs to be corrected, and in contrast students often ranked *pronunciation* last (42.5%) in the list. In this case, students probably did not regard pronunciation correction to be important because they also placed pronunciation amongst the three least corrected errors in class (See Table 16 above). Otherwise, lecturers' responses revealed conflicting results because in this finding they claimed that pronunciation deserves serious attention when ranking it as the second most frequent type of error that needs correction, which is in contrast with what they claimed to practise in class (See Table 17 above).

Students were also asked to indicate their preference in terms of who to correct each error type. Interestingly, the results indicate that students generally prefer the lecturer to provide feedback, for all error types. A small variation could only be noticed when scrutinising gender choices. All male students maintained their preference for the lecturer to provide corrective feedback for all error types. However, female students had different preferences about the correction agent for *wrong word used* and *wrong word order* when the majority (40% and 35% respectively) preferred self-correction; although, a similar percentage (35%) of female students still preferred lecturers to provide corrective feedback for *wrong word order.*

Both respondents were further asked to indicate whether there were any other speaking error types that they thought should be corrected in the ESL class. Students

provided a list of additional language features specifying the error types that they felt needed correction, such as the use of parts of speech, sentence construction and avoiding redundancy. Some of the raised issues were that: speaking other languages during English class should not be allowed; students should be prevented from speaking their home languages; giving irrelevant responses as they wish in class should not be tolerated and that students themselves should prevent this behaviour; other students and the lecturer should point out and correct the usage of street English or Short Message Service (SMS) language in the ESL class. Finally, everyone in class must always be serious about participating in conversation, and the lecturer should control the students not to laugh at other students when they make errors.

Lecturers also added that corrective feedback should also focus on incorrect phrase construction, for example double comparative adjective forms such as “more cheaper”. The reason why lecturers identified degrees of comparison to also receive serious attention in the ESL class may have been prompted by the fact that in everyday communication, many people, especially in Namibia, use double comparative adjectives when speaking. Phrases such as “speak more louder” or “the most cheapest item” are erroneous but they can be traced in public speeches, used by speakers on media and even amongst professionals at work places. The last point made by lecturers was that strategies for communication and fluency should also receive greater attention.

5.2.10 How lecturers feel about correcting errors

When discussing corrective feedback, it is crucial not only to consider how corrective feedback is provided but also to consider the human factors of the agent of correction that may interact favourably or unfavourably with the treatment under investigation. Conti (2015) recommends that "… when one tests an instructional technique, one is also testing the effectiveness of the teacher who delivered it, his/her rapport with the students (with its enormous implications on motivation) among other things" (p. 5). With this in mind, lecturers were asked to indicate their feelings and how confident they feel when they have to provide corrective feedback. The findings in Table 21 below were discussed under the spoken corrective feedback section as well because this question requested lecturers to indicate how they consider error correction in general. Therefore, the researcher of this study deems it vital to apply the same responses to written corrective feedback.

Table 21: Responses on Question B11 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Considering error correction in general, I can say that:			
Respondents → **F = Female; M = Male →**	Lecturers F (%)	Lecturers M (%)	Total F+M (%)
I always know how to deal with an error.	33.3	100	50
I am sometimes hesitant whether to correct or not, and if I opt to correct, I am not sure how I should assist the student suitably.	50	0	37.5
I often experience trouble with correcting errors, as I am worried about how my students react to it.	16.7	0	12.5
I do not correct errors; it deprives my students too much.	0	0	0

Half of the respondents (50%) indicated that they always know how to deal with an error. With respect to gender, the results portray male lecturers to be very much confident (100%) when it comes to providing corrective feedback in comparison to their counterparts, female lecturers (33.3%). Half of female lecturers (50%) expressed uncertainty and admitted that they are sometimes hesitant whether to correct or not, and if they opt to correct, they are not always sure how they should assist the students suitably. These findings reflect the dilemma that lecturers face when they have to decide whether they should correct the error a student makes or not. Although, in general, empirical studies indicate that students want and expect their lecturers to correct all of their errors, it still does not entirely mean that all students want to be corrected. There are students who get devastated and discouraged when they receive their corrected work full of comments pointing at every error they made. This disparity could, therefore, plant a seed of doubt into the lecturers' minds and have a sense of dilemma as to how they should provide corrective feedback satisfactorily, considering the needs of different students.

5.2.11 Perceptions on how lecturers correct

Question 8 in both questionnaires asked lecturers and students to give their views on ESL lecturers' correction style in class, chosen from among seven methods of ESL corrective feedback. There were two explicit corrective feedback strategies, namely, providing explicit correction *(lecturer provides correct version of the error)* and using recasts or reformulations *(lecturer reformulates all or part of a student's utterance, using the correct form, excluding the error).* The other five ESL corrective

feedback strategies were implicit: using paralinguistic signals *(lecturer uses body language to signal that the student made an error);* providing metalinguistic feedback *(lecturer asks questions to alert the student that there is an error in order to correct himself or herself);* using clarification request style *(lecturer asks questions for clarification to let the student realise an error);* using repetition *(lecturer repeats an error to make the student realise there is an error)* and using prompt or elicitation style *(lecturer repeats the part of the student's utterance except the erroneous part and signals that the student should fill in the rest with the correct form).*

Tables 22 and 23 below display the distribution of lecturers' and students' views on ESL lecturers' corrective feedback style, by gender. The respondents provided their responses by arranging what they believed lecturers practise, rating the most frequent strategy 1 and the least practised strategy 7. In this regard, scales 1, 2 and 3 were considered most frequently practised, 4 moderate, and 5, 6 and 7 least frequently practised. Otherwise, they had to leave blank any corrective feedback practices that they felt their lecturers do not apply.

Table 22: Responses on Question B8 (students' questionnaire)

Statement →	*When my lecturer corrects students' errors during speaking activities …: (Arrange what your lecturer practise most, from the most frequent practice = 1 to the least = 7; If your lecturer does not apply some of the practices, leave them blank.)*							
Respondent →	**Students: Females (%)**							
Rating →	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**Total**
he or she provides correct version of the error.	60	15	0	10	10	0	0	95
he or she uses body language to signal that the student made an error.	15	15	10	5	5	5	30	85
he or she asks questions to alert the student that there is an error in order to correct himself or herself.	10	30	35	0	10	5	0	90
he or she asks questions for clarification to let the student realise an error.	25	10	25	20	10	0	0	90
he or she repeats an error to make the student realise there is an error.	5	15	10	35	15	15	0	95
he or she repeats the part of the student's utterance except the erroneous part and signals that the student should fill in the rest with the correct form.	5	0	0	10	15	20	20	70
he or she reformulates all or part of a student's utterance, using the correct form, excluding the error.	10	0	5	0	15	25	15	70

Respondent →	**Students: Males (%)**							
Rating →	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**Total (%)**
he or she provides correct version of the error.	60	0	5	5	15	5	5	95
he or she uses body language to signal that the student made an error.	20	15	25	10	0	5	10	85
he or she asks questions to alert the student that there is an error in order to correct himself or herself.	20	55	5	5	5	10	0	100
he or she asks questions for clarification to let the student realise an error.	15	15	35	25	5	0	0	95
he or she repeats an error to make the student realise there is an error.	5	5	10	35	20	5	5	85
he or she repeats the part of the student's utterance except the erroneous part and signals that the student should fill in the rest with the correct form.	5	10	5	5	10	40	5	80
he or she reformulates all or part of a student's utterance, using the correct form, excluding the error.	0	5	5	5	10	10	40	75

Table 23: Responses on Question B8 (Lecturers' questionnaire)

Statement →	*When correcting my students' errors during a speaking activity …: (Arrange what you practise from the most frequent practice = 1 to the least = 7; If some practices do not apply to you, leave them blank.)*							
Respondent →	**Lecturers: Females (%)**							
Rating →	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**Total**
I provide correct version of the error to my students.	16.7	0	16.7	33.3	0	16.7	16.7	100
I use body language to signal that the student made an error.	0	0	0	0	16.7	16.7	16.7	50
I ask questions to alert the student that there is an error in order to correct him- or herself.	33.3	0	33.3	16.7	0	0	0	83.3
I ask questions for clarification to let the student realise an error.	16.7	66.7	0	0	16.7	0	0	100
I repeat an error to make the student realise there is an error.	16.7	16.7	0	16.7	0	33.3	0	83.3
I repeat the part of the student's utterance except the erroneous part and signal that the student should fill in the rest with the correct form.	0	16.7	16.7	16.7	16.7	0	0	66.7
I reformulate all or part of a student's utterance, using the correct form, excluding the error.	16.7	16.7	16.7	0	33.3	0	16.7	100

Respondent →	**Lecturers: Males (%)**							
Rating →	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**Total (%)**
I provide correct version of the error to my students.	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	50
I use body language to signal that the student made an error.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I ask questions to alert the student that there is an error in order to correct him- or herself.	0	50	0	0	0	0	0	50
I ask questions for clarification to let the student realise an error.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I repeat an error to make the student realise there is an error.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I repeat the part of the student's utterance except the erroneous part and signal that the student should fill in the rest with the correct form.	0	0	50	0	0	0	0	50
I reformulate all or part of a student's utterance, using the correct form, excluding the error.	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	50

Table 24 below displays a percentage compilation of students and lecturers' responses.

Table 24: Comparison of students and lecturers' responses about lecturers' style of providing corrective feedback (Responses on Question B8 of lecturers' and students questionnaire)

Statement →	*When a lecturer corrects students' errors during speaking activities …: (Arrange what your lecturer practise most, from the most frequent practice = 1 to the least = 7; If the lecturer does not apply some of the practices, leave them blank.)*		
Respondent →	**Students: (F+M) (%)**	**Lecturers: (F+M) (%)**	**Total (%)**
he or she provides correct version of the error.	95	87.5	91.3
he or she uses body language to signal that the student made an error.	85	37.5	61.3
he or she asks questions to alert the student that there is an error in order to correct himself or herself.	95	75	85
he or she asks questions for clarification to let the student realise an error.	92.5	75	83.8
he or she repeats an error to make the student realise there is an error.	90	62.5	76.3
he or she repeats the part of the student's utterance except the erroneous part and signals that the student should fill in the rest with the correct form.	75	62.5	68.8
he or she reformulates all or part of a student's utterance, using the correct form, excluding the error.	72.5	87.5	80

As displayed in Table 24 above, *explicit correction* (95%) and *metalinguistic feedback* (95%) were the most frequently identified methods among students; whereas, lecturers indicated *explicit correction* (87.5%) and *recasts or reformulations* (87.5%) as their most common methods of corrective feedback. The next most common choices of the lecturers were *metalinguistic feedback* (75%) and

clarification request (75%); while students' second and third options were *clarification request* (92.5%) and *repetition* (90%) respectively. These findings highlight some level of agreement between lecturers' and students' perceptions about corrective feedback strategies used in class.

The findings indicate that *explicit correction*, *recasts*, *metalinguistic feedback*, and *clarification request* strategies are among the ESL corrective feedback strategies that were identified by the majority of both lecturer and student participants. Yoshida (2008) reported similar results and expounded that, although teachers believed prompts, metalinguistic feedback, and clarification request to be beneficial to students in the sense that they can afford students a chance to work out their linguistic problems, teachers were still convinced that recasts are more efficient to use, due to the lack of time and also that recasts are conducive to sustaining a "supportive classroom environment" (p. 89). V'asquez and Harvey (2010) also stated that "subsequent studies have corroborated that recasts are among the most commonly used corrective feedback techniques despite leading to little or no learner uptake" (p. 432).

On the one hand, these findings confirm that lecturers chose to give explicit corrective feedback to save time, because otherwise the students might take some time to figure out the correction. On the other hand, these findings illustrate that lecturers opted for recasts, suggesting that lecturers believed that correcting students promptly disrupts their train of thought and diminishes their willingness to continue participating. According to Yoshida (2008), "recasts are useful in that they show

learners the correct forms without affecting the flow of conversation, and without risking embarrassing the learners by making their errors more obvious" (p. 91). However, Yoshida further cautioned that recasts might not be that helpful for students to be able to self-correct because students do not always listen attentively to lecturers comments.

In terms of strategies that are viewed to be the most common in class, Table 22 shows that students rated both *explicit correction* and *clarification request* number one; whereas, Table 23 indicates that lectures believe that *explicit correction* and *metalinguistic feedback* are the most popular corrective feedback strategies they practise in class.

Overall, the findings from the tables above reveal that all the suggested ESL corrective feedback strategies were identified by more than 50% of both the lecturer and student participants, except *paralinguistic signal* strategy that was only selected by 37.5% of lecturers (Table 24), ranking it low. These findings can therefore be interpreted as demonstrating that both lecturers and students believe that almost all the ESL corrective feedback strategies are practised in class but at different rates, as indicated.

5.2.12 Students' preference on error treatment

Table 25: Responses on Question B10 (students' questionnaire)

When I make an error during speaking, it is:				
Respondents →				**Students: → Total: F + M (%)**
very good	*good*	*not good*	*very bad*	**Statements ↓**
2.5	5	27.5	62.5	*when my lecturer does not correct me at all.*
20	32.5	35	10	*when my lecturer tells me that I have made an error but I must self-correct.*
52.5	42.5	2.5	2.5	*when my lecturer tells me about the error and corrects me.*
55	35	7.5	0	*when my lecturer tells me the correct form and lets me repeat it.*
15	42.5	25	15	*when my lecturer lets other students correct my error.*
90	7.5	0	0	*when my lecturer corrects my error and explains what was wrong and why.*
0	5	20	72.5	*when nobody points out that I made an error.*

According to Table 25 above, explicit corrective feedback when my lecturer corrects my error and explains what was wrong and why (90%) and when my lecturer tells me about the error and corrects me (52.5%), and recasts when my lecturer tells me the correct form and lets me repeat it (55%) were the most favoured methods of ESL corrective feedback among the students. The highest percentages were related to explicit correction and recasts, rating them to be *very good* corrective feedback strategies. In their study, Ferris and Roberts (2001) discovered one advantage of explicit correction that low proficiency students benefited from teachers who corrected their errors overtly. Moghaddam and Behjat (2014) favoured recasts and referred to them as an attempt to imitate the way in which correction happens in real-

life situations. These scholars further explained that recasts are an indirect and gentle way of providing corrective feedback that emulates “the way people in the street or in shops react to learners’ errors and it is generally how parents correct their children” (p. 3). According to Lyster and Saito (2010), when corrective feedback is provided during contextualised language use, it enables students to transfer target language knowledge to similar contexts of spontaneous oral production. This resonates with Doughty (2001) who acknowledged that corrective feedback that is provided in the context of meaningful and communicative interaction seems to be most effective.

Although the recasts error correcting style reported on in Table 23 only illustrates one type of recast, it is vital to clarify that there is a distinction that can be drawn to categorise recast practices. Lyster (1998) distinguished recasts as either interrogative or declarative. In their study, Erlam and Loewen (2010) demonstrated implicit or interrogative recasts, when the correction is made with rising intonation or when the recasts serve as conformation checks, and explicit or declarative recasts which happen when recasts indicate that something is incorrect in the students’ utterance through statements or the repetition of the student’s utterance in the declarative form excluding the error.

The next highest percentage (42.5%) of students preferred corrective feedback from their peers while 32.5% preferred self-correction, and they rated them both to be *good* strategies. The statements suggesting that the lecturer should not correct the students at all and that nobody should point out that an error was made, were

regarded as *very bad* practices by a majority of students (62.5% and 72.5% respectively).

Because students did not disregard completely any of the suggested corrective methods in the survey, these findings indicate that students generally appreciate, at various times, all forms of corrective feedback on their spoken errors. These findings are consistent with Jean and Simard (2011) who investigated 2321 high school students' and 45 teachers' perspectives on four language features including corrective feedback, finding that the majority of students were very much in favour of corrective feedback when they stated that they would like to "get their oral errors corrected all the time" (p. 474). Furthermore, the results of the present study reveal that students did not only prefer to be corrected by their lecturers but they also valued corrective feedback from their peers, as well as to be granted a chance of self-correction.

5.2.13 Students' typical reactions to corrective feedback

Lecturers and students were requested to indicate how students react when they are given corrective feedback while speaking in class. Table 26 below displays the students' responses, while Table 27 presents the lecturers' views.

Table 26: Responses on Question B7 (students' questionnaire)

If I make an error while speaking in class and be corrected, my typical reaction is:										
Respondents →	**Students: F (%)**				**Students: M (%)**			**Total: F + M (%)**		
Rating →	*most of the time*	*Some times*	*not at all*		*most of the time*	*Some times*	*not at all*	*most of the time*	*Some times*	*not at all*
1. Nothing at all, I continue speaking, I cannot be distracted from the thought.	25	35	40		30	40	20	27.5	37.5	30
2. I admit the error, think about it, and then continue.	50	35	15		55	35	0	52.5	25	7.5
3. I ask my lecturer about the error and the correct solution.	40	50	10		30	40	20	35	45	15
4. I am frustrated because of it and do not want to continue speaking.	5	20	75		10	35	45	7.5	27.5	60
5. I get out of balance so much that I forget what I was saying.	15	45	40		10	30	50	12.5	37.5	45
Other: (See Appendix 3)										

In Table 27 below, lecturers rated their choices between 1 and 5. In this regard, scales 1 and 2 were regarded most common reaction, 3 occasionally, and 4 and 5 least common reaction.

Table 27: Responses on Question B10 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Note: One lecturer only ranked two statements (3&5)

The most common reaction of my students to my signaling of an error in speaking is:					
Respondents →	Lecturers → Females + Males (%)				
Rating →	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1. Nothing at all, they continue speaking, cannot be distracted from the thought.	12.5	50	12.5	12.5	0
2. They accept my signal, think about it, correct the error and go on talking.	75	0	12.5	0	0
3. They are unable to self-correct, it is necessary to interrupt them and discuss the error.	12.5	25	25	12.5	25
4. They are frustrated because of the error and unwilling to continue talking.	0	0	12.5	37.5	37.5
5. They get out of balance so much that they forget what they were saying.	0	12.5	37.5	25	25

More than half of the students (52.5%) indicated that most of the time they admit the error, *think about it, correct the error and go on talking*. The students' response was seconded by the lecturers, 75% of whom ranked this the single most common reaction. Tomková (2013) found a similar result in her study of English students at Secondary School level, where almost half of the respondents selected the option indicating that they admit correction and then continue talking. A further 45% of students in the present study claimed that *sometimes* they ask their lecturers about the error and the correct solution. A number of students (37.5%) agreed with their lecturers' highest rated response (50%) that *sometimes* students do nothing at all, they continue speaking and do not allow themselves to be distracted from their thought. For the remaining two statements *I am frustrated because of it and do not want to continue speaking* and *I get out of balance so much that I forget what I was*

saying, large percentages of students, (60% and 45% respectively) expressed the views that their typical reactions were *not at all* like that.

Surprisingly, in this finding, the lecturers' responses also claimed that correction does not frustrate or distract the students' concentration when it is provided instantly while they speak. This contradicts other researchers (Jean & Simard, 2011; Brown, 2009; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005) who found that students get frustrated once they are interrupted while speaking. The respondents in the present study agreed that the majority of students are not threatened or depressed by corrective feedback, countering the claims of some scholars who oppose corrective feedback practice. This disparity may occur because the other three studies were carried out in Canada, Americas, Spain, and Europe, while the present study was carried out in Namibia, Africa. Living conditions, education, culture and social background of Canadian, European and African teachers and students may reveal differences in participants' English language proficiency levels. However, the findings of the present study do corroborate other studies (Farrell & Lim, 2005; Ng & Farrell, 2003; Schulz, 2001) which showed that students preferred their errors to be corrected at all times.

Students were also accorded a chance to state their perception about their personal reaction when provided with corrective feedback while speaking in the ESL class. Among female students, one stated that she sometimes gets confused and starts mixing up words; one said she feels ashamed of herself; one laughs at her mistake, apologises and continues speaking; while another becomes stubborn and sometimes starts to put up an argument. All these responses indicate that female respondents

perceived corrective feedback to have a negative impact on them because it gives rise to confusion, regret, stubbornness and defensiveness.

One male student feels shocked when he realises he made an error, but tries not to show it; another stated that he gets ashamed of himself and that causes him to decrease his level of participation in the next class. The male students also expressed a view that corrective feedback causes them self-doubt, shame and withdrawal from participating actively in class. One male student warned that lecturers should not correct students while speaking, countering the assertion by Brown (2009) that students think that for teachers to be effective, they have to be able to correct oral errors immediately. Lastly, one male student felt that correction is necessary to improve his language, while another one argued that correction is only necessary when the error is serious.

5.2.14 Level of satisfaction and suggestions for improvement

Student participants were requested to complete the statement in Table 28 below to show whether they are satisfied with the way their lecturer correct their errors in class or they would like to recommend any changes towards the corrective feedback practice.

Table 28: Responses on Question B9 (students' questionnaire)

I would appreciate it if my lecturer...:			
Respondents → **Students →**	**Female (%)**	**Male (%)**	**Total**
a) kept on correcting the way he or she does.	80	80	80
b) changed her or his way of correcting	20	20	20
If b) how? See Appendix 3.			

Based on the findings presented in Table 28 above, a vast majority of students expressed satisfaction with their lecturers' way of providing corrective feedback in the ESL class. The results are interesting in that this was affirmed at the same level (80%) across genders. Only the remaining 20% of students wished that their lecturers change their way of correcting errors. Female students who wished for a change offered some suggestions for their lecturers' style of correction. One recommendation was that lecturers should correct students' errors by indicating where a student has made an error and then provide the correct version of the error. After that, a student should be given a chance to prove that he or she understood. The students also recommended that corrective feedback should be given immediately for a specific error made by an individual student so that the student will not repeat the same error again. The same recommendation was made by Weaver (2006) and Ferris (2008) when suggested that students should be shown their strengths and weaknesses in order to avoid making the same error in future work. The last recommendation,

also made by a female student, was that lecturers could continue correcting as they do but maybe just giving a few more examples.

A general opinion expressed by male students who preferred to see change in their lecturers' style of correction, was that they should be given a chance to correct themselves first, and then the lecturer should only provide correction if a student himself or herself could not correct the error. Some male students preferred to be called to go and see the lecturer after the class to discuss the error privately. This statement seems to suggest that this student either feels embarrassed when being corrected in the presence of other students or prefers discussing errors privately because he is too shy to do so while other students are listening. The last suggestion made by male students was that the lecturer should not be so fast in correcting errors but he or she must build the interpersonal environment and make it conducive, so that it will be easier for students to express their concerns freely.

5.2.15 General comments about spoken errors corrective feedback

At the end of the questionnaire section about spoken errors corrective feedback in class, an open-ended question was asked where respondents were accorded a chance to comment or add anything that they would want to change about error correction during speaking activities in class. Below is the list of suggestions that were made by lecturers and students.

Table 29: Comments made by students and lecturers: B14 (students' questionnaire) and B15 (lecturers' questionnaire)

	General comments about spoken errors corrective feedback
Lecturer 1	*Focus should be primarily on the activity's objective.*
Lecturer 2	*Corrective feedback should be done in such a way that it is beneficial to the student who has erred and the whole class. The student should not feel less confident after the correction.*
Lecturer 3	*I often hesitate to correct students because I do not want to embarrass them and cause them to stop speaking.*
Lecturer 4	*An effective way would be noting down the errors and discuss them with the whole class at the end of the activity, irrespective of who made the error.*
Student 1	*Students should tape record themselves regularly when speaking and later let them listen to themselves in class and then correct their mistakes.*
Student 2	*I think it is wise to force students to correct themselves and after making mistakes they should be given some similar tasks and see if they will still make those errors.*
Student 3	*Talk to the student who has made an error and try to correct him or her in class so that other students can also learn from the correction.*
Student 4	*The lecturer and other students must always write down all the errors that others have made and have a lesson on all the errors made. By doing that, it will help everyone improve.*
Student 5	*Let the student talk till he or she is done but the lecturer should be recording all the errors that the students make and later tell them about the errors and correct them.*
Student 6	*Lecturers must wait for the student to finish talking then correct the errors after the student is done with speaking. Lecturers must never leave errors uncorrected.*

Student 7	*The lecturer should always correct students when an error has occurred. Students should be encouraged to ask the lecturers if or when they have made an error.*
Student 8	*When students are speaking or discussing answers, they must speak slowly so that other students and even a student himself or herself can see that there is an error in the answer.*
Student 9	*An error to be corrected should be anything that is not appropriate for that moment.*
Student 10	*Pronunciation also needs to be corrected so it is good for a student who made an error to be corrected on how to pronounce certain words correctly.*
Student 11	*When one makes an error, the lecturer must notify them and then ask them to correct that error. If the student cannot correct him or herself, other students can then help as well as the lecturer.*
Student 12	*Class participation should be encouraged; activities including speeches and presentation should be done more often.*
Student 13	*Correction of sms words such as 'coz' should also be corrected during speaking.*
Student 14	*Lecturers should increase the activity of correcting students for them to feel free when being corrected and for the students to be encouraged to ask when they realise that the vocabulary they are using is wrong.*
Student 15	*Make students understand or accept correction when the error is being corrected by lecturers or other students.*
Student 16	*Students should be corrected when sometimes they pronoun English words using 'l' instead of 'r'.*

Briefly, in Table 29 above, one lecturer revealed that she often hesitates to correct students because she does not want to humiliate them and cause them to stop speaking. A similar finding was reported by Jean and Simard (2011), when in their study, teachers reportedly preferred to correct only errors that impede

communication, to avoid interrupting their students' flow of communication and not to reduce the students' confidence. Table 29 also shows that other lecturers suggested that corrective feedback should mainly focus on the activity's objective and should still remain relevant to both the student who made an error and the rest of the class. The last suggestion made by lecturers was that a lecturer can jot down the errors during the activity and then discuss them afterwards with the whole class once they are done with the activity.

On the other hand, a majority of students who advocated self-repair and peer correction, suggested that errors should be recorded by the lecturer, or other students who may pick them up, and be corrected later. One student proposed that students should tape record themselves regularly when speaking and listen to the recordings later in class so that they can correct their mistakes. This practice promotes collaborative learning because it encourages interaction between the student who erred, classmates and the lecturer when negotiating the correct version of the error. Chokwe (2011) shared the same sentiment when he explained that "feedback needs to be more dialogical and on-going, which means discussion, clarification and negotiation between students and lecturers can equip students with a better appreciation of what is expected of them in the process of writing" (p. 115). Another student suggested that students should first be given a chance to self-correct and once they get their errors rectified, they should be given a similar task to test their knowledge by checking whether they will repeat the same errors.

In addition, Table 29 includes other perceptions of students who prefer immediate correction. They argued that some errors, such as pronunciation errors, need to be corrected promptly. They affirmed that all students need to learn from one another; if one student makes an error and receives correction, it should benefit other students in class as well.

5.3 ESL lecturers' and students' perceptions, practices and preferences about written corrective feedback

According to Conti (2015), for ESL corrective feedback to be employed effectively, the following two factors have to be taken into consideration. Firstly, how effective the corrections may be in helping students restructure their assumptions about a given ESL item and, secondly, what the students do with the feedback. The present study, therefore, investigated issues regarding how ESL written corrective feedback is provided and what happens after giving such corrective feedback to students.

5.3.1 ESL Lecturers' error feedback practice

Table 30 below illustrates the lecturers' and students' responses on how much marking of errors lecturers do on ESL students' written work.

Table 30: Responses on Question C2 (lecturers' and students' questionnaires)

Statement →	*Description of lecturers' existing error feedback practice on students' written work:*						
Respondent →	Students (%)			Lecturers (%)			St. + Lec. Total (%)
F = Females; M = Male →	F	M	Total	F	M	Total	
Lecturer does not indicate errors in students' essays.	5	10	7.5	0	0	0	6.3
Lecturer indicates ALL the errors in students' essays.	80	60	70	83.3	50	75	70.8
Lecturer indicates the errors in students' essays selectively.	15	30	22.5	16.7	50	25	22.9
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table 30 above reveals that most respondents of both types (70.8% overall, 70% of students and 75% of lecturers) felt that lecturers indicate all the errors in students' essays. This finding supports Lloyd (2007) who reported that students would like to have all their errors highlighted in order for them to realise the errors and correct them. However, 22.9% of all respondents in this study felt that lecturers selectively indicate errors in students' essays. Only a small number of respondents, who are all students, felt that lecturers do not indicate errors in students' essays.

The lecturers who indicated that they mark errors selectively in students' essays were requested to highlight the major principles for error selection. They suggested that the selected errors should be related to students' specific needs. For example, if the

lecturer knows that his or her students are particularly weak in adjectives, he or she provides feedback on adjective errors. Another suggestion was that errors should be selected on an ad hoc basis. For example, the lecturer decides on what errors to provide feedback for while he or she is marking the students' work.

The question posed to lecturers in Table 31 below was intended to seek estimates of the amount of error they mark in their students' work.

Table 31: Responses on Question C10 (Lecturers' questionnaire)

How much error do you mark in your students' work?			
Respondents →	Lecturers (%)		Total (%)
	Female	Male	F+M
About 1/3	0	0	0
About 2/3	50	50	50
More than 2/3	50	50	50
Total	100	100	100

Table 31 above presents the results that half of the lecturer respondents stated that they mark about 2/3 errors in each of their students' work, while the other half claimed that they mark more than 2/3 errors. Overall, all lecturers feel they mark at least two thirds of the errors in their students work.

5.3.2 Satisfaction with the amount of comments given in essays

Table 32: Responses on Question C6 (students' questionnaire)

Are you satisfied with the overall amount of comments you receive from your lecturer on your essay?			
Respondents →	Students		Total
	Female (%)	Male (%)	F + M (%)
yes	60	35	47.5
somewhat	25	50	37.5
no	10	10	10
Not at all	5	5	5
Total	100	100	100

Table 33: Responses on Question C9 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Are you satisfied with the amount of comments you give to your students?			
Respondents →	Lecturers		Total
	Female (%)	Male (%)	F + M (%)
yes	100	50	87.5
somewhat	0	50	12.5
no	0	0	0
If not, what prevents you from giving satisfactory comments?	-	-	
Total	100	100	100

With regards to students' satisfaction with the overall amount of comments they receive from their lecturers on their essay, almost half (47.5%) felt satisfied, while 37% felt somewhat satisfied. There were, however, 10% who stated that they were not satisfied, and 5% of students who felt they are not satisfied at all. These results

concurred with Bartram and Walton's (1991) conclusion that many students expect more corrective feedback from their teachers than they usually receive.

When lecturers were asked whether they were satisfied with the amount of comments they give to their students, most (87.5%) indicated they were satisfied; only one lecturer (male) expressed being somewhat satisfied with the amount of comments given to their students but did not explain further.

5.3.3 Factors that influence the error feedback techniques used

The students' motivation to respond actively to lecturers' corrective feedback can also depend on how clear and how helpful the corrective feedback is. Hence, the lecturers in the present study were asked to highlight the factors that influence the error feedback techniques they often use. Table 34 below presents the lecturers' responses.

Table 34: Responses on Question C20 (lecturers' questionnaire)

What factors influence the error feedback techniques you often use?				
Respondents → **F = Female; M =Male →**		Lecturers F (%)	Lecturers M (%)	Total F + M (%)
When students request for a particular feedback technique.	Yes	33.3	0	25
	No	33.3	0	25
I follow my perception of students' needs.	Yes	83.3	100	87.5
	No	0	0	0
It depends on the amount of time I have.	Yes	50	0	37.5
	No	33.3	0	25
Other (please specify): N/A				

The data in Table 34 above illustrate that one factor that mostly influences ESL lecturers' choice of corrective feedback techniques is that they follow their perception of students' needs (87.5%). This option was highly supported as no lecturer responded negatively to it. A number of lecturers (37.5% overall) indicated that the corrective feedback strategy they choose is determined by the amount of time they have, although 33.3% of the female lecturers indicated that the amount of time does not influence their choice of corrective feedback strategy. The data show that only 25% of lecturers consider their students' request for a particular feedback technique (all female), while another 25% indicated explicitly that they do not take their students' request into consideration.

5.3.4 Perception about the amount of errors corrected

To further scrutinise how lecturers handle the marking of their students' written work, both students and lecturers were asked to answer the questions as displayed in Table 35 below.

Table 35: Responses on Question C13 (students' questionnaire) and Question C9 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Which of the following is true about your essay when it comes back from your lecturer?				*Which of the following is true about your essay marking style?*			
Respondents: →	Students (%)			Respondents: →	Lecturers (%)		
Statements:↓	Female	Male	Total	**Statements**:↓	Female	Male	Total
*My English lecturer underlines or circles **all** my errors.*	70	60	65	*I underline or circle **all** my students' errors.*	83	50	75
*My English lecturer underlines or circles **some** of my errors.*	30	40	35	*I underline or circle **some** of my students' errors.*	17	50	25
*My English lecturer does **not** underline or circle **any** of my errors.*	0	0	0	*I do **not** underline or circle **any** of my students' errors.*	0	0	0
Total →	100	100	100	Total →	100	100	100

The data in Table 35 above show that students and lecturers agreed that English lecturers underline and circle some or all their students' errors, as their essay marking style. A majority of students (65%) and lecturers (75%) indicated that lecturers mark all errors, while a further 35% of students and 25% of lecturers felt that lecturers mark some of the errors. This finding reveals that a majority of ESL lecturers generally mark all their students' errors and that a few may mark more selectively. This finding seems to imply that a majority of student participants in this

study appreciate receiving a lot of corrective feedback as they expressed earlier in this study (see Table 32 above) that they are satisfied with the amount of corrective feedback they receive from their lecturers.

5.3.5 Frequency of using different types of ESL corrective feedback techniques

To obtain more detailed information and find out how flexible ESL lecturers are when providing corrective feedback, lecturers were asked to indicate a variety of corrective feedback strategies that they apply when providing corrective feedback to their students. Table 36 below presents lecturers' responses on the frequency of using different types of corrective feedback strategies.

Table 36: Responses on Question C19 (lecturers' questionnaire)

How often do you use the following error feedback techniques?				
Respondents: → Lecturers F = Female; M = Male		F (%)	M (%)	F+M (%)
1. I indicate (underline/circle) errors and correct them, for example, has ate eaten.	*Never or rarely*	16.7	0	12.5
	Sometimes	16.7	0	12.5
	Often or always	33.3	50	37.5
2. I indicate (underline/circle) errors, correct them and categorise them (with the help of a marking code), for example, has ate eaten. (vf).	*Never or rarely*	50	0	37.5
	Sometimes	0	50	12.5
	Often or always	16.7	50	25
3. I indicate (underline/circle) errors, but I don't correct them, for example, has ate.	*Never or rarely*	33.3	50	37.5
	Sometimes	0	0	0
	Often or always	33.3	0	25

4. I indicate (underline/circle) errors and categorise them (with the help of a marking code), but I don't correct them, for example, has ate. (vf).	*Never or rarely*	33.3	50	37.5
	Some times	16.7	0	12.5
	Often or always	33.3	0	25
5. I provide a hint at the location of errors, for example, by putting a mark in the margin to indicate an error on a specific line.	*Never or rarely*	50	0	37.5
	Some times	16.7	50	25
	Often or always	0	0	0
6. I provide a hint at the location of errors and categorise them (with the help of a marking code), for example, by writing 'ww' in the margin to indicate a 'wrong word used' error on a specific line.	*Never or rarely*	50	0	37.5
	Some times	16.7	50	25
	Often or always	16.7	0	12.5

According to the findings displayed in Table 36 above, the most commonly practised strategy is the first one, identified by 37.5% of the lecturers, which involves a lecturer *often* or *always* underlining or circling errors and explicitly correcting them. Strategies 2, 3 and 4 were each identified by 25% of the lecturers as being strategies they would use *often or always*. With the second strategy, a lecturer indicates the error, explicitly corrects it and uses a marking code to help the student understand the type of error he or she made. The fourth strategy is similar, except that the lecturer covertly corrects the error for the student by encoding the error. The third strategy, which illustrates a lecturer who marks errors implicitly, is limited in the sense that the lecturer only indicates that an error was made but does not indicate what type of error it is and does not provide the correction. Implicit correction appears not to be popular in the present study; however, scholars such as Ferris and Roberts (2001) claim that implicit correction enables students to reflect and pay careful attention to

their errors, and simultaneously, students get actively and meaningfully involved in the process of guided learning, which results in long-term retention. Finally, 25% of the lecturers indicated that they *sometimes* provide a hint at the location of errors, for example, by putting a mark in the margin to indicate an error on a specific line, while 25% *sometimes* categorise errors with the help of a marking code.

Although there are a number of lecturers who indicated that they *sometimes* or *always* practise all the six corrective feedback strategies listed in Table 36, the findings are attention-grabbing in that a large percentage (37.5%) of lecturers indicated that they *often or always* practise Strategy 1, underlining errors and correcting them, while the same quite large percentage (37.5%) of lecturers *never or rarely* practise each of the other strategies. Overtly correcting students' errors was shown to be advantageous to students when, in their study on error feedback in L2 writing classes, Ferris and Roberts (2001) discovered that low proficiency students benefited from their teachers correcting their errors overtly. In the same vein, Ellis et al. (2006) also claimed that "explicit feedback seems more likely to promote cognitive comparison that aids learning" (p. 364). Nevertheless, based on the findings of Liu's (2008) study, both types of feedback, explicit and implicit corrective feedback, helped students self-edit their texts. Besides, Truscott and Hsu (2008) concurred with Liu's findings but asserted that while explicit corrective feedback assisted students to reduce errors in the corrected draft, it did not improve students' accuracy in a separate task. They explicated further that implicit corrective feedback was found to be rather more effective in facilitating a reduction in the students' morphological errors than semantic errors in subsequent writing.

Further scrutiny of the results of this study provides an impression that a majority of the participant lecturers are not flexible with the way they provide corrective feedback. Lecturers seem to stick to one strategy, which is providing overt correction, no matter the situation or the students' needs. These findings also raises the question of whether the lecturers might not be granting chances to students to digest and understand the errors they made, in order to self-correct. This is actually not what students prefer, according to the findings of this study, where students expressed a desire to see change in their lecturers' style of correction (see discussion under Table 28, above). Otherwise, if lecturers do not give chances and helpful cues to their students to reflect on the errors they make and enable them to self-correct, lecturers could undermine the students' ability to self-correct, therefore they (lecturers) generally only opt to provide overt correction.

5.3.6 Perceptions about the usage of correction codes for ESL and its efficiency

Questions C10, C11 and C12 in the students' questionnaire were intended to seek more information on the usage of correction codes and whether the students are acquainted with the codes that their lecturers use. Table 37 below presents the students' perceptions on the usage of correction codes in their written work.

Table 37: Responses on Question C10, C11 and C12 (students' questionnaire)

Does your lecturer use a correction code in marking your essays (i.e. using symbols like wv., agr., wt, etc., or using colours to highlight different errors)?				
Answer → **Respondents: Students ↓**	*Yes*		*No*	
Females (%) →	90		10	
Males (%) →	85		15	
Total (%): F + M →	87.5		12.5	
If yes, how much of your lecturer's marking symbols (e.g., wv., agr., wt, sp) do you understand when you are correcting errors in your essays?				
Rating → **Respondents: Students ↓**	*Most of them (76-100%)*	*Some of them (51-75%)*	*Few of them (26-50%)*	*Very little of them (0-25%)*
Females (%) →	35	35	20	0
Males (%) →	20	50	15	0
Total (%): F + M →	27.5	42.5	17.5	0
How much of your errors are you able to correct with the help of your lecturer's marking symbols?				
Rating → **Respondents: Students ↓**	*Most of them (76-100%)*	*Some of them (51-75%)*	*Few of them (26-50%)*	*Very little of them (0-25%)*
Females (%) →	40	40	5	5
Males (%) →	20	45	15	5
Total (%): F + M →	30	42.5	10	5

Table 38: Responses on Question C14and C15 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Do you use marking codes for providing error feedback on your students' writing?		
Answer → **Respondents ↓**	*Yes*	*No*
Lecturers: Females (%) →	50	50
Lecturers: Males (%) →	50	50
Total (%): F + M →	50	50
If yes, do you think your students understand the marking codes that you use and they are able to respond to your feedback easily?		

Answer →	*Yes*	*No*
Respondents ↓		
Lecturers: Females (%) →	50	0
Lecturers: Males (%) →	50	0
Total (%): F + M →	50	0
Give the reason for your answer here: Please see Appendix 3.		

Table 37 above reveals that 87.5% of students acknowledged that their lecturers use correction codes when marking their written work, while 12.5% of students indicated that their lecturers do not. Responding to the same question, 50% of lecturers indicated that they use correction codes, while the other 50% indicated that they do not make use of correction codes when marking students' written work (see Table 38 above).

When asked to indicate how much of the lecturer's marking symbols students understood when revising their marked work, 42.5% of the students indicated that they only understand *some* of the correction codes, 27.5% said they understood most of the correction codes, and 17.5% of students indicated that they understand only a *few* of the correction codes. To the contrary, all lecturers who indicated that they use correction codes had the impression that their students understood the marking codes and were able to respond easily to the feedback (see Table 38 above). The lecturers were given an explorative question to provide reasons for their answers. Lecturers felt that students understand the marking codes because they are discussed in class and lecturers explain the meaning of the various codes. One lecturer

responded that the marking codes are in the study guide and she always makes reference to them when giving feedback.

A further question was posed to find out how many of the errors students usually managed to correct with the help of the lecturer's marking symbols. The results show a large percentage (42.5%) of students indicated that they only manage to correct *some* of the errors, slightly fewer (30%) of students indicated that they could correct *most* of their errors while some (10%) could only correct a few of their errors and 5% could correct very few of their errors.

5.3.7 Types of errors to be corrected and corrective feedback strategies

Table 39 below presents the lecturers' and students' opinion and preferences about the corrective feedback strategies to be used for written errors and the types of errors to be focused on.

Table 39: Responses on Question C1 (students' questionnaire) and Question C1 (lecturers' questionnaire)
Note: Those who ticked all the top three statement are only counted for the fourth statement that includes all the top three statements.

Statement →	*In my opinion, correction in students' written work should …: (Tick all the options you prefer.)*						
Respondent →	Students (%)			Lecturers (%)			St. + Lec. Total
F = Female; M = Male →	F	M	Total	F	M	Total	
be done by the lecturer giving correct answers.	45	20	32.5	16.7	50	25	31.3
be done more by underlining errors to signal where there is an error.	30	25	27.5	33.3	50	37.5	29.2
be done more by using correction codes.	5	20	12.5	16.7	0	12.5	12.5

be applied using all the three methods above.	45	55	50	50	50	50	50
focus more on grammar rather than content.	25	25	25	0	50	12.5	22.9
focus more on content as long as the message has been conveyed.	15	10	12.5	0	50	12.5	12.5
rather not be done; it discourages students.	5	0	2.5	0	0	0	2.1

According to the findings presented in Table 39, both students and lecturers were in favour of corrective feedback, despite the claims of some researchers that correction discourages and frustrates students. Regarding the style of providing ESL corrective feedback, both students and lecturers provided similar responses. Half of the students and lecturers preferred that a variety of corrective feedback strategies be applied when correcting errors in written work, such as, the lecturer giving correct answers either by underlining errors to signal where there is an error or by using correction codes. This result supports Ferris' (2006) assertion that teachers should have a variety of corrective feedback strategies for treatable or untreatable errors.

There is however a discrepancy in choices in that a reasonably large percentage (32.5%) of students preferred to receive direct feedback from their lecturers, whereas, a slightly larger percentage of lecturers (37.5%) preferred to underline errors to signal where there is an error. The usage of correction codes was the least favoured corrective feedback strategy (12.5%) for both students and lecturers. A number of scholars (Ferris, 2006; Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005) advocate that direct feedback benefits students in terms of accuracy, whereas

Ferris (2006) indicates that indirect feedback equips students with long-term improvement that enables them to self-correct because they have a greater opportunity to ponder their errors. The sample of lecturers in this study may also be influenced by the same thought that lecturers would like to allow students to pay attention to their errors and correct them.

Regarding the type of errors to be corrected, some (25%) preferred corrective feedback to focus on grammar rather than content; while relatively fewer (12.5%) felt that corrective feedback should focus more on content as long as the message has been conveyed. No female lecturer responded to the choice of error types for this statement. However, an equal distribution (50%) of male lecturers was recorded for focusing on grammar rather than content as against focusing on content as long as the message has been conveyed. These findings, especially the low response rate (2.5%) of students who would prefer written corrective feedback not to be done, counter the results of Dowden et al. (2013), who report that students sometimes find corrective feedback in grammar irritating. In conclusion, ESL lecturers and teachers seem to focus more of their corrective feedback on grammar than on content, maybe in response to students' demand for grammar correction. In the same vein, tackling grammatical errors may well be critical in an ESL context but it should not be done at the cost of content.

5.3.8 Preferences about language features to be corrected

In recent times, there has been a shift in attitude towards errors in English language classrooms. Errors are tolerated more today as part of a communicative approach and

as Littlewood (1994) describes them, errors are regarded as a “completely normal phenomenon in the development of communicative skills” (p. 94). Hence, in a communicative approach not all errors are dealt with simultaneously, thus there is a choice to correct a certain error in a certain context at a certain time. As a result, the communicative approach idea instills confidence into students and they are encouraged to have a different perception towards errors compared to the traditional way of looking at them. With this approach to language teaching and learning, students are more motivated to communicate freely, knowing that the aim of communication in this manner is not perfection, but comprehensibility. Both students and lecturers, therefore, have preferences on what errors are to be corrected and how they should be corrected.

The respondents were requested to rate the preferred frequency of feedback to be given on a Likert scale, with an indication of *always*, *occasionally*, *rarely* and *never*. The rating descriptions were defined with percentages 100%, 50%, 30%, and 0% that illustrated the values of categories. Table 40 below displays lecturers’ and students’ preferences about the language feature they think should receive most attention.

Table 40: Responses on Question C5 (students' questionnaire) and Question C7 (lecturers' questionnaire)

In your opinion, which feature should receive attention and how often should it be corrected?								
Respondents →	**Students Females + Males (%)**				**Lecturers Females + Males (%)**			
	always 100%	*occasionally 50%*	*rarely 30%*	*never 0%*	*always 100%*	*occasionally 50%*	*rarely 30%*	*never 0%*
organisation	37.5	47.5	2.5	0	75	12.5	0	0
content or ideas	50	35	0	0	62.5	25	0	0
grammar	87.5	7.5	0	2.5	100	0	0	0
vocabulary	50	22.5	15	0	75	25	0	0
mechanics (punctuation and spelling)	62.5	20	7.5	2.5	87.5	12.5	0	0

According to Table 40, the option attracting the highest percentages of students (87.5%) and lecturers (100%) identified grammar as requiring the most corrective feedback. Mechanics, which represents punctuation and spelling, was the second most preferred choice for corrective feedback among students (62.5%) and lecturers (87.5%). Students next chose vocabulary (50%) and content or ideas (50%) while lecturers highlighted vocabulary and organisation (both 75%) followed by content or ideas (62.5%). However, students did not particularly value the importance of giving corrective feedback to organisation, as 47.5 % of students felt that it should only be corrected occasionally.

5.3.9 Perceptions about specific language features corrected

Students and lecturers were asked to indicate how much corrective feedback is usually given to students on their written work, focusing on the language features listed in Table 41 below. As in the previous question, the respondents were asked to estimate the total amount of feedback given on students' written work and rank the amount of feedback provided on a Likert scale with an indication of *a lot*, *a little*, *some* and *none*. The rating descriptions were defined with percentages 100%, 50%, 30%, and 0% that clarified the values of categories.

Table 41: A summary of responses on Question C4 (students' questionnaire) and Question C6 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Statement →	*The comments given to students on their written work focusing on the following features, are rated as follow (tick a box for each feature):*							
Respondent →	**Students (%)**				**Lecturers (%)**			
Rating →	*a lot 100%*	*a little 50%*	*some 30%*	*none 0%*	*a lot 100%*	*a little 50%*	*some 30%*	*none 0%*
organisation	37.5	20	25	17.5	62.5	25	12.5	0
content or ideas	50	27.5	15	7.5	75	12.5	12.5	0
grammar	82.5	7.5	10	0	100	0	0	0
vocabulary	42.5	35	17.5	5	75	25	0	0
mechanics (punctuation and spelling)	67.5	17.5	12.5	2.5	75	12.5	12.5	0

Table 41 above reveals that almost all students (82.5%) and lecturers (100%) are of the same perception that grammar errors receive the most corrective feedback from lecturers. This finding is consistent with other studies (Farrell & Lim, 2005; Ng &

Farrell, 2003; Schulz, 2001) which showed that both teachers and students prefer grammatical errors to be corrected by teachers. Lecturers highlighted mechanics, content or ideas and vocabulary after grammar (all 75%), while students rated them 67.5%, 50% and 42.5% respectively. The language feature that was indicated to receive the lowest corrective feedback is organisation (students 37.5% and lecturers 62.5%). On the whole, the findings in Table 41 reveal that students felt that they receive less feedback for all categories than their lecturers thought they do. These findings could also be interpreted as showing that students expect more feedback than they actually receive.

5.3.10 Preferences about agent of correction and error types to be corrected

Students and lecturers were requested to indicate the type of errors they feel should be corrected and who should correct them. Tables 42 and 43 below present students' and lecturers' responses.

Table 42: Responses on Question C8 (students' questionnaire)

In my opinion, the following errors should be corrected. (Indicate who should correct each error type you select, for example, L = lecturer or S = self.):								
Respondents →	Students Females (%)			Students Males (%)			Total F+M (%)	
L = lecturer; S = self →	L	S		L	S		L	S
wrong tense used	85	15		55	40		70	27.5
wrong verb form	70	30		60	35		65	32.5
wrong word used	30	70		55	40		42.5	55

wrong word order	30	70		65	25		47.5	47.5
concord (subject-verb-agreement)	80	20		55	40		67.5	30
spelling	70	30		35	60		30	45
wrong or irrelevant answer	70	30		65	30		67.5	30
style and register (acceptability in the given situation)	55	35		80	15		67.5	25
TOTAL	61.3	37.5		58.8	35.6		60	36.6

Table 43: Responses on Question C12 (lecturers' questionnaire)

In my opinion, only the following errors should be corrected: (Tick the boxes of your choice.)			
Respondents →	Lecturers Female (%)	Lecturers Male (%)	Total F+M (%)
wrong tense used	83.3	50	75
wrong verb form	83.3	50	75
wrong word used	83.3	50	75
wrong word order	83.3	100	87.5
concord (subject-verb-agreement)	66.7	100	75
spelling	83.3	50	75
wrong or irrelevant answer	50	100	62.5
style and register (acceptability in the given situation)	33.3	100	50
Are there any other error types that you think should be corrected? *See Appendix 3.*			

According to Table 42, 70% of students identified *wrong tenses used* as the crucial error that needs to be corrected by lecturers. Table 43 illustrates that while a large proportion of lecturers (75%) also felt that *wrong tenses used* was important, even more (87.5%) considered *wrong word order* to be the error that should be paid the

most attention. A high percentage (67.5%) of students considered *concord, wrong or irrelevant answer,* and *style and register* to be further crucial types of surface errors that their lecturers should correct. Most (75%) of the lecturers also gave priority to correcting *wrong verb form, wrong word used, concord* and *spelling.* Students did not place so much importance (47.5%) on correcting *wrong word order* as lecturers did, many feeling that the students themselves should take care of *wrong word order* types of error and correct them. The data in Table 42 show that students did not take *spelling* and *wrong word used* so seriously with 45% and 55% respectively indicating that surface errors should be corrected. Students also seemed to have enough confidence to self-correct. These data were surprising because spelling errors and the usage of wrong words are common surface errors that are found in students' written work and which seriously affect the meaning and message being conveyed.

Another contradiction that can be viewed in these data is that the lecturers did not put high value on the correction of *wrong or irrelevant answer* and *style and register,* while students considered these two types of errors to be among the most important errors that need correction. Furthermore, students showed little confidence in their ability to self-correct (*wrong or irrelevant answer* 30% and *style and register* 25%) these surface errors. In response to the last question, whether respondents thought of any other error types that they felt should be corrected, some female lecturers added some parts of speech such as preposition errors and singular and plural form errors. Another female lecturer stated that she believes all errors need to be corrected because students need to know and understand all language aspects.

In short, the data in Tables 42 and 43 above clearly highlight that students want to rely heavily on their lecturers to correct their errors rather than doing it themselves; while lecturers feel they should correct key surface errors but in most cases leave students to self-correct. Students' preference for lecturers to provide corrective feedback might have been influenced by the reality of the ESL context in Namibia that students lack enough proficiency and confidence in handling English language forms and usage. In order for students to be able to have confidence in themselves, they need first to develop sufficient linguistic competence and have enough exposure to correct language usage to comprehend the nature of the errors they make and work out the correct form.

5.3.11 Perceptions about types of surface errors corrected

Tables 44 and 45 below display the distribution of students and lecturer respondents' views on lecturers' frequency of error types corrected. The respondents provided their responses by rating the error types ranging from 1 for the most frequently corrected error type to 7 for the least frequently corrected one. In this regard, scales 1, 2 and 3 were considered most frequently corrected, 4 and 5 moderate, and 6, 7 and 8 least frequently corrected.

Table 44: Responses on Question C7 (students' questionnaire)

Statement →	*When my lecturer corrects my written work, he or she typically focuses on …*							
Respondent →	Students (%)							
Rating →	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**
wrong tense used	40	25	12.5	10	10	0	0	2.5
wrong verb form	2.5	17.5	27.5	15	17.5	15	2.5	2.5
wrong word used	5	7.5	12.5	22.5	17.5	15	12.5	7.5
wrong word order	2.5	2.5	7.5	12.5	17.5	32.5	17.5	12.5
concord (subject-verb-agreement)	12.5	17.5	22.5	12.5	10	7.5	12.5	5
spelling	35	17.5	12.5	10	15	2.2	0	7.5
wrong or irrelevant answer	7.5	7.5	2.5	15	7.5	20	32.5	7.5
style and register (acceptability in the given situation)	0	2.5	2.5	0	5	10	25	55

Table 45: Responses on Question C11 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Statement →	*When I correct students' written work, I typically focus on …*							
Respondent →	Lecturers (%)							
Rating →	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**
wrong tense used	12.5	25	12.5	50	0	0	0	0
wrong verb form	12.5	0	50	12.5	12.5	12.5	0	0
wrong word used	0	25	0	12.5	12.5	37.5	12.5	0
wrong word order	12.5	0	0	0	12.5	25	25	25
concord (subject-verb-agreement)	25	25	25	0	25	0	0	0
spelling	0	12.5	12.5	12.5	25	12.5	12.5	12.5
wrong or irrelevant answer	12.5	0	0	12.5	12.5	0	25	12.5
style and register (acceptability in the given situation)	0	12.5	0	0	0	12.5	25	50

According to Table 44, 40% of students indicated that *wrong tenses used* is the most corrected surface error type followed by *spelling* (35%). Table 45 however presents a totally different scenario about the same error types. Lecturers did not think they pay so much attention to *wrong tenses used* and *spelling* as students thought, rating them both as moderate frequently corrected (50% and 25% respectively). The highest percentage (50%) of lecturers indicated that they focus most on *wrong verb form*.

The overall picture that is portrayed by Tables 44 and 45 is that students perceive *wrong tense used, wrong verb form, concord and spelling* to be the most frequently corrected surface errors; followed by *wrong word used* as moderate frequently corrected errors; and then they (students) think least frequently corrected error types are *wrong word order, wrong or irrelevant answer* and *style and register.* Whereas lecturers believe that they provide most corrective feedback to *wrong verb form* and *concord*; and *wrong tense used, concord* and *spelling* receive moderate correction; while *wrong word used*, *wrong word order*, *wrong or irrelevant answer* and *style and register* are regarded as type of errors that receive the least corrective feedback.

On the whole, these findings seem to suggest that when asked about the frequency of corrective feedback provided by the lecturers on these surface error types, both lecturers and students generally agreed on the practice. However, the researcher in this study is of the opinion that *wrong tense used* and *spelling errors* are still very crucial language aspects that need the highest attention as indicated by student respondents, a view supported by several ESL studies (Mojica, 2010; Ransom,

Larcombe & Baik, 2005; Lafaye & Tsuda, 2002), although lecturers seemed to see them as less important.

5.4 Implications for pedagogy in ESL writing classrooms

In order to dig deeper and find out more about the implications for pedagogy in the ESL writing class, both lecturer and student participants were asked to indicate the statements that best represents their opinions about correction in ESL writing. They were requested to rate their choices using the Likert scale with indications of *highly agreed*, *partially agreed*, *not sure*, *partially disagreed* and *highly disagreed*. The statements referred to various aspects such as *type of errors to be corrected*, *feedback type to be provided*, *style of providing feedback*, *who should provide feedback*, *efficacy of feedback* and *follow up on corrective feedback*. Table 46 below displays the lecturers' and students' choices.

Table 46: Responses on Question C17 (students' questionnaire) and Question C23 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Please read the statements below and tick the option that best represents your opinion about correction in ESL writing.						
	Respondents: S = Students L = Lecturers	**Highly Agree (%)**	**Partially Agree (%)**	**Not sure (%)**	**Partially Disagree (%)**	**Highly Disagree (%)**
1	Providing explicit corrective feedback in ESL writing is useful because students can improve their writing by noticing the corrections that the lecturer provided. (*Type of feedback)*	82.5(S) 50(L)				

2	Lecturer's feedback on ESL writing makes students better writers. *(Efficacy of feedback)*	80(S)	62.5(L)			
3	Comments with corrections are best. (*Type of feedback)*	62.5(S) 50(L)				
4	Comments are too much; the correct form is enough. (*Type of feedback)*		47.5(S) 25(L)			25(L)
5	The lecturer should show where the error is and give a clue about how to correct it. (*Type of feedback)*	62.5(S) 50(L)				
6	It is the lecturer's duty to correct all errors. *(Agent of correction)*		37.5(S)			37.5(L)
7	My lecturer should use a red-pen when marking. *(Style of feedback)*	77.5(S)			25(L)	25(L)
8	Comments are useful for motivation, but not for grammar correction. (*Type of feedback)*					35(S) 50(L)
9	Correction with comments is impolite and rude. (*Type of feedback)*					57.5(S) 62.5(L)
10	Grammar is the most important to correct compared to spelling and punctuation. (*Type of error)*					37.5(S) 50(L)
11	Lecturers should not correct every single grammatical error in ESL writing; however, they should provide feedback on repetitive grammar errors. (*Type of error)*		35(S) 37.5(L)			35(S)
12	Time spent on grammar correction should be devoted to overall sentence organisation and logical development of arguments skills. (*Type of error)*	25(L)	32.5(S) 25(L)	32.5(S) 25(L)		
13	Lecturers must make a follow up on the feedback they give on students' work. *(Follow up)*	55(S) 37.5(L)				
14	Students must revise their work on their own paying attention to the feedback provided. *(Follow up)*	65(S) 37.5(L)	37.5(L)			

15	Error identification is not useful. Correction is best. (*Type of feedback)*					47.5(S) 37.5(L)
16	Both error identification and correction are useful. (*Type of feedback)*	65(S) 62.5(L)				
17	Comments are useful for fluency, but not accuracy. (*Type of feedback)*		37.5(S)	25(L)		
18	The lecturer should always tell students the reasons for the errors. *(Style of feedback)*	57.5(S) 25(L)	25(L)	25(L)		
19	Lecturer should only mark errors that impede communication, and make general comments at the end. (*Type of error)*		30(S)	30(S)		37.5(L)
20	Lecturers' feedback must be brief and to the point. *(Style of feedback)*	52.5(S) 37.5(L)				
21	Lecturers should give detailed comments; the length does not matter. (*Type of feedback)*	37.5(S)			25(L)	
22	Lecturers should use correction codes rather than writing long comments. (*Type of feedback)*	25(L)	30(S)		25(L)	

A follow up question asked respondents to choose the three most appealing statements in their opinions and explain why they agree or disagree with them. In this regard, the findings in Table 46 above were discussed according to the categories of the statements in the following order: *a) type of errors to be corrected*, *b) feedback type to be provided*, *c) agent of corrective feedback*, *d) style of providing feedback*, *e) efficacy of feedback* and *f) follow up on corrective feedback*.

5.4.1 Type of errors to be corrected

When it comes to types of errors to be corrected, significant proportions highly disagreed (37.5% students and 50% lecturers) with the statement that *grammar is the most important to correct compared to spelling and punctuation*. Seven out of nine students who commented on this statement disagreed with the statement, indicating that it makes no sense for one to know all the grammar while there are a lot of spelling and punctuation errors in their expressions. They further explained that English is a skill and all parts of English are important. They emphasised that grammar, spelling and punctuation are all important; so, correct grammar but wrong punctuation and spelling is meaningless. In agreement with these findings, 35% of students highly disagreed with the statement that *lecturers should not correct every single grammatical error in ESL writing; however, they should provide feedback on repetitive grammar errors*. However, 35% of students and 37.5% of lecturers partially agreed with the statement where one female lecturer stated that she does not agree fully because no matter how much feedback a lecturer provides, if students are not interested and are not trying hard to improve, they will not become better writers. In addition, another female lecturer explained that if lecturers indicate too many errors, students might get discouraged. She further suggested that lecturers should rather try to correct general and repetitive errors, taking it one step at a time.

A quarter (25%) of lecturers highly agreed with the statement *time spent on grammar correction should be devoted to overall sentence organisation and logical development of arguments skills*, while a further 25% of lecturers and 32.5% of students partially agreed with the statement. There was, however, another group of

lecturers (25%) who were not sure whether to agree or not to agree with statement 12. According to Chokwe (2011), students show weakness in their writing tasks especially in areas such as grammar, structure, and argumentation skills. Chokwe further explained that students lack rudimentary writing skills that appear to have an effect on their academic writing. Table 46 displays lecturers' uncertainty about the correction style that they should adapt, their choices being distributed evenly between *highly agreed*, *partially agreed* and *not sure*. A similar spread of lecturer's choices for Statement 18 illustrates how diverse perceptions are for *the lecturer should always tell students the reasons for the errors*. These findings, therefore, may be interpreted as suggesting that lecturers are not necessarily sure whether they should devote the time they spend on correcting grammar to overall sentence organisation and logical development of arguments skills. One female lecturer who partially agreed with the statement suggested that lecturers should focus on both content and grammar, and that they should guide students in argument formation.

Regarding the suggestion that *lecturer should only mark errors that impede communication, and make general comments at the end*, 30% of students partially agreed with the statement whereas another 30% of students were not sure about it. On the other hand, 37.5% lecturers totally disagreed with the statement. This finding resonates with Kavaliauskienė and Anusienė (2012) when, in their study, found that a majority of students indicated that teachers should correct all errors and not only the ones that impede communication. Saito (1994) also reported that ESL students were appreciative of corrective feedback focused on grammatical errors. One female lecturer justified her disagreement by stating: "When these students join the job

market, every single error they make while working counts. Who wants a report full of grammar errors even though the message could be clear to the readers?" Overall, these findings reveal that both types of respondents agreed to some extent that all errors need to be corrected, including grammar errors.

5.4.2 Type of corrective feedback to be provided

When it comes to the type of feedback to be provided, both students (82.5%) and lecturers (50%) agreed with the statement that *providing explicit corrective feedback in ESL writing is useful because students can improve their writing by noticing the corrections that the lecturer provided*. Six students who highly agreed with this statement elaborated and explained that explicit corrective feedback is good and gives more knowledge and understanding to students, and motivates them to correct their errors. They further emphasised that students can enhance their writing skills by noticing the corrections that the lecturer provided, and helping them to become experts in future. In her study, Weaver (2006) also found that constructive feedback encourages students to scrutinise their errors and improve language usage. Weaver therefore recommended that tutors provide appropriate guidance and motivation in their corrective feedback.

In addition, students in this study stated that sometimes they repeat the same errors if not corrected, therefore explicit corrective feedback from their lecturer helps them improve, know what is wrong and what is correct. The

same sentiment was expressed by Brammer and Rees (2007) who reported: "We frequently hear students complain bitterly that peer review is a waste of time or blame their peers for ‘not catching all the mistakes’ and students do not stay on task during the peer review process” (p. 71). One lecturer also emphasised that providing explicit corrective feedback helps students to rectify a wide range of errors they could have made.

The next statement that was highly agreed with (62.5% students and 50% lecturers) is that *the lecturer should show where the error is and give a clue about how to correct it.* Two female lecturers stated that it is important to tell students where the error is and how to correct it, otherwise they will not know how to correct it and they will then repeat the same error in future. The lecturers believed that students can improve if they make corrections themselves rather than someone else correcting their errors. Some students also elaborated on this statement and clarified that showing where the error is, and giving a clue about how to correct it, helps students to do the work by themselves and enables them to know better for the future, without forgetting the correction. One female student who highly agreed stated that “Sometimes we, students, do not see our mistakes. It is better for the lecturer to tell me or point out that error”. Students highly agreed that this strategy is helpful for them not to repeat the same mistake.

Another type of feedback that both respondents (62.5% students and 50% lecturers) agreed with is that *comments with corrections are best*. Thirteen students gave their motivation in support of this statement, indicating that some students will not

understand if the correction is provided without a comment explaining why the error is an error, because comments can tell and show the students what they are supposed to do and how. Students felt that comments with corrections can enhance their learning and enable them to practise on their own, even at home. They further explained that comments motivate and encourage students to study harder, go through both the comments and the corrections attentively and that helps them to know exactly how to prevent the same errors in future tasks. One student emphasised that when receiving corrections with comments "I will know how to spell or write my essays without repeating the same mistakes." Therefore, they strongly recommend that lecturers should always give corrections in students' essays that make them aware of where they have gone wrong and why. In support of the provision of corrections with comments, 25% of lecturers highly disagreed with the point that *comments are too much; the correct form is enough*.

A significant number of students (37.5%) highly agreed with the statement that *lecturers should give detailed comments; the length does not matter*, while 25% of lecturers were not sure about it. One male student who highly agreed with this statement explained that what matters here is improvement, not the length of comments. However, one female lecturer highly disagreed with the statement and indicated that the reason students do not master the content can be because they do not like reading. Thus, if a lecturer provides a page long feedback, a student may get discouraged by the length of time it takes to read the comments.

Notwithstanding these overwhelmingly supportive expressions towards provision of correction with comments, there were still significant numbers of students (47.5%) and lecturers (25%) who partially agreed with the statement that says *comments are too much; the correct form is enough*. However, none of them provided extra support for their opinion. Regarding the statement that says *comments are useful for fluency, but not accuracy,* 37.5% of students partially agreed while 25% of lecturers were not sure. Next, large percentages of students (35%) and lecturers (50%) highly disagreed with the statement that *comments are useful for motivation, but not for grammar correction*. One female lecturer highly disagreed with the statement and claimed that comments are crucial to motivate and teach. Further, a male student partially agreed with the statement and stated that comments will motivate students to work hard on errors they have made.

Both respondents highly disagreed (57.5% of students and 62.5% of lecturers) with the statement that *correction with comments is impolite and rude*. Some students highly disagreed with this statement and explained that if someone is correcting you, he or she is actually teaching you and indicating to you the right and the wrong. They explained further that comments should motivate students and help them learn from their mistakes. The students further claimed that comments are needed to provide more details on the error, because this prevents them from repeating the same errors. They affirmed that correcting with comments is the professional approach that helps students to understand concepts and encourages them to think about their errors. In the same vein, one male lecturer totally disagreed with the statement and asserted that corrections are how students should learn.

Regarding the statement that says *lecturers should use correction codes rather than writing long comments*, 30% of students highly agreed with the statement, while 25% of lecturers partially agreed and 25% partially disagreed with the statement. One of the female lecturers who highly agreed advised that lecturers should use correction codes rather than writing long comments in order to motivate students to examine the errors they have made and pay attention to the codes used. In addition, another female lecturer who partially agreed with the statement clarified that they simply do not have the time to write long comments. If students were taught how to interpret the various codes, they would understand the error and try to correct it on their own. One male student was not sure of the statement, so he rather decided to disagree because he felt he understands comments better than correction codes. Two other students partially disagreed with the use of correction codes because they were worried that students may not be able to interpret them.

The last type of feedback that was highly supported by both respondents (65% students and 62.5% lecturers) is that *both error identification and correction are useful*. Three female students highly agreed with this statement and explained that people learn from their mistakes; so, if a lecturer only indicates an error and does not correct the students, they will not know what to do. One of these students further claimed that identifying an error gives a student a chance to master and correct that error and avoid it in the future. Another female student who partially agreed with the statement also felt that a student will never repeat the mistakes because he or she will then know the right from the wrong. Such students seemed to believe in spoon-

feeding and that they would remember the correct answer better once they got it from their lecturer, rather than having to work it out themselves and self-correct. This belief runs counter to the idea of learner autonomy and the popular saying that goes: “Tell me, I forget; show me, I remember; involve me, I learn”.

The last statement about type of corrective feedback to be provided states that *error identification is not useful; correction is best*. Significant numbers of students (47.5%) and lecturers (37.5%) highly disagreed with this. One female student and another male student who highly disagreed with this statement laid out an argument that it does not help if a lecturer only gives comments or corrects an error without giving a clear identification of what error it is, because many types of errors occur in students’ work which need to be clearly identified or explained and then corrected. Saito (1994) also claims that feedback that contains clues or talkback is more effective and guides students better when reflecting on their corrected errors. Another motivation that lecturers should explain and correct errors was that lecturers would know the correct answer better than students; students might not be sure of why something is considered an error, and this might be a problem for many students.

5.4.3 Agent of corrective feedback

When the respondents were requested to indicate the agent of corrective feedback, 37.5% of students partially agreed with the statement *it is the lecturer’s duty to correct all errors*, while the same percentage (37.5%) of lecturers totally disagreed

with the statement. This corroborates with Saito's (1994) study in which ESL students thought it was the teachers' responsibility to correct the problematic aspects of English language. However, the finding of the present study demonstrates a slight gap between the perceptions of students and what Park (2010) reported that "students most highly valued their teachers' error correction, and they valued their own error correction over peer correction" (p. 58). Unlike students in Park's and Saito's studies, students in this study only partly agreed with the statement that *it is the lecturer's duty to correct all errors*. Students might feel incompetent to correct their own errors and uncomfortable to correct other students' errors due to their low level of language proficiency.

Some students in this study opted to clarify their point of view regarding the statement – *It is the lecturer's duty to correct all errors*. One male student highly agreed and argued that a lecturer should correct all errors because he or she has the marking guide and answers; adding that, lecturers are there to teach students what is right and what is wrong. To the contrary, four female students explained why they partially disagreed with the statement by saying that even though they feel that lecturers should correct the errors. They also believe that correction should be done by both students and lecturers. They further explained that it is better for students also to be involved in correction, otherwise students will be lazy if they have to wait for everything to be done by the lecturers. One student contended that "even if the lecturer corrects the errors, and you do not know where you went wrong and what really caused the error, you will not be encouraged to go an extra mile as you are being spoon-fed". Sato and Lyster (2007) indicated that students felt, while working with their peers, they have

time to decide what to say and feel that is a better chance for them to test their linguistic hypotheses through practising their knew knowledge. Students in this study further claimed that the lecturer is just there to guide the students, but not to do everything for them; so, students should work out some of the answers themselves. Two students totally disagreed with the statement saying that if lecturers are only correcting students' errors rather than actually teaching them the correct way, students will not understand as much and are less likely to actively participate in their learning.

5.4.4 Strategies of providing feedback

It is common practice that lecturers use red pens when marking students' work. Participants in this study were asked to express their preferences about the colour of pen their lecturer should use when marking their work. A majority of 77.5% of students highly agreed with the statement *my lecturer should use a red pen when marking*. Four female students who highly agreed felt that using a red pen made it easy to make a clear distinction between their own work and where the lecturer marked. A red pen makes it easy for the student to identify the error; students can then use any pen except red when writing. Students further clarified that using a red pen is also a clear indication that the activity was checked by the lecturer. One male student partially disagreed with the statement and contented that the colour of the pen used for marking does not matter, as long as it is visible and legible. Lecturers in general also had a similar opinion as the latter, as 25% of lecturers partially disagreed plus a further 25% of lecturers highly disagreed with the statement. Their argument

was that what matters is the fact that the student's work is marked, not the colour of the pen.

Both respondents also generally agreed with the statement that *the lecturer should always tell students the reasons for the errors*. A large proportion of students (57.5%) and some lecturers (25%) highly agreed, plus a further 25% of lecturers partially agreed with the statement and 25% were not sure. Three female students who highly agreed believed that a student can never make the same error if he or she is told the reason why the error is an error, because he or she understands more about it. They further claimed that if students are not told the reasons of their errors, they will end up repeating them. A female lecturer also highly agreed and affirmed that students improve when they understand their errors, because they find it easier to correct them if they understand. Another male student who partially agreed with the statement stated that it is very important for the lecturer to correct students' work and show them where they have gone wrong because that will help them to understand the concept better.

Respondents were also asked to give their opinion on the statement, *lecturers' feedback must be brief and to the point*. A large proportion of students (52.5%) and lecturers (37.5%) highly agreed with the statement. Students stated that brief feedback will help students with understanding, whereas lengthy feedback might end up confusing them. They further mentioned that sometimes lecturers give general comments instead of mentioning the specific error made by the student. They clarified that long comments sometimes do not make sense and students may not be

able to pay attention to them or be too lazy to try. Price, Handley, Millar and O'Donovan (2010) also reported on students' complaints with regards to corrective feedback written in illegible hand writing or which is ambiguous. Dowden et al. (2013) found that students considered the corrective feedback they receive as inadequate in comparison to the fees they pay for their studies at tertiary level. Ultimately, student participants in this study concluded that it is a waste of time writing unnecessary things that students do not need.

5.4.5 Efficacy of corrective feedback in ESL

In order to find out the respondents' perceptions on the impact of corrective feedback, both lecturer and student participants were asked to indicate whether or not the *lecturer's feedback on ESL writing makes students better writers*. A majority of both respondents agreed with the statement, as 80% of students highly agreed and 62.5% lecturers partially agreed. One male student commented that whenever feedback is provided, it causes some students to focus on their errors to avoid repetition. Six female students indicated that they prefer receiving lecturers' corrective feedback because it gives them a chance to improve their spelling and enhance the standard of their English language. They also said that they believe in their lecturers, and if a lecturer corrects them, they are convinced that what she or he tells them is true. Finally, one female student who partially agreed with the statement clarified that if students are given feedback, they realise their mistakes and learn from them; that is what eventually enables them to use the language appropriately.

5.4.6 Follow up on corrective feedback

When it comes to follow up on corrective feedback, respondents were asked to indicate what happens after receiving their marked essays. A good number of students (55%) and lecturers (37.5%) highly agreed with the statement that *lecturers must make a follow up on the feedback they give on students' work*. One female lecturer highlighted that the main purpose of giving feedback is to teach the students something; therefore, the lecturer needs to follow up to know whether students mastered that concept. One male student, who highly supported this statement, also affirmed that it helps the student to understand much better when the lecturer follows up on the comments he or she provided on the students' work, than when no follow up is done. Two further students who partially agreed with the statement emphasised that it is very important for a lecturer to discuss the corrected work with students in class, to clarify and explain the errors, in order to prevent the reoccurrence of the errors.

There were also other respondents who believed that *students must revise their work on their own paying attention to the feedback provided*. A large proportion of students (65%) and lecturers (37.5%) highly agreed with this statement, while another 37.5% of lecturers partially agreed. Seven students who highly agreed explained their choice in detail and strongly felt that it is vitally important that students revise their marked work on their own because it gives them practice and makes it easy for them to understand and realise their mistakes. These students believed that working on their correction themselves is one of the best ways they, as students, can learn and avoid making the same errors next time. They emphasised

that working on corrections on their own, instead of just depending on the lecturers, will help them not only to understand the concepts better but also not to forget what they learn. The two female lecturers who also highly favoured this statement recommend that students should always revise their written work and concentrate on the corrective feedback given to them, this being, they said, the only way to become better writers. They concluded that by doing so, students can take responsibility for their own learning.

5.4.7 Practice after providing corrective feedback

Apart from the fact that corrective feedback is provided with the intention to rectify an error, it is crucial to ensure that the correction made is reinforced for it to be effective and be retained for permanent correct usage in the future. Conti (2015) claims that "the rate of human forgetting is such that after one week only 80% of whatever the students learn from the corrections would be lost without reinforcement. Thus, without some form of instructional follow-up, the impact of correction is likely to be minimal." (p. 6). Therefore, the issue of following-up in the process of corrective feedback should be regarded as one of the important aspects that should be done systematically and consciously in order to ensure the effectiveness of corrective feedback.

To find out whether, or not, ESL students really pay attention to the corrective feedback they receive from their lecturers, lecturer and student respondents were asked to answer the questions in Table 47 (students) and Table 48 (lecturers) below.

Table 47: Responses on Question C14 (students' questionnaire)

How often do you pay attention and respond to your lecturer's comments when you receive your marked work?			
Respondents → Students **F = Female; M = Male →**	F (%)	M (%)	Total (%) F + M
All the time I receive my work from my lecturer.	30	50	40
Only some time when I have nothing else to do.	45	40	42.5
I do not pay much attention to my work after they are marked.	25	10	17.5
I do not see the importance of revising my work if they are marked already.	0	0	0
Total	100	100	100

Table 48: Responses on Question C8 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Do you think your students revise their written work and pay attention to your comments after you marked their work?			
Respondents → **F = Female; M = Male →**	Lecturers F (%)	Lecturers M (%)	Total F + M (%)
Yes	50	100	62.5
No	50	0	37.5
I do not know.	0	0	0
Total	100	100	100
Other answers if any: Please see Appendix 3.			

The data in Table 47 above show that the highest percentage (42.5%) of student respondents acknowledged that it is not always that they pay attention and respond to their lecturer's comments when they receive their marked work, only doing it when

they have nothing else to do. However 40% of student respondents indicated that they always pay attention and respond to their lecturer's comments when they receive their marked work. These findings also highlight that male students seem to be more serious with revision of their marked work than their female counterparts. However, these findings show that students in general realise the importance of revising their marked work. Similarly, 62.5% of lecturers (see Table 48 above) are also of the opinion that students revise their written work and pay attention to their corrective feedback.

One female lecturer respondent confirmed that students do revise their work because she usually requests her students to rewrite their work with corrections. However, a number of lecturers (37.5%) were not convinced that their students revise their marked work when they receive it back from lecturers with comments. Although these lecturers form a minority group of respondents, they presumably have a valid claim based on tangible reasons, including their experiences and observations in classroom situations. This can be linked to a general opinion that a majority of students (see Table 51, below) repeat the same errors that were corrected in their previous work, when they are given new writing tasks. This claim can actually be confirmed by the finding displayed in Table 47 above, when many students revealed that they only follow up on their lecturers' feedback when they have nothing else to do. As an ESL lecturer herself, the researcher in this study can also affirm this attitude from students in her classes when they sometimes grant first priority to working on other subjects than their English language course. The justification students sometimes give for their discriminatory action against English courses is

that, apparently "English is not to be studied", meaning there is no content to study about English. It is actually not surprising to get such a justification from students because even some lecturers or teachers who teach other subjects than English language share the same sentiment.

Furthermore, to find out how serious students take corrective feedback they receive from their ESL lecturers, students were requested to indicate, in terms of percentage, how much of each essay they read over again when the lecturers return their work to them. Table 49 below displays data that illustrate how much students read over their marked work again and how much of it they think about carefully and follow the guidance to make corrections accordingly.

Table 49: Responses on Question C3 (students' questionnaire)

How much of each essay do you read over again when your lecturer returns it to you?			
Respondents ↓	*most of it*	*some of it*	*none of it*
Females (%) →	40	55	5
Males (%) →	30	60	10
Total Females + Males (%) →	35	57.5	7.5
How much of your lecturer's comments and corrections do you think about carefully and make correction accordingly?			
Respondents ↓	*most of them*	*some of them*	*none of them*
Females (%) →	55	40	5
Males (%) →	60	40	10
Total Females + Males (%) →	57.5	40	7.5

According to Table 49 above, the majority of students (57.5%) both female (55%) and male (60%) revealed that they only read some of their essay again when their lecturers handed them back. Only 35% percent of students indicated that they read most of their essays after getting them back from their lecturers. A number (7.5%) of students acknowledged that they read none of their essay again after being marked by their lecturers. In terms of responding to the corrective feedback provided in their work, 57.5% of students indicated that they think carefully about their lecturer's comments and corrections and make correction accordingly, while 40% only consider some of their lecturer's comments and corrections. Once again, 7.5% of students indicated that they do not pay attention to the lecturer's comments and corrections. Similar findings were reported by Zaman and Azad (2012) who stated that "learners always do not take feedback seriously, and because of their negligence they do not want to follow up" (p. 150). The findings of the present study confirm the results reported by some scholars that learners or students tend to have a superficial attitude to correction and devote very little cognitive effort when responding to their teachers' corrective feedback, by just looking briefly at the feedback and making a mental note of the errors (Conti, 2015). The findings of the present study are further supported by Zaman and Azad (2012) when they expressed that:

> There are always some learners in every class who come to language class with a hope of getting some kind of panacea from the teacher. They expect that their teachers will solve all the problems. They do not realise that language learning is a skill, and like any other skill it also requires learners' active participation in solving problems. When they find they have to rewrite

based on teachers correction, they start avoiding taking part in the class. (p.150)

On the other hand, the way the students respond to the corrective feedback they receive depends on how their lecturer guides them into doing so. Lecturers need to play a pivotal role to motivate their students to follow up on the corrective feedback they receive. To shed some light on this point, both lecturers and students were requested to answer the questions displayed in Table 50 below.

5.4.8 Perceptions on how lecturers follow up

Table 50: Responses on Question C16 (students' questionnaire) and Question C18 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Questions →	*What does your lecturer usually do after marking your work?*				*What do you usually do after marking your students' work?*		
Respondents →	**Students (%)**				**Lecturers (%)**		
Rating →	***Often***	***Some times***	***Rarely***		***Often***	***Some Times***	***Rarely***
He or she does not follow up.	10	10	52.5		12.5	25	37.5
He or she holds a conference with each student or some students.	22.5	32.5	25		25	25	25
He or she makes students correct errors in or outside class.	27.5	40	15		50	12.5	25

He or she makes students record their errors in an error frequency chart.	15	10	52.5		0	12.5	25
He or she goes through students' common errors in class.	60	27.5	2.5		87.5	12.5	0
Other: Please see Appendix 3.							

According to Table 50 above, the majority of both lecturer and student respondents agreed that lecturers do follow up on their students' work after marking them. However, there are also some indications that their follow-up exercise is not a common practice. This finding concurs with Bailey's (2009) claim that fewer opportunities for tutorial interaction due to lack of time is one of the challenges that tutors encounter when it comes to following up on corrective feedback. The data illustrate that the most practical way in which lecturers follow up on their students' work after marking them is *going through students' common errors in class* that was expressed by the majority of students (60%) and lecturers (87.5%). A further 40% of students indicated that *sometimes* their lecturers make them *correct errors in or outside class*, while 50% of lecturers felt that they do it *often*. According to these findings, there is only one follow-up strategy that lecturers do not practise much, which is that *lecturer does not make students record their errors in an error frequency chart*.

The other following-up strategy, *lecturers hold conferences with each student or some students*, received a broad range of feelings from both students and lecturers who provided almost equal percentages across the range *often-sometimes-rarely*. However, a significant percentage (32.5%) of students indicated that it happens *sometimes*. The slight discrepancy between students' and lecturers' answers may suggest that conferencing is practised differently by different lecturers. Zaman and Azad (2012) claimed that conferencing is not widely practised, due to constraints such as lack of time, teachers' heavy workload and large class size. However, Zaman and Azad further revealed in their findings that both teachers and learners strongly believed that if a conferencing session is properly arranged, it can facilitate writing development very effectively.

In addition, students offered some different practical strategies that their lecturers employ that were not provided as options in the survey. Lecturers sometimes give explicit correction to errors so that the students will already have correct versions of their errors when they receive their work. Another strategy is that lecturers allow peer correction by asking other students, for example, to spell out the words that were misspelled by their classmates. Otherwise, lecturers list general errors identified when marking and bring these to class for students to correct them together, as a whole class.

5.4.9 Lecturers' and students' views on the effectiveness of ESL corrective feedback

Both lecturers and students were requested to express their views on whether students make the same errors again when they get a new writing task, after they receive corrective feedback on their work. Table 51 below illustrates the respondents' views on this matter.

Table 51: Responses on Question C15 (students' questionnaire) and Question C17 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Question →	*After your lecturer has given comments on the errors in your essay, do you make the same errors again when you get a new writing task?*						
Respondent →	Students (%)			Lecturers (%)		Total S + L (%)	
	Females	Males		Females	Males	Females	Males
Yes	45	55		83.3	50	53.8	54.5
No	55	45		16.7	50	46.2	45.5
Total	100	100		100	100	100	100
If yes, what do you think causes them to make the same error again?							
Students: Please see Appendix 3.					*Lecturers: Please see Appendix 3.*		

According to the results displayed in Table 51, male students (55%) acknowledged that they still make the same errors after receiving correction, while 55% female students felt that they do not repeat the same errors after correction. A high number (83.3%) of female lecturers indicated that students do repeat the same errors even

after correction. Overall, more than half of all respondents (female 53.8% and male 54.5%) agreed that students in general repeat the same errors even after correction.

Responding to the question why they think students make the same errors again after correction, some lecturers said they had no insight as to why that happens. Other lecturers related that behaviour to carelessness. They think that students do not bother to pay attention to the corrections made. As a result they do not even check the feedback comments or read the corrections to see what was wrong and why.

On the other hand, students gave various reasons why they repeat the same errors after being corrected. The following are the reasons given by male and female student respondents in this study:

Table 52: Reasons why students repeat the same errors after being corrected

Male students' reasons	Female students' reasons
Sometimes because of the ignorance; or when I did not understand when the lecturer corrects me.	*Because I did not pay much attention on my lecturer's comments on the errors for my previous essay.*
I think it is because I do not revise that much on my previous work.	*Because I have not really paid attention to them; on my own is not easy, unless he or she spoke about it in class.*
Because I sometimes forget to go through my marked work, hence I sometimes repeat the same mistakes.	*I sometimes think that the word is correct because I am used to writing it that way; or it might be that I do not pay much attention on the correction.*

Because the lecturer gives different essays and I have to apply in a different way, then it's a challenge.	*Because I am used to them and forgot that they were corrected.*
Because it is a new task and it is really hard to get all the answers correct.	*I did not understand the correction very well.*
Just because I did not go through the errors that the lecturer wanted me to correct.	*I am lazy to do revision after all; I do not pay attention to my work after they were marked.*
Because I am not perfect and do not put into consideration everything.	*Because I do not revise my marked work; I only make corrections of all my work in class.*
I get used to them (same mistakes).	*I get confused; that is why I make the mistakes again.*
Because I am used to the same mistakes, but after three corrections I never repeat the same mistakes.	*Because I spend less time on studying LIP.*
One correction is not enough; unless I do a lot of exercises.	

(See Appendix 3)

In summary, students revealed that they repeat the same errors after being corrected because they do not pay much attention to the corrective feedback they get from their lecturers. Some students felt that sometimes their lecturers' feedback is not clear enough for them to understand. Others claimed that they got used to making those errors and they had become fossilised. Another reason highlighted is that some students at times find it challenging to apply the corrected version into a new task or to use it in different contexts. These findings illustrate that students need the lecturer's assistance to comprehend the feedback given to them. In this vein, Hattie and Timperley (2007) recommended that feedback should be supplemented with instruction because "feedback and instruction are intertwined in ways that transform the process into new instruction rather than informing the learner only about

correctness" (p. 82). Some students claimed that they need several attempts and proper guidance in order to get the concepts right.

The last reason provided by some students as to why they repeat the same errors after being corrected was that they devote little time to studying English and as a result they do not get to improve on those corrected errors. This supports the point discussed earlier in this section that some students devote little time to studying English and as a result do not gain much from corrective feedback; hence, they keep repeating the same errors over and over, regardless of how often they are corrected.

5.4.10 Approximate time spent marking one composition

Lecturers were also requested to shed light on their practice of marking essays. Table 53 below displays lecturers' responses when expressing how long it takes them to mark one composition.

Table 53: Responses on Question C21 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Approximately, how much time do you spend marking one composition?			
Respondents →	Lecturers: Female (%)	Lecturers: Male (%)	Total: F + M (%)
Less than 10 minutes	0	0	0
10 to 20 minutes	66.7	100	75
More than 20 minutes	33.3	0	25

The findings in Table 53 show that a majority of lecturers (75%) indicated that it takes them between ten to twenty minutes to mark one composition of about 250-300

words long, while 25% of lecturers (all women) stated that it takes them more than 20 minutes to mark a composition of the same length. This shows that the marking of essays differ from one lecturer to another and probably from marking one student's essay to another, depending on the type of work produced and the amount of corrective feedback that needs to be provided and how detailed it should be. Over all, the findings show that marking a composition is time consuming because it takes a minimum of ten minutes and can go beyond twenty minutes to mark only one composition.

5.4.11 Problems encountered when providing corrective feedback

The next question intended to find out how ESL lecturers view the exercise of providing corrective feedback to their students. Table 54 below displays lecturers' responses on whether they encounter any problems in the process of providing corrective feedback.

Table 54: Responses on Question C22 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Do you have any concerns or problems with providing error feedback on students' writing?			
Respondents →	Lecturers: Female (%)	Lecturers: Male (%)	Total: F + M (%)
Yes	33.3	0	25
No	66.7	100	75
If yes, please elaborate: Please see Appendix 3.			

The findings displayed in Table 54 are rather surprising because a majority of lecturers (75%) revealed that they do not experience any problem when they have to provide corrective feedback to their students. This finding contradicts teachers' common claim that the marking of compositions is the most challenging and straining task in their practice. Only 25% of lecturers (all female again) acknowledged they have some concerns when it comes to providing corrective feedback. One concern raised by one lecturer was that she spends so much time to correct students' work, yet they keep making the same mistake. The other lecturer stated that students make different errors, which makes it difficult for her to tackle all the errors in-depth in one lesson when doing revision with them. This problem of limited time and handling revision during class was also highlighted in the study conducted by Zaman and Azad (2012), where they looked at problems in dealing with corrective feedback at tertiary level. According to Zaman and Azad (2012), teachers also indicated that providing corrective feedback is very time consuming and sometimes it is not possible for them to go through that rigorous process, especially in large classes.

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter presented data and the findings collected through the lecturers' and students' questionnaires based on speaking and writing skills. The findings of other empirical studies on lecturers' and students' or teachers' perceptions and preferences about ESL corrective feedback were also explored and correlated with the findings of the present study.

The findings of this study revealed that corrective feedback is perceived by both lecturers and students as an essential aspect of developing ESL productive skills. These findings further indicated a gap between students, who preferred more correction, and their lecturers, who were less inclined to provide it. Both lecturers and students concurred that providing corrections to errors accompanied by comments is the best practice for corrective feedback. Students had high expectations of receiving explicit corrective feedback with metalinguistic explanations from their lecturers. However, lecturers mostly provided only explicit corrective feedback. Lecturers highlighted that due to time constraints, they could not always manage to provide detailed feedback that entails corrections and comments. Therefore, both lecturers and students indicated that the common practice for corrective feedback on students' written work is underlining errors, while some lecturers claimed to use correction codes. Furthermore, students preferred to receive immediate corrective feedback on their spoken errors from their lecturers in class, while lecturers advocated for delayed corrective feedback. Otherwise, corrective feedback on students' spoken errors is either provided explicitly or is being ignored.

In this chapter, the data were presented, analysed and interpreted, and the findings were discussed. The next chapter correlates and summarises the relative findings of the study to attain final conclusions which lead to answering the research questions and also proposes an intervention model for ESL.

CHAPTER 6

INTERVENTION MODEL FOR ESL AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

The major focus of this chapter is to present the ten-stage Intervention Model that is proposed for the effectiveness of ESL corrective feedback and to conclude the study. The purpose of this study was to investigate: 1) ESL lecturers' and students' perceptions about corrective feedback at a tertiary level; 2) ESL tertiary level students reactions to the corrective feedback provided to their errors; 3) ESL lecturers' and students' preferences as far as error treatment practice is concerned; and 4) how ESL students' errors can be treated to promote the correct use of the English language. It is therefore important to first look at how the findings respond to these research questions before the presentation of the Intervention Model. Thereafter, the chapter provides the synopsis of theoretical and pedagogical implications, and ultimately recommends possible future research.

6.2 Summary of findings

The findings of this study revealed that corrective feedback for both speaking and writing skills is perceived by both lecturers and students as an essential aspect of developing ESL productive skills. Generally reporting, half the number of ESL lecturer participants in the present study reported to be confident with how they deal with their students' errors, while the other half showed that they sometimes hesitate and experience trouble with correcting errors of their students. Otherwise, the results

illustrated that, overall, corrective feedback for both spoken and written errors takes place one way or another, in the ESL class.

For ease of presentation, the synopsis of relative findings on various aspects are highlighted beneath, structured by reiterating research questions of the study in order to shed light on the responses to the questions.

6.2.1 A synopsis of lecturers' and students' perceptions about ESL corrective feedback at a tertiary level

i) Findings about spoken errors

Despite the fact that both the lecturer and student participants agreed with the fact that students' spoken errors are corrected in the ESL class, a mismatch was found between students' and lecturers' perceptions regarding lecturers' corrective feedback practice. A vast majority of students indicated that whenever a student makes an error when speaking in class, a lecturer's typical reactions are corrections. On the contrary, the lecturers' felt that immediate corrective feedback is provided at a minimal rate.

Findings about who corrects errors the most, reveal that students felt lecturers are the most likely agents of providing corrective feedback in class; otherwise, students self-correct, and if they cannot correct themselves, other students correct them. On the contrary, lecturers were of the view that correction is mostly done either by the same student or by other students in class. A majority of lecturers indicated that the

lecturer's corrective feedback is the least common in the ESL class. The survey results further show that lecturers sometimes avoid providing immediate corrective feedback to prevent offending students and disrupting their train of thought, otherwise they correct explicitly. A majority of lecturers indicated that they usually correct after the student has stopped talking, at the end of the activity, otherwise they do correction at another planned time.

The findings further indicate that both types of respondents believe that corrective feedback should be done collaboratively by lecturers, the student who made an error and peers. However, the findings show a gap in the lecturers' and students' preferences about the main agent of correction. Students believe they learn English better when their errors are corrected by the lecturer, whereas, lecturers suggest that students should self-correct. According to these results, none of the respondents was ready to take corrective feedback responsibility.

During speaking activities in class, a majority of lecturers correct errors that affect the message rather than grammar errors or any other type of error. Student respondents in this study specified the three most frequently corrected errors, *wrong tense used*, *wrong verb form* and *wrong word used*; and lecturers' most frequent corrected error type were *wrong or irrelevant answer*, *wrong verb form*, *concord (subject-verb-agreement)*. The study further highlights three least frequent corrected errors in class. Students indicated *pronunciation*, *wrong or irrelevant answer*, and *style and register (acceptability in the given situation)*, while lecturers identified *concord (subject-verb-agreement)*, *wrong word order* and *style and register*

(acceptability in the given situation). A discrepancy was, however, noticed in these findings when the two types of respondents expressed quite different perceptions. They only agreed on two types of errors, first that *wrong verb form* received the most correction, and second that *style and register (acceptability in the given situation)* was given the least attention when it comes to corrective feedback.

The results of the study reveal that both types of respondents identified slightly different strategies of corrective feedback as the most frequently practised in class; students identified *explicit correction* and *metalinguistic feedback*, whereas lecturers indicated *explicit correction* and *recasts or reformulations*. The next two choices of lecturers were *metalinguistic feedback* and *clarification request*; while students' chose *clarification request* and *repetition* respectively. These findings highlight some level of agreement between lecturers' and students' perceptions about corrective feedback strategies used in class, with a slight gap regarding *repetition* and *recasts or reformulation*. The findings, further, reveal that some lecturers are not always confident with correcting errors of their students. Both the lecturers and students believed that almost all the ESL corrective feedback strategies were practised in class but at different rates.

ii) Findings about written errors

The findings show that both lecturers and students agreed that the common practice for corrective feedback on students' written work was underlining errors; however,

some lecturers claimed to use correction codes. Lecturers complained that due to time constraints, they only provide corrective feedback without comments.

The survey results reveal that according to students, the three most corrected errors were *wrong tense used*, *wrong verb form* and *wrong word used*; while according to lecturers, the most frequent corrected error types were *wrong or irrelevant answer*, *wrong verb form* and *concord (subject-verb-agreement).* On the other hand, students indicated the least frequent corrected errors as *pronunciation*, *wrong or irrelevant answer* and *style and register (acceptability in the given situation).* In the lecturers' opinion, the least frequent corrected errors were *concord (subject-verb-agreement)*, *wrong word order* and *style and register (acceptability in the given situation).* Overall, both types of respondents only agreed on two types of errors that *wrong verb form* receives the most correction and *style and register (acceptability in the given situation)* receives the least correction.

6.2.2 A synopsis of lecturers' and students' perception about how students respond to the ESL corrective feedback

i) Findings about spoken errors

A majority of both lecturers and students agreed that when students make errors in class which are corrected, most of the time they admit the error, think about it, and then continue speaking. Students said that they are not offended by immediate correction and want their errors to be corrected when they make them. Surprisingly, a contradictory finding emerged that even lecturers who were most of the time

concerned that they do not correct their students' errors in order not to offend them, also claimed that correction does not frustrate or distract the students' concentration when it is provided instantly, while they speak. Both groups of respondents in this study uniformly agreed that the majority of students are by no means threatened or depressed by corrective feedback as it is argued by some scholars and use their argument to oppose the corrective feedback practice.

ii) Findings about written errors

Both lecturers and students highly agreed with the statements that, *lecturers must make a follow up on the feedback they give on students' work* and *Students must revise their work on their own paying attention to the feedback provided.* Lecturers however expressed a strong sentiment that they do not find time to follow up on the feedback they give to students. Students also explained that they only respond to some of the feedback they receive, when sometimes they make time to go through it. Both lecturers and students agreed that students tend not to revise their work after getting corrections back from their lecturers.

Despite the fact that students wanted their lecturers to revise their work with them, they also emphasised that doing corrections on their own, instead of just depending on the lecturers, would help them not only to understand the concepts better but also not to forget what they learn.

There was a mismatch in the perceptions of students and lecturers when they indicated whether students understood the correction codes their lecturers use when

marking their work. Lecturers had an impression that their students understood the marking codes and that students were able to respond easily to the feedback given to them. On the contrary, students said that they did not understand all the codes that their lecturers used when marking their work.

The findings concluded that students devote little time to studying English and as a result gain little from the corrective feedback they receive. Hence, they keep repeating the same errors over and over, regardless of how often they are corrected.

6.2.3 A synopsis of lecturers' and students' preferences about ESL error correction

i) Findings about spoken errors

When it comes to who treats errors, the general findings were that both lecturers and students agreed that errors could be treated by the lecturer, peers or the student-self who made an error. However, students seemed to have low self-confidence to correct their errors, and their opinion was for the lecturer to correct their errors. However, the lecturers' opinion was that students learn language the best if they are able to self-correct. So, they suggested that the student who made an error should, at least, first self-correct before receiving assistance from the lecturer and other students.

Further, students preferred receiving immediate corrective feedback on their spoken errors from their lecturers in class, while lecturers advocated for delayed corrective feedback. Both lecturers and students concurred that providing corrections to errors

accompanied by comments was the best practice for corrective feedback. So, students had high expectations of receiving explicit corrective feedback with metalinguistic explanations from their lecturers; however, lecturers deemed explicit corrective feedback to be the best practice. A discrepancy between the students and lecturers, however, was found when lecturers rated pronunciation as the second highest type of error that needs correction, while students ranked pronunciation to be the least to receive correction.

Two corrective feedback strategies *explicit* and *recasts* were the most favoured methods of ESL corrective feedback among the students. According to the findings, lecturers preferred explicit correction, otherwise they opt for recasts. Finally, the results reveal that students preferred to be corrected mostly by their lecturers but they also valued peer-correction and finally, self-correction, as their last preferences.

ii) Findings about written errors

The findings indicate the gap between lecturers' and students' opinion about who should correct written errors in students work. A majority of students who responded to the statement that *it was the lecturer's duty to correct all errors* partly agreed with the point. On the contrary, a majority of lecturers totally disagreed that it is their duty to correct all errors. Only a few students who partially agreed with the statement, still believed in collaborative participation when they asserted that a lecturer is there to guide the students, but not to do everything for them.

The results of this survey indicate that both lecturers and students strongly recommended *wrong or irrelevant answer* to receive the highest attention when it comes to corrective feedback. Both respondents also agreed that *wrong tense used, wrong verb form, and concord (subject-verb-agreement)* should also receive great priority for corrective feedback.

Both respondents highly agreed with the following three corrective feedback strategies: *providing explicit corrective feedback in ESL writing is useful because students can improve their writing by noticing the corrections that the lecturer provided; the lecturer should show where the error is and give a clue about how to correct it;* and *comments with corrections are best.* A discrepancy came in when students strongly felt, *lecturers should give detailed comments; the length does not matter*, while lecturers highly believed in *the use correction codes rather than writing long comments*.

6.2.4 A proposed Intervention Model towards the correct use of the English language

The present study was a form of complementary research that drew on skill-acquisition theory, not only concentrating on instances such as practice and preferences of corrective feedback, but also focused on the opportunities afforded for consolidating emergent ESL knowledge and skills, and therefore enhancing students' ESL proficiency. As Ranta and Lyster (2007) put it, Skill Acquisition theory critically contributes to corrective feedback, specifically in the context of practice

that leads students from effortful to more automatic second language use. Advocating for feedback provided as a form of instruction, Hattie and Timperley (2007) argued that "feedback and instruction are intertwined in ways that transform the process into new instruction rather than informing the learner only about correctness" (p. 82). Therefore, the last research question of this study sought to find practical ways of corrective feedback that could be employed to promote the correct use of the English language.

i) Synergic relationships between this study and other empirical studies on ESL corrective feedback

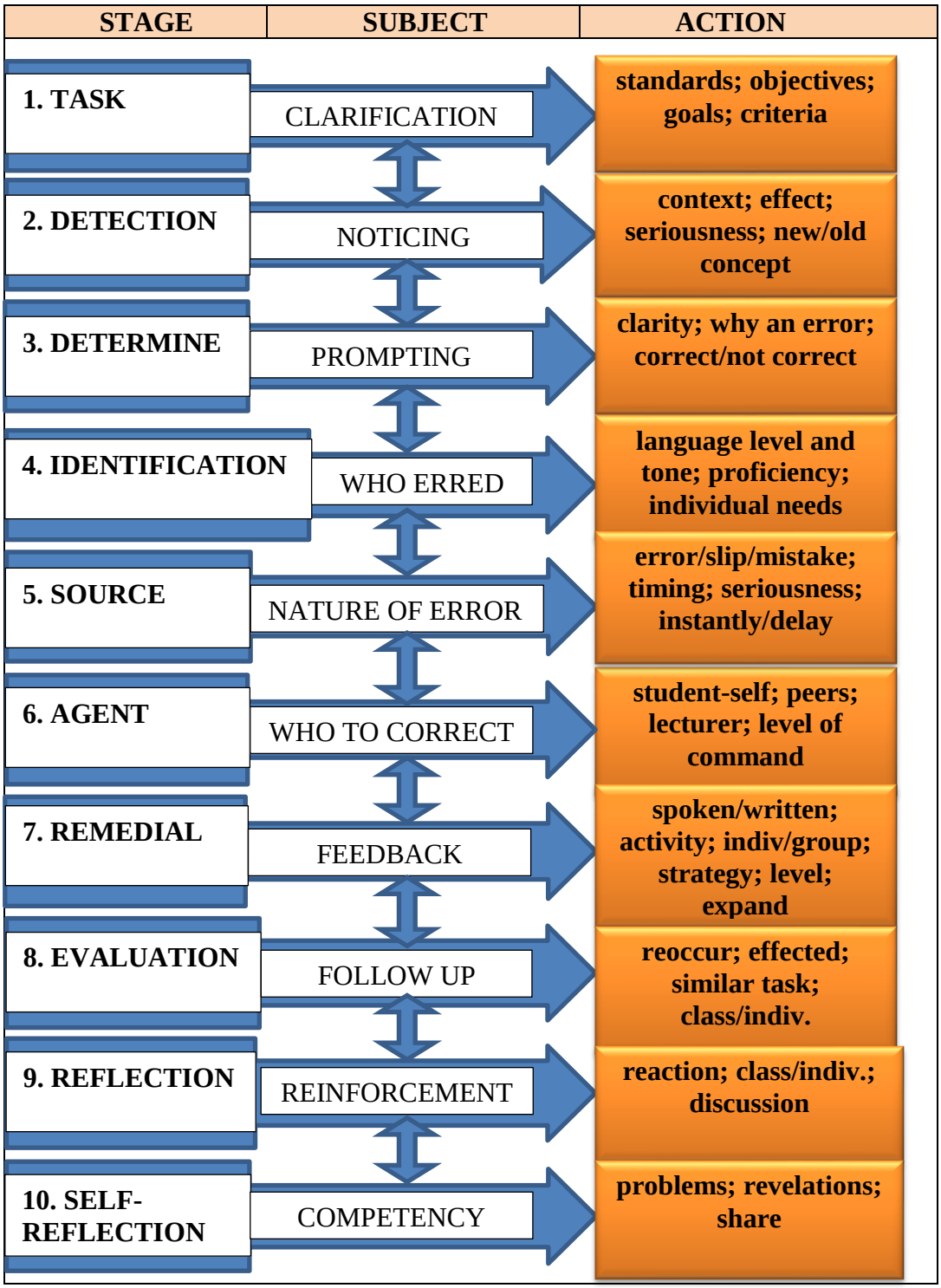
The results of various other studies emphasise that corrective feedback should be made relevant to the recipient. The findings urge lecturers to engage in continuous research to enable them to know the status of their students, such as language proficiency level, prior knowledge and special needs. Hence, the findings specifically mention demographic information about participants, in particular that more than half of student participants speak Oshiwambo as their native language and that two thirds are female students. The findings further show that, students who were in their first year at tertiary level, specifically at the Namibia University of Science and Technology, were aged between 17-24 years old. Most student participants in this study were 20-24 years old, and many of these were males. When it comes to self-assessment regarding students' English language proficiency and in particular with respect to the rate of making errors, the findings reveal that female student participants felt stronger than their male counterparts.

Findings of other ESL empirical studies recommend the use of a variety of corrective feedback strategies such as the implementation of feedforward and sandwich feedback. They further recommend that corrective feedback practices should be made part of the curriculum and the notion of teaching language across the curriculum should be effectively reinforced. Lecturers and teachers should undergo continuous in-service training in order to be fully equipped with relevant skills that enable them to respond effectively to corrective feedback. These skills enable them to maintain adequate student-lecturer information exchanges regarding corrective feedback, in order to act effectively upon the corrective feedback and to promote effective language learning.

ii) Stages in the intervention model proposed for ESL corrective feedback

Figure 4 below presents a diagram of the Intervention Model that works towards the effectiveness of ESL corrective feedback. The content of the model was informed by the findings of this study alongside those of other previous studies that investigated corrective feedback and which were discussed earlier in this study. The model consists of three main divisions with ten stages. The arrows between the stages suggest that at any stage of the process the lecturer can reflect and consider other points indicated at any other stages of the model that may help him or her to make well-informed decisions. The points below the Intervention Model diagram shed some light on what each stage of the model suggests for a lecturer who is in the process of deciding his or her own strategies of providing corrective feedback that enhances learning.

Figure 4: A ten-stage Intervention Model towards effective ESL corrective feedback



Source: S. Mungungu-Shipale (2015)

Stage 1: TASK

This is a trigger that initiates performance. Effective corrective feedback starts the process and generates the planning stage of the task. Corrective feedback can be more effective when it is focused on specific linguistic targets than when it does not have a specified language focus. Corrective feedback strategy should, therefore, be informed by standards; objectives; goals; and criteria directed to the task. As discussed earlier in this study, Lillis (2003) suggested "feedforward" strategy of cultivating effective corrective feedback. When using "feedforward" strategy, all the feedback to be given to students should relate to the original assessment criteria.

Stage 2: DETECTION

Corrective feedback is all about guidance and motivation. Feedback should stipulate vivid and unambiguous guidance that is aimed at improving students' performance. Proper guidance can be realised through the concept of noticing. Svalberg (2007) stated that noticing embodies cognitive linguistic notions of attention and awareness. To notice the existence of an error requires conscious attention. In order to provide effective corrective feedback, a lecturer needs to pay attention consciously and be aware of the circumstance in order to notice the gap between what is produced and what needed to be produced.

Stage 3: DETERMINE

Find a justification why that error is an error. Decide whether it is worth correcting at this point. Spoken corrective feedback can either be given instantly or it can be delayed; otherwise written corrective feedback seems to always be delayed. Does

the error affect the target language item and objective of the lesson? Students do not appreciate being interrupted while talking, such as when the lecturer tries to point out grammar or pronunciation issues in the student's utterance, which may clarify the theoretical understanding of the concept but less frequently its usage. Correcting every error, pinpointing everything that is wrong and disregarding what is correct can often prevent students from taking risks and participating in the ESL class freely, unless they are precisely sure of what and how they should say something.

Stage 4: IDENTIFICATION

A lecturer should consider the cognitive and affective needs of the individual student to decide on how to correct; hence, procedures for correcting different students vary. Lyster and Ranta (1997) urge that teachers need to "carefully take into account their students' level of L2 proficiency when making decisions about feedback" (p. 56). Corrective feedback should indicate what a student has done well, what he or she needs to improve and how he or she can improve. Corrective feedback is not about pinpointing errors. A positive comment dilutes resentment involved with erring. The "feedback sandwich" technique enables giving sincere praise regarding a specific area of development together with an indication of where improvement is needed (Boud & Molloy, 2013).

Stage 5: SOURCE

Diagnosis of an error type and possible origin should be considered in the process of corrective feedback. Whether it is an error, slip or mistake, it should be identified and clearly explained so that students can understand why it is an error. The findings

of this study emphasise the need for the provision of comments for improvement and to stipulate what is wrong and how to rectify it.

Stage 6: AGENT

Situational variables such as classroom atmosphere, type of classmates' behaviour or student-lecturer relationship or background should be considered when deciding on the agent of correction. Corrective feedback should be decipherable by the intended audience. Different students have different needs and abilities, so feedback should be suitable for both strong and struggling students. A lecturer needs to adapt his or her spoken or written corrective feedback strategies for each individual student as per the student's specific needs. Feedback should be expressed in a specific and clear language, free of jargon.

Stage 7: REMEDIAL

"One size does not fit all" in providing corrective feedback. Identify a relevant feedback strategy that suits the circumstance. The effects of feedback depend on the nature of the corrective feedback provided. Corrective feedback should be coupled with some instructional cues such as a variety of possible extra activities that further clarify the concept of the problematic target language feature. Nevertheless, corrective feedback should not be too overwhelming in quantity. Students usually view corrective feedback as critical and judgemental. Refrain from too negative feedback which is deficient in tone. The findings in this study suggest that direct feedback benefits students to improve accuracy (Ferris 2006; Bitchener, 2008; and Bitchener et al., 2005), while indirect feedback equips students with long-term

improvement that enables them to self-correct because they get more time to ponder on their errors (Ferris, 2006). Findings in this study affirm that students do not only need to receive a mark or grade for their work but also need a motivation for why they obtained that mark.

Stage 8: EVALUATION

Following up on feedback was highly recommended through the findings of this study. Knowing the students' behaviour and considering their reactions towards the corrective feedback they received, a lecturer can decide on the follow-up strategy. At this stage, give students a similar task or question to assess their sustained concept gains.

Stage 9: REFLECTION (CF)

As highlighted in the findings of this study, corrective feedback is one of the instructional methods, intended to assist students develop their ESL acquisition. So, it is vital for a lecturer to not only have principles for corrective feedback implementation but also to hold discussions about those guiding principles, for instance, why it is necessary to sometimes correct selectively or not correct at all. Some students prefer all their errors to be corrected and may become frustrated or even doubt their lecturer's competence, if their errors are not corrected. Engaging students in discussions about feedback would not only enhance their understanding of the importance of corrective feedback but also promote student autonomy. Obviously, some discussion sessions would be necessary on the rationale for corrective feedback and when it is appropriate.

Stage 10: SELF-EVALUATION

A lecturer should have a critical reflection evaluating the whole processes involved in the whole corrective feedback process. This stage intends to serve as a platform where a lecturer seeks to understand his or her own strategies and skills of providing feedback, through evaluating and making decisions whether to make adjustments on his or her own corrective feedback practices. A lecturer should, for instance, monitor the level of anxiety that was caused by a certain corrective feedback strategy and make some adjustments accordingly. This study recommends the on-going development of lecturers or teachers and in-service training to sharpen their teaching skills. If a lecturer discovers any feedback strategy that works successfully towards the learning of ESL, he or she should share his or her discovery with other ESL lecturers.

To sum up, providing corrective feedback to students' productive tasks should be considered an essential skill and talent that requires high levels of expertise for lecturers to be able to balance and cater for both lecturers' and students' preferences about corrective feedback practice, which are at times contradictory. Therefore, the ten-stage Intervention Model recommends three major general practical aspects for corrective feedback at tertiary level. In order to reach a verdict on how corrective feedback can be best practised, lecturers should: carefully scrutinise the particular ESL target language feature that is dealt with in class; practise a variety of suitable corrective feedback techniques aimed at producing student-generated repairs; provide suitable cues that encourage self-repair and cater for individual students'

specific needs and preferences. Nonetheless, at times class sizes at tertiary institutions are too huge, which may become a challenge for lecturers to easily implement this intervention model. It is therefore recommendable that tertiary institutions consider the distribution of smaller manageable L2 class groups to create an environment conducive for the implementation of the intervention model. This Intervention Model should, however, not be regarded as mandatory to lecturers but rather as a series of stages that lecturers can consider when deciding their own corrective feedback policies that suit their students circumstances. The model therefore is intended to contribute to the development of ESL lecturers. Hence, as recommended in this study, in-service training for lecturers may serve as a remedy to handling corrective feedback confidently and effectively (Spencer, 2007).

6.3 Recommendation for further studies

Firstly, one of the constraints that emerged in this study was that since the present study focused on one English course, Language in Practice, one possible next step could be for the same study to be repeated on a broader spectrum, such as covering more than only one English course, and with a higher number of participants.

Another constraint was that the findings were based mainly on self-reported responses from students and lecturers due to the fact that the classroom observation research methodology that was employed did not generate the anticipated amount of adequate data. These findings, therefore, may not be a true reflection of classroom practice. As revealed in the results of this study, lecturers claimed not to correct much of their students' errors in class and believed that they allowed more self-

correction or peer-correction; however, students reported the opposite. It is recommendable, in future research, to see whether actual corrective feedback practices in the ESL classroom are consistent with self-reported results.

6.4 Conclusion

In the final analysis, the findings of this study show that both the students and lecturers concurred, ESL students' errors should be corrected. The results of the survey, generally, illustrate that the students and lecturers had significantly different perceptions and preferences about ESL corrective feedback. Students yearned for more corrective feedback than lecturers provided on both spoken and written errors.

Overall, the findings about lecturers' and students' preferences seem to highlight significant discrepancies. These findings should, however, be taken cautiously by ESL lecturers not to cause confusion and generate more discomfort in their practice of providing corrective feedback. Even though students desired to receive as much corrective feedback as possible and identified their preferences about what errors should be corrected, lecturers should still tap their own experience with corrective feedback either as lecturers or even as students at their time. In fact, flexibility and open-mindedness are strong qualities of a good instructor or lecturer. Of course, it is imperative for lecturers to discover their students' perceptions and preferences about corrective feedback. Nonetheless, lecturers should be cautious and critically sieve their findings so that ultimately they retain what they deem relevant for their practices. James (1998) suggests that "students' preferences for certain types of correction cannot be ignored of course; nor should they be put on a pedestal, because

they are not necessarily more effective for being preferred" (p. 253). In essence, even though students' preferences can be underscored, the fact remains, such preferences may not be ideal or more effective than other practices. The final verdict should therefore be left in the individual lecturer's court to determine what is most apposite to his or her particular students' circumstances.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Students' questionnaire

Lecturers' and students' perceptions and preferences on English as a Second Language corrective feedback in English classroom

By filling in the questionnaire you help to highlight tertiary level students' opinions on corrective feedback provided to ESL students. The purpose of this research project is to identify some possible clues or guiding evidence on how ESL students learn English in Namibia. This will enable the researcher to compose an intervention model for corrective feedback in an ESL classroom. Ideally, the results of this study may be valuable to L2 lecturers in adapting their L2 error correction techniques to the needs of their students. Filling in this questionnaire takes about 30-40 minutes to complete. Your opinion is extremely useful to me, to other lecturers, as well as to students of English in general.

Thank you in advance!

Ms S.S. Mungungu-Shipale

A. **Please enter your background information here:** Gender: Male __ / Female__ Native Language: _____

Age group: [17-19 __]; [20-24 __]; [25-30 __]; [31-35 __]; [36-40 __]; [41-45 __]; [46-50 __]

B. **Error correction and giving feedback on speaking:**

1. In comparison with students of the same level of English, I make errors...:

a) more often

b) similarly frequently

c) less often

2. If I make an error during an ESL speaking class, my lecturer's typical reactions are (Arrange the following from the most frequent practice = 1 to the least = 4.):

	correction.
	no correction, I must self-correct.
	no correction, other students correct me.
	sometimes correction, sometimes no reaction.

3. My lecturer corrects my errors (Circle one option.):

a) too often b) adequately c) only rarely d) never

4. If my lecturer corrects students' errors during a speaking class, it is typically (Arrange from the most frequent corrected errors = 1 to the least ones = 8):

Speaking errors			
	wrong tense used		concord (subject-verb-agreement)
	wrong verb form		pronunciation
	wrong word used		wrong or irrelevant answer
	wrong word order		style and register (acceptability in the given situation)

5. In my opinion, the following errors should be corrected during a speaking class. (Indicate who should correct each error type you select, for example, L=lecturer, S=self or O=other students.):

Speaking errors			
	wrong tense used		concord (subject-verb-agreement)
	wrong verb form		pronunciation
	wrong word used		wrong or irrelevant answer
	wrong word order		style and register (acceptability in the given situation)

Are there any other error types that you think should be corrected? Add them here:

_____

_____

6. In my opinion, my lecturer corrects errors...:

a) more or less the same with all activities.
b) sometimes less, sometimes more - depends on the activity.
c) of some students less and of others more, regardless of the activity.
d) I do not know.

7. If I make an error while speaking in class and be corrected, my typical reaction is (tick one box for each statement):

nothing at all, I continue speaking, I cannot be distracted from the thought.	*most of the time*	*sometimes*	*not at all*
I admit the error, think about it, and then continue.	*most of the time*	*sometimes*	*not at all*
I ask my lecturer about the error and the correct solution.	*most of the time*	*sometimes*	*not at all*
I am frustrated because of it and do not want to continue speaking.	*most of the time*	*sometimes*	*not at all*
I get out of balance so much that I forget what I was saying.	*most of the time*	*sometimes*	*not at all*
Other (please specify):			

8. When my lecturer corrects students' errors during speaking activities (Arrange what your lecturer practise most, from the most frequent practice = 1 to the least = 7; If your lecturer does not apply some of the practices, leave them blank.):

	he or she provides correct version of the error.
	he or she uses body language to signal that the student made an error.
	he or she asks questions to alert the student that there is an error in order to correct himself or herself.
	he or she asks questions for clarification to let the student realise an error.
	he or she repeats an error to make the student realise there is an error.
	he or she repeats the part of the student's utterance except the erroneous part and signals that the student should fill in the rest with the correct form.
	he or she reformulates all or part of a student's utterance, using the correct form, excluding the error.

9. I would appreciate it if my lecturer...:

a) kept on correcting the way he or she does.
b) changed her or his way of correcting (how?):
_____
_____
_____
_____

10. Select the most appropriate option for each of the following:
When I make an error during speaking, it is:

very good	*good*	*not good*	*very bad*	when my lecturer does not correct me at all.
very good	*good*	*not good*	*very bad*	when my lecturer tells me that I have made an error but I must self-correct.
very good	*good*	*not good*	*very bad*	when my lecturer tells me about the error and corrects me.
very good	*good*	*not good*	*very bad*	when my lecturer tells me the correct form and lets me repeat it.
very good	*good*	*not good*	*very bad*	when my lecturer lets other students correct my error.
very good	*good*	*not good*	*very bad*	when my lecturer corrects my error and explains what was wrong and why.
very good	*good*	*not good*	*very bad*	when nobody points out that I made an error.

11. Arrange the following from the crucial ones = 1 to the least important ones = 4.

When I make an error in class, it is mostly…:

	corrected by the lecturer.
	corrected by other students.
	corrected by myself.
	not corrected.

12. I believe that I learn English better when my errors are (Tick one option only):

	corrected by the lecturer.
	corrected by other students.
	corrected by myself.
	all the three options above.
	not corrected.

13. In my opinion, an error is … (tick any appropriate box):

	1. anything in conflict with an expected reaction.
	2. anything not included in rules of British English.
	3. anything that a native speaker would not say, for example, slang, informal words etc. should be considered as errors.
	4. anything preventing understanding the sense or successful communication.
Other definition (please specify):	

14. Add any other thing below that you would want to change about error correction during speaking activities. Do you have anything interesting to add or comment on error correction or corrective

feedback practice during speaking? Write additional opinion in the space below:

_____

_____

_____

C. Error correction and giving feedback on written work:

1. In my opinion, correction in students' written work should (tick appropriate boxes):

	be done by the lecturer giving correct answers.
	be done more by underlining errors to signal where there is an error.
	be done more by using correction codes.
	be applied using all the three methods above.
	focus more on grammar rather than content.
	focus more on content as long as the message has been conveyed.
	rather not be done; it discourages students.

2. Which one of the statements below best describes your lecturer's existing error feedback practice on your written work? Circle the letter of your answer.

a. My lecturer does not mark errors in my essays.
b. My lecturer marks ALL the errors in my essays.
c. My lecturer marks the errors in my essays selectively.

3. Tick a box to indicate your answer for each of the following questions:

How much of each essay do you read over again when your lecturer returns it to you?	*most of it*	*some of it*	*none of it*
How much of your lecturer's comments and corrections do you think about carefully and make correction accordingly?	*most of it*	*some of it*	*none of it*

4. How much comment does your lecturer give on your written work focusing on the following features? Rate each of them:

	a lot	*a little*	*some*	*none*
organisation				
content or ideas				
grammar				
vocabulary				
mechanics (punctuation and spelling)				

5. In your opinion, which feature should receive attention and how often should it be corrected?

	always	*occasionally*	*rarely*	*never*
organisation				
content or ideas				
grammar				
vocabulary				
mechanics (punctuation and spelling)				

6. Please tick the appropriate box:

Are you satisfied with the overall amount of comments you receive from your lecturer on your essay?	*yes*	*somewhat*	*no*	*not at all*

7. When my lecturer corrects my written work, he or she typically focuses on (Arrange the following from the most frequent corrected errors = 1 to the least ones = 8.):

Writing errors			
	wrong tense used		concord (subject-verb-agreement)
	wrong verb form		spelling
	wrong word used		wrong or irrelevant answer
	wrong word order		style and register (acceptability in the given situation)

8. In my opinion, the following errors should be corrected. (Indicate who should correct each error type you select, for example, L=lecturer or S=self.):

Writing errors			
	wrong tense used		concord (subject-verb-agreement)
	wrong verb form		spelling
	wrong word used		wrong or irrelevant answer
	wrong word order		style and register (acceptability in the given situation)

9. Which of the following is true about your essay when it comes back from your lecturer? (Tick the appropriate box).

a) My English lecturer underlines or circles **all** my errors.	
b) My English lecturer underlines or circles **some** of my errors.	
c) My English lecturer does **not** underline or circle **any** of my errors.	

10. Does your lecturer use a correction code in marking your essays (i.e. using symbols like wv., agr., wt, etc., or using colours to highlight different errors)? Circle the letter of your answer.

a. Yes b. No

If your answer to Question 10 above was "Yes", answer Question 11 and 12 below. If your answer was "No", go on to Question 13.

11. How much of your lecturer's marking symbols (e.g., wv., agr., wt, sp) do you understand when you are correcting errors in your essays?

	Most of it (76-100%)		Few of them (26-50%)
	Some of them (51-75%)		Very little of them (0-25%)

12. How much of your errors are you able to correct with the help of your lecturer's marking symbols?

	Most of them (76-100%)		Few of them (26-50%)
	Some of them (51-75%)		Very little of them (0-25%)

13. How often do you pay attention and respond to your lecturer's comments when you receive your marked work?

	All the time I receive my work from my lecturer.
	Only some time when I have nothing else to do.
	I do not pay much attention to my work after they are marked.
	I do not see the importance of revising my work if they are marked already.

14. After your lecturer has given comments on the errors in your essay, do you make the same errors again when you get a new writing task?

a) Yes b) No

If yes, why do you think you make the same mistake again?

_____

_____

15. What does your lecturer usually do after marking your work? **You can tick more than one box.**

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely
He or she does not follow up.			
He or she holds a conference with each student or some students.			
He or she makes students correct errors in or outside class.			
He or she makes students record their errors in an error frequency chart.			
He or she goes through students' common errors in class.			
Others (please specify):			

16. Please read the statements below and tick the option that best represents your opinion about correction in ESL writing.

		Highly Agree	**Partially Agree**	**Not sure**	**Partially Disagree**	**Highly Disagree**
1	Providing explicit corrective feedback in ESL writing is useful because students can improve their writing by noticing the corrections that the lecturer provided.					
2	Lecturer's feedback on ESL writing makes students better writers.					
3	Comments with corrections are best.					
4	Comments are too much; the correct form is enough.					
5	My lecturer should show where the error is and give a clue about how to correct it.					
6	It is the lecturer's duty to correct all errors.					
7	My lecturer should use a red-pen when marking.					
8	Comments are useful for motivation, but not for grammar correction.					
9	Correction with comments is impolite and rude.					
10	Grammar is the most important to correct compared to spelling and punctuation.					
11	Lecturers should not correct every single grammatical error in ESL writing; however, they should provide feedback on repetitive grammar errors.					
12	Time spent on grammar correction					

	should be devoted to overall sentence organisation and logical development of arguments skills.					
13	Lecturers must make a follow up on the feedback they give on students' work.					
14	Students must revise their work on their own paying attention to the feedback provided.					
15	Error identification is not useful. Correction is best.					
16	Both error identification and correction are useful.					
17	Comments are useful for fluency, but not accuracy.					
18	The lecturer should always tell students the reasons for the errors.					
19	Lecturer should only mark errors that impede communication, and make general comments at the end.					
20	Lecturers' feedback must be brief and to the point.					
21	Lecturers should give detailed comments; the length does not matter.					
22	Lecturers should use correction codes rather than writing long comments.					

17. From the statements above, please choose the three most appealing statements in your opinion and explain why you agree or disagree with them.

1. _____
_____
_____
_____

2. _____
_____
_____
_____

3. _____
_____
_____
_____

Thank you to all the students who participated in this survey!

APPENDIX 2: Lectures' questionnaire

Lecturers' and students' perceptions and preferences on English as a Second Language

corrective feedback in English classroom

By filling in the questionnaire you help to highlight tertiary level lecturers' opinions on corrective feedback provided to ESL students. The purpose of this research project is to identify some possible clues or guiding evidence on how ESL students learn English in Namibia. This will enable the researcher to compose an intervention model for corrective feedback in an ESL classroom. Ideally, the results of this study may be valuable to L2 lecturers in adapting their L2 error correction techniques to the needs of their students. Filling in this questionnaire takes about 30-40 minutes to complete. Your opinion is extremely useful to me, to other lecturers, as well as to students of English in general.

Thank you in advance!

Ms S.S. Mungungu-Shipale

A. **Please enter your background information here:** Gender: Male __ / Female__ Native Language: _____

Age group: [20-24 __]; [25-30 __]; [31-35 __]; [36-40 __]; [41-45 __]; [46-50 __]; [50 and above __]

Indicate your academic status here:
[ ] Undergraduate [ ] Master's incomplete [ ] Master's complete [ ] Doctorate incomplete [ ] Doctorate complete [ ] Post doctorate [ ] Other_____

What is your major?
[ ] Linguistics [ ] Applied Linguistics [ ] Education [ ] other_____
Number of years of teaching English: _____

B. **Error correction and giving feedback on speaking:**

1. When I realise a student has made an error when speaking in class, my typical reactions are (Arrange the following from the most frequent practice = 1 to the least = 4.):

	correction.
	no correction, student must self-correct.
	no correction, other students correct the error.
	sometimes correction, sometimes no reaction.

2. In class, I correct my students' errors (Circle one option.):

a) too often b) adequately c) only rarely d) never

3. If I decide to correct my students' errors during a speaking class, it is typically… (Arrange the following from the most frequent corrected errors = 1 to the least ones = 8.)

Speaking errors			
	wrong tense used		concord (subject-verb-agreement)
	wrong verb form		pronunciation
	wrong word used		wrong/ irrelevant answer
	wrong word order		style and register (acceptability in the given situation)

4. In my opinion, only the following errors should be corrected during speaking. (Tick the boxes.):

Speaking errors			
	wrong tense used		concord (subject-verb-agreement)
	wrong verb form		pronunciation
	wrong word used		wrong/ irrelevant answer
	wrong word order		style and register (acceptability in the given situation)

Are there any other error types that you think should be corrected? Add them here:

_____

_____

_____

5. In regards with frequency of providing feedback on errors, I give feedback to my students in speaking: (Please circle one answer only.)

a) more or less the same with all activities.
b) sometimes less, sometimes more – depends on the activity.
c) errors of some students less and of others more, regardless of the activity.
d) I do not follow any pattern. I correct automatically.
e) Other (please specify if any):

_____

_____

6. With respect to timing, I usually correct my students' spoken errors:

	Tick the box of the most appropriate answer for each statement.		
immediately.	*most of the time*	*sometimes*	*not at all*
after the sentence containing the error.	*most of the time*	*sometimes*	*not at all*
after the student has stopped talking.	*most of the time*	*sometimes*	*not at all*
at the end of the whole activity	*most of the time*	*sometimes*	*not at all*
at the end of the lesson.	*most of the time*	*sometimes*	*not at all*
If I do not give any feedback on my student's spoken error…	*it makes me feel guilty.*	*it does not worry me much.*	
Any other comment on timing when to provide feedback:			

7. When correcting my students' errors during a speaking activity (tick one option only):

	I correct all the errors I hear.
	I only correct grammar errors.
	I only correct those errors that affect the message.

8. When correcting my students' errors during a speaking activity (Arrange what you practise from the most frequent practice = 1 to the least = 7; If some practices do not apply to you, leave them blank.):

	I provide correct version of the error to my students.
	I use body language to signal that the student made an error.
	I ask questions to alert the student that there is an error in order to correct him- or herself.
	I ask questions for clarification to let the student realise an error.
	I repeat an error to make the student realise there is an error.
	I repeat the part of the student's utterance except the erroneous part and signal that the student should fill in the rest with the correct form.
	I reformulate all or part of a student's utterance, using the correct form, excluding the error.

9. In my opinion, errors in speaking should:

Tick a box	
	never be corrected.
	be corrected in fluency activities only.
	be corrected in accuracy activities only.
	always be corrected, if possible.
Write the reason for your choice here:	

10. The most common reaction of my students to my signalling of an error in speaking is (order from the most common = 1 to the least = 5):

	nothing at all, they continue speaking, cannot be distracted from the thought.
	they accept my signal, think about it, correct the error and go on talking.
	they are unable to self-correct, it is necessary to interrupt them and discuss the error.
	they are frustrated because of the error and unwilling to continue talking.
	they get out of balance so much that they forget what they were saying.

11. Considering error correction in general, I can say that:

Tick a box	
	I always know how to deal with an error.
	I am sometimes hesitant whether to correct or not, and if I opt to correct, I am not sure how I should assist the student suitably.
	I often experience trouble with correcting errors, as I am worried about how my students react to it.
	I do not correct errors; it deprives my students too much.

12. Order the following from the crucial ones = 1 to the least important ones = 4.

If a student makes an error in my class, it is mostly:

	corrected by the lecturer.
	corrected by other students.
	corrected by themselves.
	not corrected.

13. I believe that students learn English better when their errors are (Tick one option only):

	corrected by the lecturer.
	corrected by other students.
	corrected by themselves.
	all the three options above.
	not corrected.

14. In my opinion, an error is … (tick any appropriate box):

	1. anything in conflict with an expected reaction.
	2. anything not included in rules of British English.
	3. anything that a native speaker would not say, for example, slang, informal words etc. should not considered as errors.
	4. anything preventing understanding the sense or successful communication.
Other definition (please specify):	

15. Add any other thing below that you would want to change about error correction during speaking activities. Do you have anything interesting to add or comment on error correction practice or corrective feedback during speaking? Write additional opinion in the space below:

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

C. Error correction and giving feedback on written work:

1. In my opinion, correction in students' written work should (tick appropriate boxes):

	be done by the lecturer giving correct answers.
	only be done by underlining errors to signal where there is an error.
	only be done by using correction codes.
	be applied using all the three methods above.
	only focus on grammar rather than content.
	only focus on content as long as the message has been conveyed.
	not be done at all; it discourages students.

2. Which one of the statements below best describes your existing error feedback practice on your students' written work?

a. I do not indicate students' errors in writing.
b. I indicate ALL students' errors.
c. I indicate students' errors selectively.

If you circled c) in 2 above, answer Question 3, 4 and 5. If you circled a) or b) in 2 above, omit Question 3, 4 and 5, and go on to Question 6.

3. What strategy do you use when deciding on the language feature that you have to provide feedback?

_____

_____

4. Do you alert your students so that they are aware of the types of errors you will select to provide feedback before submitting their work to you for marking?

a. Yes	b. No

5. In your opinion, which of the following best describes the major principles for error selection, in case a lecturer decides to provide feedback selectively?

	The selected errors should be directly linked to grammar instruction in class. For example, after teaching Reported speech, the lecturer provides feedback on Reported speech errors.
	The selected errors should be related to students' specific needs. For example, if the lecturer knows that his or her students are particularly weak in adjectives, he or she provides feedback on adjective errors.
	The errors should be selected on an ad hoc basis. For example, the lecturer decides on what errors to provide feedback while he or she is marking the students' work.
Any other criteria?	

6. The comments I give to my students on their written work focusing on the following features, are rated as follow (tick a box for each feature):

	a lot	*a little*	*some*	*none*
organisation				
content or ideas				
grammar				
vocabulary				
mechanics (punctuation and spelling)				

7. In your opinion, which feature should receive attention and how often should it be corrected?

	always	*occasionally*	*rarely*	*never*
organisation				
content or ideas				
grammar				
vocabulary				
mechanics (punctuation and spelling)				

8. Do you think your students revise their written work and pay attention to your comments after you marked their work?

a) Yes b) No c) I do not know

d) (Other answer if any):

_____

_____

_____

9. Are you satisfied with the amount of comments you give to your students? **DONE**

a) Yes b) No c) Somewhat
d) If not, what prevents you from giving satisfactory comments?
_____
_____
_____
_____

10. Circle the amount of errors you mark in your students' work. **DONE**

a) About 1/3
b) About 2/3
c) More than 2/3

11. When I correct students' written work, I typically focus on (Arrange the following from the most frequent corrected errors = 1 to the least ones = 8.):

Writing errors			
	wrong tense used		concord (subject-verb-agreement)
	wrong verb form		spelling
	wrong word used		wrong or irrelevant answer
	wrong word order		style and register (acceptability in the given situation)

12. In my opinion, only the following errors should be corrected (Tick the boxes of your choice.):

Writing errors			
	wrong tense used		concord (subject-verb-agreement)
	wrong verb form		spelling
	wrong word used		wrong or irrelevant answer
	wrong word order		style and register (acceptability in the given situation)

Are there any other error types that you think should be corrected? Add them here:
_____
_____

13. Which of the following is true about your essay marking style? (Tick the appropriate box).

I underline or circle **all** my students' errors.	
I underline or circle **some** of my students' errors.	
I do **not** underline or circle **any** of my students' errors.	

14. Do you use marking codes for providing error feedback on your students' writing?

a. Yes b. No

15. If you answered "Yes" for Question 14 above, do you think your students understand the marking codes that you use and they are able to respond to your feedback easily?
a. Yes b. No

Give the reason for your answer here:
_____

_____
_____

16. After giving corrective feedback to your students on the errors they make in their essay, do they make the same errors again when you give them a new writing task?

b) Yes b) No

If yes, what do you think causes them to make the same error again?
_____
_____
_____

17. What do you usually do after marking your students' work? **You may tick more than one box.**

	Often	*Sometimes*	*Rarely*
I do not follow up.			
I hold a conference with each student or some students.			
I make students correct errors in or outside class.			
I make students record their errors in an error frequency chart.			
I go through students' common errors in class.			
Others (please specify):			

18. How often do you use the following error feedback techniques? Rate the frequency with which you use each of the techniques according to the scale below.

Feedback technique	*Never or rarely*	*Some times*	*Often or always*
I indicate (underline/circle) errors and correct them, for example, has ate *eaten.*			
I indicate (underline/circle) errors, correct them and categorise them (with the help of a marking code), for example, has ate *eaten. (vf).*			
I indicate (underline/circle) errors, but I don't correct them, for example, has ate.			
I indicate (underline/circle) errors and categorise them (with the help of a marking code), but I don't correct them, for example, has ate. *(vf).*			
I provide a hint at the location of errors, for example, by putting a mark in the margin to indicate an error on a specific line.			
I provide a hint at the location of errors and categorise them (with the help of a marking code), for example, by writing '*ww*' in the margin to indicate a 'wrong word used' error on a specific line.			

19. What factors influence the error feedback techniques you often use?

	Yes	*No*
When students request for a particular feedback technique.		
I follow my perception of students' needs.		
It depends on the amount of time I have.		
Other (please specify):		

20. Approximately, how much time do you spend marking one composition?

Less than 10 minutes	
10 to 20 minutes	
More than 20 minutes	

21. Do you have any concerns or problems with providing error feedback on students' writing?

Yes	No
If yes, please elaborate:	

22. Please read the statements below and tick the option that best represents your opinion about correction in ESL writing.

		Highly Agree	**Partially Agree**	**Not sure**	**Partially Disagree**	**Highly Disagree**
1	Providing explicit corrective feedback in ESL writing is useful because students can improve their writing by noticing the corrections that the lecturer provided.					
2	Lecturer's feedback on ESL writing makes students better writers.					
3	Comments with corrections are best.					
4	Comments are too much; the correct form is enough.					
5	My lecturer should show where the error is and give a clue about how to correct it.					
6	It is the lecturer's duty to correct all errors.					
7	My lecturer should use a red-pen when marking.					
8	Comments are useful for motivation, but not for grammar correction.					
9	Correction with comments is impolite and rude.					
10	Grammar is the most important to correct compared to spelling and punctuation.					
11	Lecturers should not correct every single					

	grammatical error in ESL writing; however, they should provide feedback on repetitive grammar errors.					
12	Time spent on grammar correction should be devoted to overall sentence organisation and logical development of arguments skills.					
13	Lecturers must make a follow up on the feedback they give on students' work.					
14	Students must revise their work on their own paying attention to the feedback provided.					
15	Error identification is not useful. Correction is best.					
16	Both error identification and correction are useful.					
17	Comments are useful for fluency, but not accuracy.					
18	The lecturer should always tell students the reasons for the errors.					
19	Lecturer should only mark errors that impede communication, and make general comments at the end.					
20	Lecturers' feedback must be brief and to the point.					
21	Lecturers should give detailed comments; the length does not matter.					
22	Lecturers should use correction codes rather than writing long comments.					

23. From the statements above, please choose the three most appealing statements in your opinion and explain why you agree or disagree with them.

4. _____
_____
_____

5. _____
_____
_____

6. _____
_____
_____

Thank you to all the lecturers who participated in this survey!

APPENDIX 3: Data presentation: lecturers' and students' questionnaires

4.2.1 Participants demographic information

Table 1: Students responses to Section A of their Questionnaire

Age group ↓	Gender		Total
	20 Females	20 Males	40
	↓	↓	↓
17-19	10	5	15
20-24	10	14	24
25-30	0	0	0
31-35	0	1	1
36-40	0	0	0
41-45	0	0	0
46-50	0	0	0
Total	20	20	40

Table 2: Students responses to Section A of their Questionnaire

Native language ↓	**Gender**		**Total**
	Female	Male	
Choque	0	1	1
French	1	0	1
Ggciriku	0	1	1
Oshiwambo	18	9	27
Tswana	1	0	1
Otjiherero	0	2	2
Rukwangali	0	3	3
Rumanyo	0	1	1
Silozi	0	1	1
Thimbukushu	0	1	1
Xhosa	0	1	1
Total	20	20	40

Table 3: Lecturers' responses for Section A in their Questionnaire

Lecturer	Gender	Age group	Native language	Highest qualification	Qualification major	English teaching experience
Lect 1	Male	31-35	Shona	Master (incomplete)	Communication	2 years
Lect 2	Male	41-45	Spanish/ English	Master (complete)	Linguistics	5 years
Lect 3	Female	25-30	Oshiwambo	Master (complete)	Literature	4 years
Lect 4	Female	25-30	English	Master (complete)	Linguistics Other: Literature	8 years
Lect 5	Female	31-35	Damara	Master (complete)	Literature	8 years
Lect 6	Female	41-45	Afrikaans	Master (complete)	Education	19 years
Lect 7	Female	46-50	Oshiwambo	Master (complete)	Applied Linguistics Other: Education	22 years
Lect 8	Female	36-40	English	Doctorate (complete)	Other (not specified)	15 years

Table 4: Responses on Question B13 (students' questionnaire) and Question B14 (lecturers' questionnaire)

In my opinion an error is:									
Respondent →	Students				Lecturers			Students & Lecturers Total	
	Females	Males	Total		Females	Males	Total	Females	Males
anything in conflict with an expected reaction.	1	3	4		0	0	0	1	3
anything not included in rules of British English.	6	7	13		2	0	2	8	7
anything that a native speaker would not say, for example, slang, informal	3	4	7		2	0	2	5	4

words etc. should not be considered as errors.									
anything preventing understanding the sense or successful communication.	11	10	21		5	2	7	16	12
Other definition (please specify):									
Students: Females: - Direct translation; using idioms where they do not fit. - Disorganisation of words in the English language. Use of slang language. - Anything that is preventing you from getting the correct answer. Males: - Anything that is wrong and not accepted when speaking. - Anything that confuse and collide with correction or expected reaction. - Anything that does not hold water. Anything that is wrongly performed.					Lecturers: None				

Table 5: Responses on Question B1 (students' questionnaire)

In comparison with students of the same level of English, I make errors...:		Results	Total
	Female	Male	
a) more often	7	5	12
b) similarly frequently	4	11	15
c) less often	9	4	13
Total	20	20	40

Table 6: Responses on Question B2 (students' questionnaire) and Question B1 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Statement →	If I make an error during an ESL speaking class, my lecturer's typical reactions are…:								When I realise a student has made an error when speaking in class, my typical reactions are…:							
Respondent →	Students								Lecturers							
	Females				Males				Females				Males			
Rating →	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
correction.	15	3	1	1	13	5	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	1	0	0
no correction, must self-correct.	1	2	5	12	1	3	10	6	0	2	3	1	0	0	0	2
no correction, other students correct.	0	3	14	3	1	4	7	8	0	3	2	1	0	0	2	0
sometimes correction, sometimes no reaction.	4	12	0	4	5	8	2	5	5	0	0	1	1	1	0	0
Total	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	6	6	6	6	2	2	2	2

Table 7: Responses on Question B11 (students' questionnaire) and Question B12 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Statement →	When I make an error in class, it is mostly …:								When a student makes an error in my class, it is mostly …:							
Respondent →	Students								Lecturers							
	Females				Males				Females				Males			
Rating →	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
corrected by the lecturer.	13	5	2	0	12	4	2	1	2	0	4	0	1	0	1	0
corrected by other students.	5	9	2	4	3	10	6	1	2	3	0	1	0	2	0	0
corrected by student self.	2	5	12	1	5	6	9	1	2	2	2	0	1	0	1	0
not corrected.	0	1	4	15	0	0	3	17	0	1	0	5	0	0	0	2
Total	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	6	6	6	6	2	2	2	2

Table 8: Responses on Question B12 (students' questionnaire) and Question B13 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Statement →	I believe that I learn English better when my errors are:			I believe that students learn English better when their errors are:		
Respondents →	Students			Lecturers		
	Female	Male	Total Females + Males	Female	Male	Total Females + Males
corrected by the lecturer.	6	8	14	0	0	0
corrected by other students.	1	0	1	0	0	0
corrected by myself/themselves.	3	3	6	2	1	3
all the three options above.	10	9	19	4	1	5
not corrected.	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	20	20	40	6	2	8

Table 9: Responses on Question B11 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Considering error correction in general, I can say that:				
Respondents → Lecturers →	Females		Males	Total
I always know how to deal with an error.	2		2	4 → (50%)
I am sometimes hesitant whether to correct or not, and if I opt to correct, I am not sure how I should assist the student suitably.	3		0	3 → (37.7%)
I often experience trouble with correcting errors, as I am worried about how my students react to it.	1		0	1 → (12.5%)

I do not correct errors; it deprives my students too much.	0		0	0 → (0%)

Table 10: Responses on Question B3 (students' questionnaire) and Question B2 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Statement →	My lecturer corrects my errors …:			In class, I correct my students' errors…:		
Respondent →	Students			Lecturers		
	Females	Males	Total	Females	Males	Total
too often	12	9	21	2	0	2
adequately	6	7	13	2	2	4
only rarely	2	4	6	2	0	2
never	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	20	20	40	6	2	8

Table 11: Responses on Question B7 (lecturers' questionnaire)

When correcting my students' errors during a speaking activity				
Respondents → Lecturers →	Females		Males	Total
I correct all the errors I hear.	1		1	2
I only correct grammar errors.	1		0	1
I only correct those errors that affect the message.	4		1	5

Table 12: Responses on Question B9 (lecturers' questionnaire)

In my opinion, errors in speaking should:			
Respondents → Lecturers →	Female	Male	Total
never be corrected.	0	0	0
be corrected in fluency activities only.	1	0	1

be corrected in accuracy activities only.	1	1	2
always be corrected, if possible.	4	1	5
Write the reason for your choice here: Females: - Correcting errors in fluency activities can break thought patterns. - Errors should always be corrected otherwise the student would not realise that he/she has made an error. - Errors should always be corrected. If not corrected, the student will not realise their mistake and will continue to make the same error. - Errors should always be corrected. Students should learn from their mistakes. Males: - Errors should always be corrected. This will help the student to always adhere to language rules and observe good grammar to gain self-confidence. - Speaking errors should be corrected in accuracy activity only. Correction should be based on activity goals and objectives.			

Table 13: Responses on Question B6 (students' questionnaire)

Statement →	In my opinion, my lecturer corrects errors …:		
Respondent →	Students		
	Females	Males	Total
more or less the same with all activities.	7	11	18
sometimes less, sometimes more - depends on the activity.	13	8	21
of some students less and of others more, regardless of the activity.	0	1	1
I do not know.	0	0	0
Total	20	20	40

Table 14: Responses on Question B5 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Statement →	In regards with frequency of providing feedback on errors, I give feedback to my students in speaking …:		
Respondent →	Lecturers		
	Females	Males	Total
more or less the same with all activities.	1	0	1
sometimes less, sometimes more – depends on the activity.	4	1	5
errors of some students less and of others more, regardless of the activity.	0	0	0
I do not follow any pattern. I correct automatically.	1	1	2

Other (please specify if any):	-	-	-
Total	6	2	8

Table 15: Responses on Question B6 (lecturers' questionnaire)
Some lecturers did not respond to all statements.

With respect to timing, I usually correct my students' spoken errors:										
Respondents → Lecturers →	Female				Male			Total		
Rating →	*most of the time*	*Some times*	*not at all*		*most of the time*	*Some times*	*not at all*	*most of the time*	*Some times*	*not at all*
immediately.	2	2	1		1	0	1	3	2	2
after the sentence containing the error.	1	4	0		1	1	0	2	5	0
after the student has stopped talking.	5	1	0		0	2	0	5	3	0
at the end of the whole activity	0	3	2		1	0	1	1	3	3
at the end of the lesson.	0	1	4		0	1	1	0	2	5
Total	8	11	7		3	4	3	11	15	10
If I do not give any feedback on my student's spoken error…										
Respondents → Lecturers →	Females				Males			Total		
it makes me feel guilty.	2				1			3		
it does not worry me much.	3				0			3		
Any other comment on timing when to provide feedback: *No any other feedback provided.*										

Table 16: Responses on Question B4 (students' questionnaire)

Statement →	If my lecturer corrects students' errors during a speaking class, it is typically…																	
	Students																	
Respondent →	Females									Males								
Rating →	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Total	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Total
wrong tense used	11	4	1	2	0	2	0	0	20	11	1	1	2	2	2	0	1	20
wrong verb form	2	5	3	5	4	1	0	0	20	1	9	3	5	1	1	0	0	20
wrong word used	0	0	8	0	6	2	4	0	20	2	1	5	5	3	4	0	0	20
wrong word order	1	1	1	6	1	2	1	7	20	1	1	3	2	5	2	5	1	20
concord (subject-verb-agreement)	1	4	3	4	0	4	4	0	20	3	3	5	3	1	1	3	1	20
pronunciation	2	1	4	1	4	4	2	2	20	1	3	2	1	5	3	3	2	20
wrong or irrelevant answer	3	4	0	1	2	4	4	2	20	1	2	1	1	2	5	6	2	20
style and register (acceptability in the given situation)	0	0	1	1	2	1	6	9	20	0	0	0	1	1	2	3	13	20

Table 17: Responses on Question B3 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Statement →	If I decide to correct my students' errors during a speaking class, it is typically…																	
	Lecturers																	
Respondent →	Females									Males								
Rating →	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Total	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Total
wrong tense used	1	0	1	2	1	1	0	0	6	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2
wrong verb form	0	1	2	1	1	1	0	0	6	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2
wrong word used	0	1	2	0	1	1	1	0	6	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	2
wrong word order	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	2	6	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2
concord (subject-verb-agreement)	2	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	2
pronunciation	0	2	0	1	0	1	1	1	6	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	2
wrong or irrelevant answer	3	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	6	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
style and register (acceptability in the given situation)	0	0	0	1	1	0	2	2	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2

Table 18: Responses on Question B5 (students' questionnaire)
Students' responses:

In my opinion, the following errors should be corrected during a speaking class. (Indicate who should correct each error type you select, for example, L=lecturer, S=self or O=other students.):											
Respondents → Students →	Females				Males				Total		
L = lecturer S = self O = other students	L	S	O		L	S	O		L	S	O
wrong tense used	15	0	5		9	7	4		24	7	9
wrong verb form	14	1	5		9	6	5		23	7	10
wrong word used	5	8	7		13	5	2		18	13	9
wrong word order	7	7	6		14	5	1		21	12	7
concord (subject-verb-agreement)	12	6	3		10	3	7		22	9	10
pronunciation	8	5	7		9	8	3		17	13	10
wrong or irrelevant answer	13	4	3		13	2	5		26	6	8
style and register (acceptability in the given situation)	8	2	10		10	7	3		18	9	13
TOTAL	82	33	46		87	43	30		169	76	76
Are there any other error types that you think should be corrected? Add them here:	Female: - Parts of speech. - Sentence construction - Wrong punctuation - Punctuation - Punctuation when a student does not have an idea of what to put where when writing a sentence – must be corrected by the lecturer. - Spelling of words - Spelling of words - Spelling of words students should correct that by reading more. - All the errors above need to be corrected. - Speaking other languages during English class should not be allowed. - Students should be prevented from speaking home										

	language. - Answering during the lecture as they wish; this should be corrected by students. - No participation during lecture; should be corrected by the lecturer. - Using street English or sms language – to be corrected by others and lecturer.
	Male: - Vocabulary errors – using the same word over and over. - I think there should be presentations on the subject so that students can become confident in speaking. - Using native languages in a sentence, e.g. 'kama' - The use of slang language when writing. - Pronunciation of certain vocabulary should be corrected by the lecturer. - Wrong pronunciation of the words and sometimes wrong formation of language should be corrected by the lecturer. - Reported speech, direct or indirect to be corrected by student self and lecturer. - Everyone in class must always get serious, meaning no one will laugh whenever I made a mistake when speaking in class. The lecturer must be responsible for that.

Table 19: Responses on Question B4 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Note: Some lecturers ticked only some errors and leave others blank.

In my opinion, only the following errors should be corrected during speaking.			
Respondents → Lecturers →	Female	Male	Total
wrong tense used	3	1	4
wrong verb form	4	1	5
wrong word used	3	1	4
wrong word order	2	1	3
concord (subject-verb-agreement)	3	1	4
pronunciation	5	1	6

wrong/ irrelevant answer	5	2	7
style and register (acceptability in the given situation)	3	1	4
Are there any other error types that you think should be corrected? Add them here:	Females: - Incorrect phrase construction, e.g. "more cheaper".		
	Males: - Not another error per se, but strategies for communication and fluency.		

Table 21: Responses on Question B11 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Considering error correction in general, I can say that:			
Respondents → **F = Female; M = Male →**	Lecturers F (%)	Lecturers M (%)	Total F+M (%)
I always know how to deal with an error.	33.3	100	**50**
I am sometimes hesitant whether to correct or not, and if I opt to correct, I am not sure how I should assist the student suitably.	**50**	0	37.5
I often experience trouble with correcting errors, as I am worried about how my students react to it.	16.7	0	12.5
I do not correct errors; it deprives my students too much.	0	0	0

Table 22: Responses on Question B8 (students' questionnaire)

Statement →	When my lecturer corrects students' errors during speaking activities …																
	Students																
Respondent →	Females								Males								
Rating →	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	F+M Total
he or she provides correct version of the error.	12	3	0	2	2	0	0	19	12	0	1	1	3	1	1	19	38
he or she uses body language to signal that the student made an error.	3	3	2	1	1	1	6	17	4	3	5	2	0	1	2	17	34
he or she asks questions to alert the student that there is an error in order to correct himself or herself.	2	6	7	0	2	1	0	18	4	11	1	1	1	2	0	20	38
he or she asks questions for clarification to let the student	5	2	5	4	2	0	0	18	3	3	7	5	1	0	0	19	37

realise an error.																	
he or she repeats an error to make the student realise there is an error.	1	3	2	7	3	3	0	19	1	1	2	7	4	1	1	17	36
he or she repeats the part of the student's utterance except the erroneous part and signals that the student should fill in the rest with the correct form.	1	0	0	2	3	4	4	14	1	2	1	1	2	8	1	16	30
he or she reformulates all or part of a student's utterance, using the correct form, excluding the error.	2	0	1	0	3	5	3	14	0	1	1	1	2	2	8	15	29

Table 23: Responses on Question B8 (Lecturers' questionnaire)

Statement →	When correcting my students' errors during a speaking activity …																
	Lecturers																
Respondent →	Females								Males								
Rating →	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	F+M Total
I provide correct version of the error to my students.	1	0	1	2	0	1	1	6	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	7
I use body language to signal that the student made an error.	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
I ask questions to alert the student that there is an error in order to correct him- or herself.	2	0	2	1	0	0	0	5	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	6
I ask questions for clarification to let the student realise an error.	1	4	0	0	1	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6
I repeat an error to make the student realise there is an error.	1	1	0	1	0	2	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
I repeat the part of the student's utterance except the erroneous part and signal that the student should fill in the rest with the correct form.	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	4	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	5
I reformulate all or part of a student's utterance, using the correct form, excluding the error.	1	1	1	0	2	0	1	6	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	7

Table 24: Comparison of students and lecturers' responses about lecturers' style of providing corrective feedback (Responses on Question B8 of lecturers' and students questionnaire)

Table 25: Responses on Question B10 (students' questionnaire)

One female student only ticked only one statement that it is very good when the lecturer tells about the error and corrects it. Some students even double ticked the column of very good if the lecturer corrects their errors and explains what was wrong and why.

When I make an error during speaking, it is:									
Respondents → Students →	Female					Male			
	very good	*good*	*not good*	*very bad*		*very good*	*good*	*not good*	*very bad*
when my lecturer does not correct me at all.	1	0	5	13		0	2	6	12
when my lecturer tells me that I have made an error but I must self-correct.	3	5	9	2		5	8	5	2
when my lecturer tells me about the error and corrects me.	12	7	0	1		9	10	1	0
when my lecturer tells me the correct form and lets me repeat it.	11	7	1	0		11	7	2	0
when my lecturer lets other students correct my error.	5	7	3	4		1	10	7	2
when my lecturer corrects my error and explains what was wrong and why.	18	1	0	0		18	2	0	0
when nobody points out that I made an error.	0	1	2	16		0	1	6	13

Table 25: Responses on Question B10 (students' questionnaire)
Specific preference on error treatment (Student: B10)

Summary of findings

When I make an error during speaking, it is:				
Respondents → Students →	Total Females + Males			
	very good	*good*	*not good*	*very bad*
when my lecturer does not correct me at all.	1	2	11	25
when my lecturer tells me that I have made an error but I must self-correct.	8	13	14	4
when my lecturer tells me about the error and corrects me.	21	17	1	1
when my lecturer tells me the correct form and lets me repeat it.	22	14	3	0
when my lecturer lets other students correct my error.	6	17	10	6
when my lecturer corrects my error and explains what was wrong and why.	36	3	0	0
when nobody points out that I made an error.	0	2	8	29

Table 26: Responses on Question B7 (students' questionnaire)
Two male students did not answer this question.

If I make an error while speaking in class and be corrected, my typical reaction is:										
Respondents → Students →	Female				Male			Total		
Rating →	*most of the time*	*Some times*	*not at all*		*most of the time*	*Some times*	*not at all*	*most of the time*	*Some times*	*not at all*
nothing at all, I continue speaking, I cannot be distracted from the thought.	5	7	8		6	8	4	11	15	12
I admit the error, think about it, and then continue.	10	7	3		11	7	0	21	10	3

I ask my lecturer about the error and the correct solution.	8	10	2		6	8	4	14	18	6
I am frustrated because of it and do not want to continue speaking.	1	4	15		2	7	9	3	11	24
I get out of balance so much that I forget what I was saying.	3	9	8		2	6	10	5	15	18
Total										

Other:
Females:
- I get confused sometimes and mix up the words.
- I feel ashamed of myself.
- I laugh at my mistake, apologise and continue.
- I become stubborn. Starts to put up an argument, sometimes.

Males:
- I feel shocked but I don't show it.
- I get ashamed of myself. I decrease my level of participating in the next class.
- A lecturer should not correct students while speaking.
- Correction is necessary to improve my language.
- Correction is only necessary when the error is serious.

Table 27: Responses on Question B10 (lecturers' questionnaire)
Note: One lecturer only ranked two statements (3&5)

The most common reaction of my students to my signaling of an error in speaking is:					
Respondents → Lecturers → Female					
Rating →	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
nothing at all, they continue speaking, cannot be distracted from the thought.	1	3	0	1	0
they accept my signal, think about it, correct the error and go on talking.	4	0	1	0	0
they are unable to self-correct, it is necessary to interrupt them and discuss the error.	1	1	2	1	1
they are frustrated because of the error and unwilling to continue talking.	0	0	1	1	3
they get out of balance so much that they forget what they were saying.	0	1	2	2	1
Respondents → Lecturers → Male					

Rating →	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
nothing at all, they continue speaking, cannot be distracted from the thought.	0	1	1	0	0
they accept my signal, think about it, correct the error and go on talking.	2	0	0	0	0
they are unable to self-correct, it is necessary to interrupt them and discuss the error.	0	1	0	0	1
they are frustrated because of the error and unwilling to continue talking.	0	0	0	2	0
they get out of balance so much that they forget what they were saying.	0	0	1	0	1

Table 27: Responses on Question B10 (lecturers' questionnaire)
Students' typical reaction to correction (Students: AQ7; Lecturers: QA10)

ii) Summary of Lecturers' responses

The most common reaction of my students to my signaling of an error in speaking is:					
Respondents → Lecturers → Females + Males					
Rating →	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
nothing at all, they continue speaking, cannot be distracted from the thought.	1	4	1	1	0
they accept my signal, think about it, correct the error and go on talking.	6	0	1	0	0
they are unable to self-correct, it is necessary to interrupt them and discuss the error.	1	2	2	1	2
they are frustrated because of the error and unwilling to continue talking.	0	0	1	3	3
they get out of balance so much that they forget what they were saying.	0	1	3	2	2

Table 28: Responses on Question B9 (students' questionnaire)

I would appreciate it if my lecturer...:			
Respondents → Students →	Female	Male	Total
a) kept on correcting the way he or she does.	16	16	32
b) changed her or his way of correcting	4	4	8

If b) how?

Females:

- By correcting students' errors by indicating where a student has made an error and providing the correct way. After that a student should be given a chance to show that he/she understood.
- Correct the student's error that time so the student won't repeat it again.
- Give individual corrections like on essays.
- Minimise the use of correction codes. (this belongs to Sec B)
- Lecturer must always let the student know that he or she made an error by providing a correct version of the error.
- Lecturer can continue as she does but maybe just giving a few more examples.

Males:

- Explain errors and give answers if I don't know.
- Lecturer can continue as she does but improve on the approach of correcting students.
- By making me repeat what I have said myself and identify my error for me to correct myself.
- Call me after class so we can talk about it in person.
- Lecturer can continue correcting as he does but should let the student who made an error to correct the error first, if gets stuck then other students will help, but if no one can give the answer then the lecturer gives some hints that lead to an answer.
- My lecturer should not be so fast in correcting and the lecturer must build interpersonal environment and make it contusive so that it will be easier for students to express their concerns and be free.

Table 29: Comments made by students and lecturers: B14 (students' questionnaire) and B15 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Lecturers' and students' preferences on what should happen when correcting errors during speaking activities

Lecturers' and students' suggestions on error correction practice. These are statements expressed by students and lecturers on what they prefer to still be done as far as error correction is concerned. These statements are not matched.

Students		Lecturers	
	An error must be corrected at that moment someone made it.		Focus should be primarily on the activity's objective.
	A lecturer and other students should listen attentively when someone is speaking so that they will pick up where the student has gone wrong. The error must be corrected immediately before that student continues speaking.		Corrective feedback should be done in such a way that it is beneficial to the student who has erred and the whole class. The student should not feel less confident after the correction.
	An error can be corrected by correcting the students in		I often hesitate to correct students because I do not want to embarrass them and cause them to stop speaking.
	I think it is wise to force students to correct themselves and after making mistakes they should be given some similar tasks and see if they will still make those errors.		An effective way would be noting down the errors and discuss them with the whole class at the end of the activity, irrespective of who made the error.
	Students should tape record themselves regularly when speaking and later let them listen to themselves in class and then correct their mistakes.		
	Talk to the student who has made an error and try to correct him or her in class so that other students can also learn from the correction.		

	An error can be corrected by correcting the students in typical method by the lecturer and he or she involves the friends who made any error.		
	The lecturer and other students must always write down all the errors that others have made and have a lesson on all the errors made. By doing that, it will help everyone improve.		
	Let the student talk till he or she is done but the lecturer should be recording all the errors that the students make and later tell them about the errors and correct them.		
	Lecturers must wait for the student to finish talking then correct the errors after the student is done with speaking. Lecturers must never leave errors uncorrected.		
	I think the errors stated on writing in this questionnaire are enough and they are the only one I know.		
	The lecturer should always correct students when an error has occurred. Students should be encouraged to ask the lecturers if or when they have made an error.		
	Emphasis should be put on correcting tenses and subject-verb-agreement.		
	When students are speaking or discussing answers, they must speak slowly so that other students and even a student himself or herself can see that there is an error in the answer.		
	An error to be corrected		

	should be anything that is not appropriate for that moment.		
	Pronunciation also needs to be corrected so it is good for a student who made an error to be corrected on how to pronoun certain words correctly.		
	Correction should focus and pay attention to tenses.		
	When one makes an error, the lecturer must notify them and then ask them to correct that error. If the student cannot correct him or herself, other students can then help as well as the lecturer.		
	Class participation should be encouraged; activities including speeches and presentation should be done more often.		
	Correction of sms words such as ‘coz’ should also be corrected during speaking.		
	Lecturers should increase the activity of correcting students for them to feel free when being corrected and for the students to be encouraged to ask when they realise that the vocabulary they are using is wrong.		
	Make students understand or accept correction when the error is being corrected by lecturers or other students.		
	Students should be corrected when sometimes they pronoun words using ‘l’ instead of ‘r’.		

Table 30: Responses on Question C2 (lecturers' and students' questionnaires)

Statement →	Description of lecturer's existing error feedback practice on students' written work:						
Respondent →	Students			Lecturers			St+Lec Total
	Females	Males	Total	Females	Males	Total	
Lecturer does not indicate errors in students' essays.	1	2	3	0	0	0	3
Lecturer indicates ALL the errors in students' essays.	16	12	28	5	1	6	34
Lecturer indicates the errors in students' essays selectively.	3	6	9	1	1	2	11
Total	20	20	40	6	2	8	48

Table 30: Responses on Question C2 (lecturers' and students' questionnaires)
Explanations and of the two lecturers who indicated that they mark errors in students' work selectively. (Lecturers: C3, 4&5)

	strategy used when deciding on the language feature to be marked	whether lecturer alerts students so that they are aware of the types of errors will be focused on before submitting their work for marking	description of the major principles for error selection
Lect. 1	Focus on grammar mistakes	No	The selected errors should be related to students' specific needs. For example, if the lecturer knows that his or her students are particularly weak in adjectives, he or she provides feedback on adjective errors.
Lect. 2	*No answer provided*	Yes	The errors should be selected on an ad hoc basis. For example, the lecturer decides on what errors to provide feedback while he or she is marking the students' work.

Table 31: Responses on Question C10 (Lecturers' questionnaire)

How much errors do you mark in your students' work?			
	Respondents: Lecturers		Total
	Female	Male	
About 1/3	0	0	0
About 2/3	3	1	4
More than 2/3	3	1	4
Total	6	2	8

Table 32: Responses on Question C6 (students' questionnaire)

Are you satisfied with the overall amount of comments you receive from your lecturer on your essay?			
Respondents →	Students		Total
	Female	Male	
yes	12	7	19
somewhat	5	10	15
no	2	2	4
Not at all	1	1	2
Total	20	20	40

Table 33: Responses on Question C9 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Are you satisfied with the amount of comments you give to your students?			
Respondents →	Lecturers		Total
	Female	Male	
yes	6	1	7
somewhat	0	1	1
no	0	0	0
If not, what prevents you from giving satisfactory comments?	-	-	
Total	6	2	8

Table 34: Responses on Question C20 (lecturers' questionnaire)

What factors influence the error feedback techniques you often use?				
Respondents → Lecturers →		Female	Male	Total Females + Males
When students request for a particular feedback technique.	Yes	2	0	2
	No	2	0	2
I follow my perception of students' needs.	Yes	5	2	7
	No	0	0	0
It depends on the amount of time I have.	Yes	3	0	3
	No	2	0	2
Other (please specify): N/A				

Table 35: Responses on Question C13 (students' questionnaire) and Question C9 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Which of the following is true about your essay when it comes back from your lecturer?				Which of the following is true about your essay marking style?			
Respondents: →	Students			Respondents: →	Lecturers		
Statements:↓	Female	Male	Total	Statements:↓	Female	Male	Total
My English lecturer underlines or circles **all** my errors.	14	12	26	I underline or circle **all** my students' errors.	5	1	6
My English lecturer underlines or circles **some** of my errors.	6	8	14	I underline or circle **some** of my students' errors.	1	1	2
My English lecturer does **not** underline or circle **any** of my errors.	0	0	0	I do **not** underline or circle **any** of my students' errors.	0	0	0
Total →	20	20	40	Total →	6	2	8

Table 36: Responses on Question C19 (lecturers' questionnaire)

How often do you use the following error feedback techniques?				
	Respondents: Lecturers			Total
		Female	Male	F+M
1. I indicate (underline/circle) errors and correct them, for example, has ate *eaten.*	*Never or rarely*	1	0	1
	Some times	1	0	1
	Often or always	2	1	3
2. I indicate (underline/circle) errors, correct them and categorise them (with the help of a marking code), for example, has ate *eaten. (vf).*	*Never or rarely*	3	0	3
	Some times	0	1	1
	Often or always	1	1	2
3. I indicate (underline/circle) errors, but I don't correct them, for example, has ate.	*Never or rarely*	2	1	3
	Some times	0	0	0
	Often or always	2	0	2
4. I indicate (underline/circle) errors and categorise them (with the help of a marking code), but I don't correct them, for example, has ate. *(vf).*	*Never or rarely*	2	1	3
	Some times	1	0	1
	Often or always	2	0	2
5. I provide a hint at the location of errors, for example, by putting a mark in the margin to indicate an error on a specific line.	*Never or rarely*	3	0	3
	Some times	1	1	2
	Often or always	0	0	0
6. I provide a hint at the location of errors and categorise them (with the help of a marking code), for example, by writing '*ww*' in the margin to indicate a 'wrong word used' error on a specific line.	*Never or rarely*	3	0	3
	Some times	1	1	2
	Often or always	1	0	1

Table 37: Responses on Question C10, C11 and C12 (students' questionnaire)

Does your lecturer use a correction code in marking your essays (i.e. using symbols like wv., agr., wt, etc., or using colours to highlight different errors)?		
Respondents → Students↓	Yes	No
Females →	18	2
Males →	17	3
Total Females + Males →	35	5

If yes, how much of your lecturer's marking symbols (e.g., wv., agr., wt, sp) do you understand when you are correcting errors in your essays?				
Respondents → Students ↓	Most of them (76-100%)	Some of them (51-75%)	Few of them (26-50%)	Very little of them (0-25%)
Females →	7	7	4	0
Males →	4	10	3	0
Total Females + Males →	11	17	7	0

How much of your errors are you able to correct with the help of your lecturer's marking symbols?				
Respondents → Students ↓	Most of them (76-100%)	Some of them (51-75%)	Few of them (26-50%)	Very little of them (0-25%)
Females →	8	8	1	1
Males →	4	9	3	1
Total Females + Males →	12	17	4	2

Table 38: Responses on Question C14and C15 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Do you use marking codes for providing error feedback on your students' writing?		
Respondents → Lecturers ↓	Yes	No
Females →	3	3
Males →	1	1
Total Females + Males →	4	4
If yes, do you think your students understand the marking codes that you use and they are able to respond to your feedback easily?		
Respondents → Lecturers ↓	Yes	No
Females →	3	0
Males →	1	0
Total Females + Males →	4	0
Give the reason for your answer here:		
Females →	- I indicate to the students what or how they were supposed to write. (*Lecturer **does not use** marking codes*) - I discuss marking codes with them and explain the meaning of the various codes. (*Lecturer **uses** marking codes*) - The error codes are discussed in class. (*Lecturer **uses** marking codes*) - Because marking codes are in the study guide and I always make reference to them when giving feedback. (*Lecturer **uses** marking codes*)	
Males →	- *No reason provided.*	

Table 39: Responses on Question C1 (students' questionnaire) and Question C1 (lecturers' questionnaire)
Those who ticked all the top three statement are only counted for the fourth statement that includes all the top three statements.

Statement →	In my opinion, correction in students' written work should …:						
Respondent →	Students			Lecturers			St+Lec Total
	Females	Males	Total	Females	Males	Total	
be done by the lecturer giving correct answers.	9	4	13	1	1	2	15
be done more by underlining errors to signal where there is an error.	6	5	11	2	1	3	14
be done more by using correction codes.	1	4	5	1	0	1	6
be applied using all the three methods above.	9	11	20	3	1	4	24
focus more on grammar rather than content.	5	5	10	0	1	1	11
focus more on content as long as the message has been conveyed.	3	2	5	0	1	1	6
rather not be done; it discourages students.	1	0	1	0	0	0	1

Table 40: Responses on Question C5 (students' questionnaire) and Question C7 (lecturers' questionnaire)
Students' responses

In your opinion, which feature should receive attention and how often should it be corrected?									
Respondents → Students →	Female					Male			
	always	*occasionally*	*rarely*	*never*		*always*	*occasionally*	*rarely*	*never*
organisation	10	6	1	0		5	13	0	0
content or ideas	11	6	0	0		9	8	0	0
grammar	19	1	0	0		16	2	0	1
vocabulary	12	4	1	0		8	5	5	0
mechanics (punctuation and spelling)	15	0	2	1		10	8	1	0

Table 40: Responses on Question C5 (students' questionnaire) and Question C7 (lecturers' questionnaire)
Lecturers' responses

In your opinion, which feature should receive attention and how often should it be corrected?									
Respondents → Lecturers →	Female					Male			
	always	*occasionally*	*rarely*	*never*		*always*	*occasionally*	*rarely*	*never*
organisation	4	1	0	0		2	0	0	0
content or ideas	4	1	0	0		1	1	0	0
grammar	6	0	0	0		2	0	0	0
vocabulary	4	2	0	0		2	0	0	0
mechanics (punctuation and spelling)	5	1	0	0		2	0	0	0

Table 40: Responses on Question C5 (students' questionnaire) and Question C7 (lecturers' questionnaire)
Summary: Lecturers' and students' responses

In your opinion, which feature should receive attention and how often should it be corrected?									
Respondents →	Students: Females + Males					Lecturers: Females + Males			
	always	*occasionally*	*rarely*	*never*		*always*	*occasionally*	*rarely*	*never*
organisation	15	19	1	0		6	1	0	0
content or ideas	20	14	0	0		5	2	0	0
grammar	35	3	0	1		8	0	0	0
vocabulary	20	9	6	0		6	2	0	0
mechanics (punctuation and spelling)	25	8	3	1		7	1	0	0

Table 41: A summary of responses on Question C4 (students' questionnaire) and Question C6 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Statement →	The rate of comment that lecturers give on students written work focusing on the following features:															
Respondent →	Students								Lecturers							
	Females				Males				Females				Males			
Rating →	*a lot*	*a little*	*some*	*none*	*a lot*	*a little*	*some*	*none*	*a lot*	*a little*	*some*	*none*	*a lot*	*a little*	*some*	*none*
organisation	9	3	5	3	6	5	5	4	4	1	1	0	1	1	0	0
content or ideas	11	5	3	1	9	6	3	2	5	1	0	0	1	0	1	0
grammar	17	1	2	0	16	2	2	0	6	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
vocabulary	12	3	4	1	5	11	3	1	4	2	0	0	2	0	0	0
mechanics (punctuation and spelling)	15	3	2	0	12	4	3	1	5	1	0	0	1	0	1	0

Table 41: A summary of responses on Question C4 (students' questionnaire) and Question C6 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Statement →	The rate of comment that lecturers give on students written work focusing on the following features:							
Respondent →	Students				Lecturers			
Rating →	*a lot*	*a little*	*some*	*None*	*a lot*	*a little*	*some*	*none*
organisation	15	8	10	7	5	2	1	0
content or ideas	20	11	6	3	6	1	1	0
grammar	33	3	4	0	8	0	0	0
vocabulary	17	14	7	2	6	2	0	0
mechanics (punctuation and spelling)	27	7	5	1	6	1	1	0

Table 42: Responses on Question C8 (students' questionnaire)

In my opinion, the following errors should be corrected. (Indicate who should correct each error type you select, for example, L=lecturer or S=self.):								
Respondents → Students →	Females			Males			Total	
L = lecturer S = self	L	S		L	S		L	S
wrong tense used	17	3		11	8		28	11
wrong verb form	14	6		12	7		26	13
wrong word used	6	14		11	8		17	22
wrong word order	6	14		13	5		19	19
concord (subject-verb-agreement)	16	4		11	8		27	12
spelling	14	6		7	12		21	18
wrong or irrelevant answer	14	6		13	6		27	12
style and register (acceptability in the given situation)	11	7		16	3		27	10
TOTAL	98	60		94	57		192	117

Table 43: Responses on Question C12 (lecturers' questionnaire)

In my opinion, only the following errors should be corrected:			
Respondents → Lecturers →	Female	Male	Total
wrong tense used	5	1	6
wrong verb form	5	1	6
wrong word used	5	1	6
wrong word order	5	2	7

concord (subject-verb-agreement)	4	2	6
spelling	5	1	6
wrong or irrelevant answer	3	2	5
style and register (acceptability in the given situation)	2	2	4

Are there any other error types that you think should be corrected?

Females:

- Preposition errors
- Singular and plural form errors
- I believe all errors need to be corrected. Students need to know all language aspects.

Males:

-

Table 44: Responses on Question C7 (students' questionnaire)

Statement →	When my lecturer corrects my written work, he or she typically focuses on …																	
	Students																	
Respondent →	Females									Males								
Rating →	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Total	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Total
wrong tense used	9	6	2	2	0	0	0	1	20	7	4	3	2	4	0	0	0	20
wrong verb form	1	5	6	3	4	1	0	0	20	0	2	5	3	3	5	1	1	20
wrong word used	0	2	3	4	3	4	2	2	20	2	1	2	5	4	2	3	1	20
wrong word order	0	0	1	3	1	7	6	2	20	1	1	2	2	6	4	1	3	20
concord (subject-verb-agreement)	4	3	4	1	4	1	1	2	20	1	4	5	4	0	2	4	0	20
spelling	6	2	4	3	2	1	0	2	20	8	5	1	1	4	0	0	1	20
wrong or irrelevant answer	2	0	0	3	3	3	7	2	20	1	3	1	3	0	5	6	1	20
style and register (acceptability in the given situation)	0	1	0	0	2	3	5	9	20	0	0	1	0	0	1	5	13	20

Table 45: Responses on Question C11 (students' questionnaire)

Statement →	When I correct students' written work, I typically focus on …																	
	Lecturers																	
Respondent →	Females									Males								
Rating →	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Total	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Total
wrong tense used	1	2	1	2	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2
wrong verb form	1	0	3	1	0	1	0	0	6	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	2
wrong word used	0	1	0	1	1	3	0	0	6	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
wrong word order	1	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	6	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2
concord (subject-verb-agreement)	2	2	1	0	1	0	0	0	6	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	2
spelling	0	1	1	1	2	1	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
wrong or irrelevant answer	1	0	0	1	1	0	2	1	6	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
style and register (acceptability in the given situation)	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	6	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	2

Table 46: Responses on Question C17 (students' questionnaire) and Question C23 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Please read the statements below and tick the option that best represents your opinion about correction in ESL writing. ***(Students: C17)***

Indicate your opinion about correction in ESL writing.					
		Respondents: Students			**Total**
1	Providing explicit corrective feedback in ESL writing is useful because students can improve their writing by noticing the corrections that the lecturer provided.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	18	15	**33**
		Partially agree	1	5	**6**
		Not sure	0	0	**0**
		Partially disagree	1	0	**1**
		Highly disagree	0	0	**0**
2	Lecturers' feedback on ESL writing makes students better writers.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	15	17	**32**
		Partially agree	4	3	**7**
		Not sure	1	0	**1**
		Partially disagree	0	0	**0**
		Highly disagree	0	0	**0**

3	Comments with corrections are best.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	12	13	**25**
		Partially agree	8	5	**13**
		Not sure	0	1	**1**
		Partially disagree	0	1	**1**
		Highly disagree	0	0	**0**
4	Comments are too much; the correct form is enough.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	0	0	**0**
		Partially agree	9	10	**19**
		Not sure	2	4	**6**
		Partially disagree	5	3	**8**
		Highly disagree	4	3	**7**
5	Lecturers should show where the error is and give a clue about how to correct it.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	14	11	**25**
		Partially agree	5	5	**10**
		Not sure	0	1	**1**
		Partially disagree	0	3	**3**
		Highly disagree	0	0	**0**
6	It is the lecturers' duty to correct all errors.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	2	5	**7**
		Partially agree	7	8	**15**
		Not sure	3	2	**5**
		Partially disagree	8	2	**10**
		Highly disagree	0	3	**3**
7	Lecturers should use a red-pen when marking.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	17	14	**31**
		Partially agree	2	5	**7**
		Not sure	0	1	**1**
		Partially disagree	0	0	**0**
		Highly disagree	0	0	**0**
8	Comments are useful for motivation, but not for grammar correction.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	1	3	**4**
		Partially agree	2	6	**8**
		Not sure	4	3	**7**
		Partially disagree	4	3	**7**
		Highly disagree	9	5	**14**

9	Correction with comments is impolite and rude.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	0	0	**0**
		Partially agree	0	3	**3**
		Not sure	2	0	**2**
		Partially disagree	6	6	**12**
		Highly disagree	12	11	**23**
10	Grammar is most important to correct compared to spelling and punctuation.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	2	4	**6**
		Partially agree	4	3	**7**
		Not sure	4	0	**4**
		Partially disagree	3	5	**8**
		Highly disagree	7	8	**15**
11	Lecturers should not correct every single grammatical error in ESL writing; however, they should provide feedback on repetitive grammar errors.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	2	5	**7**
		Partially agree	9	5	**14**
		Not sure	1	2	**3**
		Partially disagree	2	0	**2**
		Highly disagree	6	8	**14**
12	Time spent on grammar correction should be devoted to overall sentence organisation and logical development of arguments skills.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	5	1	**6**
		Partially agree	4	9	**13**
		Not sure	7	6	**13**
		Partially disagree	2	2	**4**
		Highly disagree	2	2	**4**
13	Lecturers must make a follow up on the feedback they give on students' work.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	11	11	**22**
		Partially agree	7	7	**14**
		Not sure	1	1	**2**
		Partially disagree	1	1	**2**
		Highly disagree	0	0	**0**
14	Students must revise their work on their own paying attention to the feedback provided.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**

		Highly agree	12	14	**26**
		Partially agree	7	6	**13**
		Not sure	0	0	**0**
		Partially disagree	1	0	**1**
		Highly disagree	0	0	**0**
15	Error identification is not useful. Correction is best.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	4	3	**7**
		Partially agree	2	3	**5**
		Not sure	1	3	**4**
		Partially disagree	4	0	**4**
		Highly disagree	8	11	**19**
16	Both error identification and correction are useful.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	12	14	**26**
		Partially agree	4	5	**9**
		Not sure	0	0	**0**
		Partially disagree	1	0	**1**
		Highly disagree	1	0	**1**
17	Comments are useful for fluency, but not accuracy.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	2	1	**3**
		Partially agree	8	7	**15**
		Not sure	5	6	**11**
		Partially disagree	4	3	**7**
		Highly disagree	1	2	**3**
18	The lecturers should always tell students the reasons for the errors.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	13	10	**23**
		Partially agree	6	9	**15**
		Not sure	1	0	**1**
		Partially disagree	0	0	**0**
		Highly disagree	0	1	**1**
19	Lecturers should only mark errors that impede communication, and make general comments at the end.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	0	3	**3**
		Partially agree	5	7	**12**
		Not sure	8	4	**12**
		Partially disagree	5	1	**6**
		Highly disagree	2	5	**7**

20	Lecturers' feedback must be brief and to the point.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	11	10	**21**
		Partially agree	4	9	**13**
		Not sure	1	0	**1**
		Partially disagree	4	1	**5**
		Highly disagree	0	0	**0**
21	Lecturers should give detailed comments; the length does not matter.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	6	9	**15**
		Partially agree	7	5	**12**
		Not sure	2	1	**3**
		Partially disagree	4	3	**7**
		Highly disagree	1	2	**3**
22	Lecturers should use correction codes rather than writing long comments.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	2	2	**4**
		Partially agree	4	8	**12**
		Not sure	2	6	**8**
		Partially disagree	6	2	**8**
		Highly disagree	6	2	**8**

Table 46: Responses on Question C17 (students' questionnaire) and Question C23 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Please read the statements below and tick the option that best represents your opinion about correction in ESL writing. **(Lecturers: C23)**

Indicate your opinion about correction in ESL writing.					
		Respondents: Lecturers			**Total**
1	Providing explicit corrective feedback in ESL writing is useful because students can improve their writing by noticing the corrections that the lecturer provided.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	3	1	**4**
		Partially agree	2	1	**3**
		Not sure	0	0	**0**
		Partially disagree	0	0	**0**
		Highly disagree	0	0	**0**

2	Lecturers' feedback on ESL writing makes students better writers.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	1	0	**1**
		Partially agree	4	1	**5**
		Not sure	0	0	**0**
		Partially disagree	0	0	**0**
		Highly disagree	0	0	**0**
3	Comments with corrections are best.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	4	0	**4**
		Partially agree	1	1	**2**
		Not sure	0	0	**0**
		Partially disagree	0	0	**0**
		Highly disagree	0	0	**0**
4	Comments are too much; the correct form is enough.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	0	0	**0**
		Partially agree	2	0	**2**
		Not sure	0	1	**1**
		Partially disagree	0	0	**0**
		Highly disagree	2	0	**2**
5	Lecturers should show where the error is and give a clue about how to correct it.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	4	0	**4**
		Partially agree	1	1	**2**
		Not sure	1	0	**1**
		Partially disagree	0	0	**0**
		Highly disagree	0	0	**0**
6	It is the lecturers' duty to correct all errors.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	0	0	**0**
		Partially agree	2	0	**2**
		Not sure	0	0	**0**
		Partially disagree	0	1	**1**
		Highly disagree	3	0	**3**
7	Lecturers should use a red-pen when marking.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	1	0	**1**
		Partially agree	0	0	**0**
		Not sure	1	0	**1**
		Partially disagree	1	1	**2**
		Highly disagree	2	0	**2**

8	Comments are useful for motivation, but not for grammar correction.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	0	0	**0**
		Partially agree	0	0	**0**
		Not sure	0	0	**0**
		Partially disagree	1	1	**2**
		Highly disagree	4	0	**4**
9	Correction with comments is impolite and rude.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	0	0	**0**
		Partially agree	0	0	**0**
		Not sure	0	0	**0**
		Partially disagree	0	1	**1**
		Highly disagree	5	0	**5**
10	Grammar is most important to correct compared to spelling and punctuation.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	0	0	**0**
		Partially agree	0	0	**0**
		Not sure	0	0	**0**
		Partially disagree	1	0	**1**
		Highly disagree	4	0	**4**
11	Lecturers should not correct every single grammatical error in ESL writing; however, they should provide feedback on repetitive grammar errors.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	2	0	**2**
		Partially agree	2	1	**3**
		Not sure	0	0	**0**
		Partially disagree	1	0	**1**
		Highly disagree	1	0	**1**
12	Time spent on grammar correction should be devoted to overall sentence organisation and logical development of arguments skills.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	2	0	**2**
		Partially agree	2	0	**2**
		Not sure	1	1	**2**
		Partially disagree	0	0	**0**
		Highly disagree	1	0	**1**

13	Lecturers must make a follow up on the feedback they give on students' work.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	3	0	**3**
		Partially agree	1	1	**2**
		Not sure	2	0	**2**
		Partially disagree	0	0	**0**
		Highly disagree	0	0	**0**
14	Students must revise their work on their own paying attention to the feedback provided.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	3	0	**3**
		Partially agree	2	1	**3**
		Not sure	1	0	**1**
		Partially disagree	0	0	**0**
		Highly disagree	0	0	**0**
15	Error identification is not useful. Correction is best.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	1	0	**1**
		Partially agree	1	0	**1**
		Not sure	1	1	**2**
		Partially disagree	0	0	**0**
		Highly disagree	3	0	**3**
16	Both error identification and correction are useful.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	5	0	**5**
		Partially agree	0	1	**1**
		Not sure	0	0	**0**
		Partially disagree	0	0	**0**
		Highly disagree	0	0	**0**
17	Comments are useful for fluency, but not accuracy.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	1	0	**1**
		Partially agree	1	0	**1**
		Not sure	1	1	**2**
		Partially disagree	1	0	**1**
		Highly disagree	1	0	**1**
18	The lecturers should always tell students the reasons for the errors.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	2	0	**2**
		Partially agree	1	1	**2**
		Not sure	2	0	**2**

		Partially disagree	1	0	**1**
		Highly disagree	0	0	**0**
19	Lecturers should only mark errors that impede communication, and make general comments at the end.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	0	0	**0**
		Partially agree	1	0	**1**
		Not sure	1	0	**1**
		Partially disagree	0	1	**1**
		Highly disagree	3	0	**3**
20	Lecturers' feedback must be brief and to the point.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	3	0	**3**
		Partially agree	1	1	**2**
		Not sure	0	0	**0**
		Partially disagree	1	0	**1**
		Highly disagree	0	0	**0**
21	Lecturers should give detailed comments; the length does not matter.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	1	0	**1**
		Partially agree	1	0	**1**
		Not sure	0	1	**1**
		Partially disagree	2	0	**2**
		Highly disagree	1	0	**1**
22	Lecturers should use correction codes rather than writing long comments.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**	**F+M**
		Highly agree	2	0	**2**
		Partially agree	1	0	**1**
		Not sure	0	1	**1**
		Partially disagree	2	0	**2**
		Highly disagree	1	0	**1**

Table 46: Responses on Question C17 (students' questionnaire) and Question C23 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Summary of the highest choices:

		Highly Agree	**Partially Agree**	**Not sure**	**Partially Disagree**	**Highly Disagree**
1	Providing explicit corrective feedback in ESL writing is useful because students can improve their writing by noticing the corrections that the lecturer provided.	33 (S) 4 (L)				
2	Lecturer's feedback on ESL writing makes students better writers.	32 (S)	5 (L)			
3	Comments with corrections are best.	25 (S) 4 (L)				
4	Comments are too much; the correct form is enough.		19 (S) 2 (L)			2 (L)
5	My lecturer should show where the error is and give a clue about how to correct it.	25 (S) 4 (L)				
6	It is the lecturer's duty to correct all errors.		15 (S)			3 (L)
7	My lecturer should use a red-pen when marking.	31 (S)			2 (L)	2 (L)
8	Comments are useful for motivation, but not for grammar correction.					14 (S) 4 (L)
9	Correction with comments is impolite and rude.					23 (S) 5 (L)
10	Grammar is the most important to correct compared to spelling and punctuation.					15 (S) 4 (L)
11	Lecturers should not correct every single grammatical error in ESL writing; however, they should provide feedback on repetitive grammar errors.		14 (S) 3 (L)			14 (S)
12	Time spent on grammar correction should be devoted to overall sentence organisation and logical development of arguments skills.	2 (L)	13 (S) 2 (L)	13(S) 2 (L)		
13	Lecturers must make a follow up on the feedback they give on students' work.	22 (S) 3 (L)				
14	Students must revise their work on their own paying attention to the feedback provided.	26 (S) 3 (L)	3 (L)			
15	Error identification is not useful. Correction is best.					19 (S) 3 (L)
16	Both error identification and correction are useful.	26 (S) 5 (L)				
17	Comments are useful for fluency, but not accuracy.		15 (S)	2 (L)		
18	The lecturer should always tell students the reasons for the errors.	23 (S) 2 (L)	2 (L)	2 (L)		

19	Lecturer should only mark errors that impede communication, and make general comments at the end.		12 (S)	12(S)		3 (L)
20	Lecturers' feedback must be brief and to the point.	21 (S) 3 (L)				
21	Lecturers should give detailed comments; the length does not matter.	15 (S)			2 (L)	
22	Lecturers should use correction codes rather than writing long comments.	2 (L)	12 (S)		2 (L)	

Table 46: Responses on Question C17 (students' questionnaire) and Question C23 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Explanations of selected strong opinion from the list above ***(Students: C18)***

Most appealing statements selected by students:		**Respondents: Students**		
1	Providing explicit corrective feedback in ESL writing is useful because students can improve their writing by noticing the corrections that the lecturer provided.		**Explanations**	
		Rating options	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree	This will motivate one to correct his or her errors. It shows that the lecturer is caring.	This is a good way that gives more knowledge and understanding to students.
			I emphasise that students can improve their writing by noticing the corrections that the lecturer provided.	By correcting students' errors in writing, students will surely enhance their writing skills and become experts in the future.
				Sometimes students repeat the same errors if not corrected or corrected by other students.
		Partially agree		This will make students improve and know what is wrong and correct in their writings.
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
2	Lecturers' feedback on ESL writing makes students better writers.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree	They would build on their errors and make use	Whenever feedback is given, it makes some

			of the feedback given.	students to focus on their errors to avoid repetition.
			I as a student and a foreigner learn from my mistakes and when the lecturer provides feedback on writing.	
			If you know the correct answer, you will not make mistakes when writing and you will become better.	
			If lecturers cannot tell us or teach us how to write correctly, we cannot know.	
			We believe on our lecturers, and if a lecturer is correcting me, I believe that what she or he is telling me is true.	
			This gives the students a chance to improve how they spell and the standard of their English also receive correction.	
		Partially agree	If students are given feedback, they realise their mistakes and learn from them.	
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
3	Comments with corrections are best.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree	If you correct without commenting on why you are saying there is an error, some students will not understand.	This gives more views on how students not to make an error when dealing with the same thing next time again.
			One cannot improve if they are not being corrected.	Comments motivate and encourage students. The lecturer should always give corrections that make

				students know and be aware of where they have gone wrong in their essays.
			Students learn and improve their mistakes from the comments and the corrections.	That way, students will go through the comments attentively and make corrections. Also, corrections can help students to improve.
			This encourages students to study harder.	Once your mistakes get corrected, you will not repeat that mistake at all.
				Comments with corrections will enhance the learning of students to improve and practise on their own at home.
				When a lecturer **comments** on the students' work and give them correction at the same time, that makes them not to forget their error in future.
				I will know how to spell or write my essays without repeating the same mistakes.
		Partially agree	I do partially agree with this due to that comments tell and show the students what they are supposed to do and how.	Comments let a person know exactly how to prevent errors in future tasks.
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
4	Comments are too much; the correct form is enough.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly		

		disagree		
5	Lecturers should show where the error is and give a clue about how to correct it.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree	This is helpful for the student not to repeat the same mistake.	Students do not get where they have gone wrong; and they do not know how to correct the errors that the lecturer has showed.
			This will help students to correct their errors in writing and improve speaking skills.	This will help the students to do the work by themselves and know better without forgetting it ever.
			Sometimes we, students, do not see our mistakes. It is better for the lecturer to tell me or point out that error.	It gives me an understanding of where to start when correcting myself.
		Partially agree		My lecturers should show where the error happens or give a clue how to correct it.
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
6	It is the lecturers' duty to correct all errors.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		The lecturer has the memorandum of that certain task which was given to students. Lecturers are there to teach students what is right and wrong.
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree	It is true that lecturers should correct the errors, but I believe that correction should be done by both students and lecturers.	

			I understand that by doing that we students will be lazy by just waiting for everything to be done by the lecturers. It's better for students to be also involved.	
			Even if the lecturer corrects the errors, and you don't know where you went wrong and what really caused the error, you will not be encouraged to go an extra mile as you are being spoon-fed.	
			The lecturer is just there to guide the students, but not to do everything for them. They should find some of the things themselves.	
		Highly disagree	If lecturers are only correcting but they are not teaching us, we will not know everything like when they are teaching us.	I totally disagree because that means students are then not going to participate.
7	Lecturers should use a red-pen when marking.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree	This will make an easy indication between students' handwriting and the marking.	Lecturers should use a red-pen when marking.
			This will be easy for a student to make a difference from his or her work and where the lecturer marked.	
			This makes it easy for the student to identify the error that the lecturer found in his or her essay.	
			This will indicate that the activity was checked by	

			the lecturer. Students can use any pen except the red pen when writing the activity.	
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		I disagree because the colour of the pen does not matter, as long as it is clear and easily seen and understandable.
		Highly disagree		
8	Comments are useful for motivation, but not for grammar correction.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		Comments will motivate students to work hard on errors they have made.
				A comment is not a correction; it motivates.
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
9	Correction with comments is impolite and rude.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		I disagree because this is the only professional approach.
		Highly disagree	Comments should motivate one and help them learn from their mistakes.	Not true, that helps to understand and encourage so much.
			If someone is correcting you, he or she is teaching	

			you and telling you which is right and which is good.	
			I the lecturer just correct without a comment, you will not know where you really went wrong.	
			Comments are needed to provide more details on the error, which will lead to avoiding related errors.	
10	Grammar is most important to correct compared to spelling and punctuation.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		Grammar is important than spelling and punctuation.
		Partially agree		
		Not sure	When we learn grammar, we learn punctuation and spelling; without spelling and punctuation we cannot know grammar.	
		Partially disagree		I disagree because once you cannot spell a word the next person will not have any clue about what you are saying.
		Highly disagree	It makes no sense you know all the grammar but there are a lot of spelling and punctuation errors. For something to make sense, one should understand; and nobody can understand something with such errors.	This is not true. They are all equal because correct grammar but wrong punctuation and spelling is meaningless.
			All errors are very important to correct and when misspelling words, one will end up writing a	Grammar, spelling and punctuation are all important.

			different word with a different meaning.	
				English is a skill and all parts of English are important.
				For proper English, all are equally important.
11	Lecturers should not correct every single grammatical error in ESL writing; however, they should provide feedback on repetitive grammar errors.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
12	Time spent on grammar correction should be devoted to overall sentence organisation and logical development of arguments skills.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
13	Lecturers must make a follow up on the feedback they give on students' work.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly		This helps the student to

		agree		understand much better than not doing follow up.
		Partially agree	If the lecturer only corrects errors while marking and does not give feedback then the same mistakes will be repeated.	This is very important for a lecturer to identify the correction and discuss it in the class.
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
14	Students must revise their work on their own paying attention to the feedback provided.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree	It will train them and make it easy to understand and get the concept.	This helps students identify their errors and how to correct them; and for them not to do the same error and get a better mark.
			That is the only way we as students can learn and avoid doing the same errors next time.	It is a job of a student to spot and correct their mistakes, as doing corrections on their own they will not forget easily.
			Just by depending on the lecturer, it will not help them improve.	
			This will allow students to learn on their own instead of just being provided with the answers by the lecturers.	
			It is the only the way they can improve their mistakes.	
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		

15	Error identification is not useful. Correction is best.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree	Lecturers should always correct students when errors are made, as they know more of the answers than students do.	Students might not know why something is considered as an error, and this will be a problem to most of the students.
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree	I disagree because errors are the ones that happen more often and therefore they need to be identified always then correction.	The lecturer does not help anything by just giving comments with no identification of errors.
16	Both error identification and correction are useful.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree	People learn from their mistakes. If a lecturer does not correct the students, they will never know what is right.	
			I highly agree that both error identification and correction are useful.	
			Identifying an error gives a student a chance to master and correct that error and avoid it in the future.	
		Partially agree	You will not repeat the mistake you wrote because now you know the correct answer. You know the right from the wrong.	
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		

17	Comments are useful for fluency, but not accuracy.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
18	The lecturers should always tell students the reasons for the errors.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree	I believe that a student can never make the same error if he or she is told the reason because he or she understands more about it.	
			If the students are not told the reasons of their errors, they will end up repeating the same mistakes.	
			This helps students not to commit the same mistakes again.	
		Partially agree		It is very important for the lecturer to correct my work and show me where I have gone wrong because this will help me to understand it better.
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
19	Lecturers should only mark errors that impede communication, and make general comments at the	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**

	end.			
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
20	Lecturers' feedback must be brief and to the point.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree	Feedback must be brief and to the point just to help the student get the correct answer.	When a student is informed straight about their errors, it will make them improve.
			If their feedbacks are long then students will not be able to pay more attention due to laziness.	It is a waste of time writing unnecessary things that a student do not need.
			As a student, try to figure out yourself before the lecturer corrects you, what you were trying to say or write; and lecturers should not write long comments which sometimes do not make sense. Some students do not even go through their work when given back feedback or test papers.	
			Brief feedbacks will lead students to understand instead of long feedbacks that might end up confusing them.	
		Partially agree	I agree with this because sometimes lecturers give general comments instead of telling or mentioning the specific error made by the student.	
		Not sure		
		Partially		

		disagree		
		Highly disagree		
21	Lecturers should give detailed comments; the length does not matter.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		What matters is improving and not about length.
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
22	Lecturers should use correction codes rather than writing long comments.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		Not sure of this, so I disagree because I understand the comments better than the correction codes.
		Partially disagree	Some students do not know the meanings of the correction codes.	
		Highly disagree		

Table 46: Responses on Question C17 (students' questionnaire) and Question C23 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Explanations of selected strong opinion from the list above ***(Lecturers: C24)***

Most appealing statements selected by lecturers:		**Respondents: Lecturers**		
			Explanations	
1	Providing explicit corrective feedback in ESL writing is useful because students can improve their writing by noticing the corrections that the lecturer provided.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		I agree with providing explicit corrective feedback because it helps the students to appreciate a wide range of errors they could have made.
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
2	Lecturers' feedback on ESL writing makes students better writers.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
3	Comments with corrections are best.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
4	Comments are too	**Rating**	**Female**	**Male**

	much; the correct form is enough.	**options**		
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
5	Lecturers should show where the error is and give a clue about how to correct it.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree	Students can improve if they make corrections themselves rather than someone else correcting their errors.	
			It is important to tell students where the error is and how to correct it, otherwise they will not know how to correct it and they will then repeat the same error in future.	
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
6	It is the lecturers' duty to correct all errors.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		

7	Lecturers should use a red-pen when marking.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree	I totally disagree because what matters is the fact that works are marked, not the colour of the pen which was used.	
8	Comments are useful for motivation, but not for grammar correction.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree	Comments are crucial to motivate and teach.	
9	Correction with comments is impolite and rude.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		I totally disagree with this statement that correction with comments is impolite and rude because that is how students should learn.
10	Grammar is most important to correct compared	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**

	to spelling and punctuation.			
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
11	Lecturers should not correct every single grammatical error in ESL writing; however, they should provide feedback on repetitive grammar errors.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree	I do not agree fully because no matter how much feedback you provide, if students are not interested and are not trying to improve, they won't become better writers.	
			If we indicate too many errors, students might get discouraged. Rather try to correct general, repetitive errors. Take it one step at a time, making small improvements.	
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
12	Time spent on grammar correction should be devoted to overall sentence organisation and	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**

	logical development of arguments skills.			
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree	Lecturer should focus on content and grammar. They should guide students in argument formation.	
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
13	Lecturers must make a follow up on the feedback they give on students' work.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree	The main purpose of giving feedback is to teach the students something. Therefore, the lecturer needs to follow up to know whether students mastered that concept.	
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
14	Students must revise their work on their own paying attention to the feedback provided.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree	Students should <u>always</u> revise written work – it is the only way to become better writers.	
			This way, students can take responsibility for their own learning.	

		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
15	Error identification is not useful. Correction is best.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
16	Both error identification and correction are useful.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
17	Comments are useful for fluency, but not accuracy.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
18	The lecturers should always tell students the reasons	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**

	for the errors.			
		Highly agree	Students improve when they understand their errors because they find it easier to correct them, if they understand.	
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		
19	Lecturers should only mark errors that impede communication, and make general comments at the end.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree	When these students join the job market, every single error they make while working counts. Who wants a report full of grammar errors even though the message could be clear to the readers?	
20	Lecturers' feedback must be brief and to the point.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree		

21	Lecturers should give detailed comments; the length does not matter.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree		
		Partially agree		
		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		
		Highly disagree	The reason most of the time students do not master the content is because they do not like reading; thus, if a lecturer provides a page long feedback, a student may get discouraged to read the comments, by the length.	
22	Lecturers should use correction codes rather than writing long comments.	**Rating options**	**Female**	**Male**
		Highly agree	Lecturers should use correction codes rather than writing long comments in order to motivate students to examine the errors they have made and pay attention to the codes used.	
		Partially agree	Use correction codes and not long comments. We simply do not have the time to write long comments. If students are taught how to interpret the various codes, they will understand the error and try to correct it on their own.	

		Not sure		
		Partially disagree		I do not agree with the use of correction codes because the students might not know them.
		Highly disagree		

Table 47: Responses on Question C14 (students' questionnaire)

How often do you pay attention and respond to your lecturer's comments when you receive your marked work?			
Respondents → Students →	Female	Male	Total Females + Males
All the time I receive my work from my lecturer.	6	10	16
Only some time when I have nothing else to do.	9	8	17
I do not pay much attention to my work after they are marked.	5	2	7
I do not see the importance of revising my work if they are marked already.	0	0	0
Total	20	20	40

Table 48: Responses on Question C8 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Do you think your students revise their written work and pay attention to your comments after you marked their work?			
Respondents → Lecturers →	Female	Male	Total Females + Males
Yes	3	2	5
No	3	0	3
I do not know.	0	0	0
Total	6	2	8
Other answers if any: Female: Sometimes they do – I usually ask them to rewrite written work with corrections.			

Table 49: Responses on Question C3 (students' questionnaire)

How much of each essay do you read over again when your lecturer returns it to you?			
Respondents ↓	***most of it***	***some of it***	***none of it***
Females →	8	11	1
Males →	6	12	2
Total Females + Males →	14	23	3
How much of your lecturer's comments and corrections do you think about carefully and make correction accordingly?			
Respondents ↓	***most of them***	***some of them***	***none of them***
Females →	11	8	1
Males →	12	8	2
Total Females + Males →	23	16	3

Table 50: Responses on Question C16 (students' questionnaire) and Question C18 (lecturers' questionnaire)
Lecturers' responses

What does your lecturer usually do after marking your work?			
Respondents → Lecturers → Female			
Rating →	Often	Some times	Rarely
He or she does not follow up.	1	2	1
He or she holds a conference with each student or some students.	1	2	1
He or she makes students correct errors in or outside class.	3	1	1
He or she makes students record their errors in an error frequency chart.	0	1	3

He or she goes through students' common errors in class.	5	1	0
Other: I ask students to rewrite their work.			
Respondents → Lecturers → Male			
Rating →	Often	Some times	Rarely
He or she does not follow up.	0	0	2
He or she holds a conference with each student or some students.	1	0	1
He or she makes students correct errors in or outside class.	1	0	1
He or she makes students record their errors in an error frequency chart.	0	0	2
He or she goes through students' common errors in class.	2	0	0
Other:			

Table 50: Responses on Question C16 (students' questionnaire) and Question C18 (lecturers' questionnaire)
Students' responses

What does your lecturer usually do after marking your work?			
Respondents → Students → Female			
Rating →	Often	Some times	Rarely
He or she does not follow up.	1	2	13
He or she holds a conference with each student or some students.	4	7	4
He or she makes students correct errors in or outside class.	6	7	4
He or she makes students record their errors in an error frequency chart.	3	2	12
He or she goes through students' common errors in class.	12	5	1
Other: - Lecturer gives the correction to errors. - Lecturer asks other students to spell out the words that were wronged by other students.			

- Lecturer identifies error and bring them to class for students to correct them, sometimes.			
Respondents → Students → Male			
Rating →	Often	Some times	Rarely
He or she does not follow up.	3	2	8
He or she holds a conference with each student or some students.	5	6	6
He or she makes students correct errors in or outside class.	5	9	2
He or she makes students record their errors in an error frequency chart.	3	1	9
He or she goes through students' common errors in class.	12	6	0
Other:			

Table 50: Responses on Question C16 (students' questionnaire) and Question C18 (lecturers' questionnaire)
Summary of findings: Students

Summary of findings:			
Respondents → Students → Male + Female			
Rating →	Often	Some times	Rarely
He or she does not follow up.	4	4	21
He or she holds a conference with each student or some students.	9	13	10
He or she makes students correct errors in or outside class.	11	16	6
He or she makes students record their errors in an error frequency chart.	6	4	21
He or she goes through students' common errors in class.	24	11	1
Other: - Lecturer gives the correction to errors. - Lecturer asks other students to spell out the words that were wronged by other students. - Lecturer identifies error and brings them to class for students to correct them, sometimes.			

Table 50: Responses on Question C16 (students' questionnaire) and Question C18 (lecturers' questionnaire)
Summary of findings: Lecturers

Summary of findings:			
Respondents → Lecturers → Male + Female			
Rating →	Often	Some times	Rarely
He or she does not follow up.	1	2	3
He or she holds a conference with each student or some students.	2	2	2
He or she makes students correct errors in or outside class.	4	1	2
He or she makes students record their errors in an error frequency chart.	0	1	5
He or she goes through students' common errors in class.	7	1	0
Other:			

Table 51: Responses on Question C15 (students' questionnaire) and Question C17 (lecturers' questionnaire)
Table 52: Reasons why students repeat the same errors after being corrected

After giving corrective feedback to students on the errors they make in their essay, do they make the same errors again when given a new writing task? (Students: C15; Lecturers: C17)

Respondent →	Students				Lecturers			Students & Lecturers Total	
	Females	Males	Total		Females	Males	Total	Females	Males
Yes	9	11	20		5	1	6	14	12
No	11	9	20		1	1	2	12	10
Total	20	20	40		6	2	8	26	22

If yes, what do you think causes them to make the same error again?	
Students	Lecturers
Males: - Sometimes because of the ignorance; or when I did not understand when the lecturer corrects me. - I think it is because I do not revise that much on my previous work. - Because I sometimes forget to go through my marked work, hence I sometimes repeat the same mistakes. - Because the lecturer gives different essays and I have to apply in a different way, then it's a challenge. - Because it is a new task and it is really hard to get all the answers correct. - Just because I did not go through the errors that the lecturer wanted me to correct. - Because I am not perfect and do not put into consideration everything. - I get used to them (*same mistakes*). - Because I am used to the same mistakes, but after three corrections I never repeat the same mistakes. - One correction is not enough; unless I do a lot of exercises. Females: - Because I did not pay much attention on my lecturer's comments on the errors for my previous essay. - Because I have not really paid attention to them; on my own is not easy, unless he or she spoke about it in class. - I sometimes think that the word is	Males: - They sometimes make the same mistakes but I do not know why. Female: - They repeat the mistakes and I do not know why. - Because of carelessness – students do not bother to pay attention to the corrections made. - They do not check the feedback comments. - They do not read corrections. - Sometimes yes, they repeat mistakes, but sometimes no.

correct because I am used to writing it that way; or it might be that I do not pay much attention on the correction. - Because I am used to them and forgot that they were corrected. - I did not understand the correction very well. - I am lazy to do revision after all; I do not pay attention to my work after they were marked. - Because I do not revise my marked work; I only make corrections of all my work in class. - I get confused; that is why I make the mistakes again. - Because I spend less time on studying LIP.	

Table 53: Responses on Question C21 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Approximately, how much time do you spend marking one composition?			
Respondents → Lecturers →	Female	Male	Total Females + Males
Less than 10 minutes	0	0	0
10 to 20 minutes	4	2	6
More than 20 minutes	2	0	2

Table 54: Responses on Question C22 (lecturers' questionnaire)

Do you have any concerns or problems with providing error feedback on students' writing?			
Respondents → Lecturers →	Female	Male	Total Females + Males
Yes	2	0	2

No	4	2	6
If yes, please elaborate: Female: - Because I use so much time to correct students' work, yet they keep making the same mistake. - Students make different errors, which makes it difficult for me to tackle all the errors in-depth in one lesson.			

APPENDIX 4: STUDENTS' INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

Transcript of students' responses to interview questions

Interview questions and students' responses	**Researcher's comments/ follow up questions**
1. Identify and explain the best ways that you think helped you to learn English better.	
When lecturers correct students' errors, they should be selective. If you try to correct everything and repeat all errors, nobody is going to learn anything. It is a waste of time referring to every error that was made by all students. It is better you focus on the errors that are repeated more often, then correction will be relevant to most of the students.	
In written work, students must first go and revise their work on their own, do the corrections and then they bring their answers to their lecturers.	
If students were given homework and discuss their work in class, they should be given time to go and relook at what they have done wrongly before they submit the final work for marking.	
Students should be informed in advance of the next topic to be discussed in class next time for them to prepare and find information about the topic to have more insight on what the topic is all about before they come to discuss it in class.	
What can make students learn and understand English better is when you give them things that they know. For example, for some vocabulary, students do not know the words, so the lecturer should explain them in simple ways using the simple words that they already know. That way they will understand better.	Lecturers need to know their students level of language proficiency; this will enable them to identify their students' prior knowledge.
My previous teacher taught us how we should answer different questions and how we should approach different types of questions like critical thinking and reading comprehension. Lecturers should provide guidance to students on how to approach different tasks. This will help students manage their time well.	
Reading novels; different types of literature. These make me improve my language because they combine	

some modern works and old works from Shakespeare.	
Reading every day's newspaper. I also have a smart phone that enables me to download some apps that help me to improve my grammar. Not really, so far we are okay. Because some of these technological means bring more distraction and waste a lot of time. The condition is kind of okay for me.	Would you recommend anything that can be used in a classroom situation?
Like the saying goes, charity starts at home. If you speak English at home, it improves your language. I know sometimes it is impossible for some students to do that because they have no one to speak English with at home, but they can listen to radio programmes and watch TV programmes. For example, when news is being broadcast, there are headlines displayed on the screen. If there are some words that you do not know how to pronoun correctly, you can always listen to how they were mentioned by the newsreader. That's how I learn pronunciation of some words. Lecturers should explain the benefit of exposing ourselves to spoken language outside classroom.	It is always important to know that different people speak with an accent. That means their pronunciation can be affected by their vernacular. So, it is not always true that the language that you listen to is correct. The most important thing is for you to be vigilant enough and try to learn from different sources. How should the English lecturers come in to reinforce that?
When I read a newspaper or a novel and I come across a word that I do not understand, and I do not have a dictionary to look it up, I start looking for clues in that text that may help me get the meaning of that word.	
2. Mention things that frustrate you most when you learn English as a Second language.	
When a lecture asks a question and I try to participate but my fellow students laugh at me instead of correcting me.	
If I make a mistake and my classmates react	

negatively, it makes me feel like not going ahead with what I was talking about.	
When you think you know and then you find out later, especially parts of speech, you use forms with that like continuous form then just to find out that you are wrong, it is not supposed to be like that.	When trying to apply grammatical rules and forms learned with other language features then you realise they function differently in other context, while you felt you were sure of the form you have used. For example, continuous form and gerund.
The fact that I do my homework and after that no follow up was done on the homework; that is too bad and it is so disappointing and discouraging. I put effort on doing the work and receive no feedback or correction on what I might have done wrong.	
I do not like the time slots for English, the way it is timetabled. I prefer to be taught English, all the periods to be in the morning. I enjoy it in the morning when my mind is so fresh.	
I think English should be taught, not only reading the study guide but the lecturer should also write on the chalkboard or white board in order to encourage the students to follow. If most of the time you are just reading through the study guide, one's attention goes away and start concentrating on something else. But the moment someone is writing it keeps you focusing and in the process you hear something to learn. The lecturer should also give more examples often about what you are learning.	
When you write a test and some of your answers are marked wrong and you do not understand why. When you ask the lecturer to explain what is wrong or give you the correct answer, he or she confuses you even more, going the other direction that you do not even understand and you will still be left unsure.	
When we write a test, may be the lecturer after marking the test she or he will proceed with the new topic without giving us our feedback early, so that we can know our mistakes and give us the corrections. That is a big frustration.	
Another frustration is the lecturer who comes late to class. Once she or he comes late, there is limited time to tackle everything. We will only be able to manage few things during that period. That type of lecturer is	

bringing down my education level instead of using the available time to help me progress.	
Time given for tests is very little. Sometimes students fail the test but not because they really do not know the answers but the problem is the time allocated.	Language is a skill. Your speed is also part of the assessment.
If I cannot pronoun a word properly, that frustrates me. I ask someone who speaks better English than myself or may be checking it up on the internet.	How do you go about it to find out the correct pronunciation?
When I read a newspaper or a novel and I come across a word that I do not understand, and I do not have a dictionary to look it up, I start looking for clues in that text that may help me get the meaning of that word. If I really cannot find anything to help me with the meaning, I get so frustrated and most of the time I just close the novel till I really figure out what the word means.	Just remember a good reader does not expect to understand each and every word they are reading but take note of that word and look it up later. Do not close the novel just because of one word that you do not understand.
Nowadays most people speak English. Wherever you go people have that spirit of competitiveness; so wherever you go people try to speak English. If you are not that good, people will be like ‘you don’t belong here or you can’t speak English”, so you start feeling bad. This doesn’t really happen in class, you don’t feel that bad because you are all in the same group. You are speaking the same English. You are not so different from each other. Someone can be talkative, but you are doing the same course, you are on the same level.	
On this point, it depends on the way the person corrects me in class. Sometimes the person first laughs at your mistake and only is when he or she corrects you on that point. But someone who is polite enough comes to you and tell you straight forward that, for example, the word is not pronounced that way it’s pronounced this way. In such a way I can cope with it and understand it.	
If a person sees me make a mistake, he or she should just let me finish whatever I say and then later is when	

they can say you don't say that, you say this. But if the person has to laugh at me, I'll just get stuck and I will not continue.	
I think it should be corrected in a way that, maybe it is a speaking error, the lecturer might include that in a lesson to be part of the lesson, but it shouldn't be obvious. Because if it obvious that someone is being corrected, that person might feel down or bad about themselves. But if he or she thinks that it's part of the lesson, he or she might know his or her mistake but it might not be personal.	
3. Reflect on the way your spoken errors are corrected in class and give your comments on how you feel about it.	
If I make an error and others laugh at me, I actually feel ashamed and from there I do not want to try anymore.	
4. How would you prefer your lecturer and your classmates to respond to your errors when you make them in class?	
If a student makes a mistake or error in class, especially on grammar, he or she should not be corrected by someone. They have to try it and do it on their own. After the correction, they have to be given some other same type of questions to try them and see if he or she can do it without the same errors.	This will help students to avoid regurgitating, so they have to try the same type of concept in different examples, to prove that they got it right.
If I make a mistake in class, I prefer to be corrected right away the time I made that mistake. If we all are open and willing to be corrected, that will be a good way of learning from one other.	
I have a general comment. If Miss can always bring a recorder in class and record our conversation when we are discussing thing, then Miss goes and listen to the record at home and identify the way we answer the questions and the way we make mistakes instead of teaching, it will help us improve our language and get all our mistakes corrected. Just put the recorder there and let it record the whole lesson and stop it at the end of the lesson.	
5. How effectively do you think the feedback provided in web-based language learning contribute to your language proficiency, especially the speaking and writing skills?	
It's quite efficient because when you are doing exercises on the net, when you are done with them, it gives feedback, so you know where you were wrong or where you made some	

mistakes. So it's quite efficient, because it corrects you right there. It's enough to have web-based lessons once a week because if it's an everyday thing people tend to be lazy and concentrate only on technology and less on the purpose of the web-based language learning.	
Web-based learning is fine because we do exercises there and you have to check for the answers and sometimes when you answer the things wrongly the computer shows that this is wrong and this is right, so you have to redo it again until you get the correct answer. You get to know that this is not done like this and that is not done like that; so I think web learning is fine. The chances of learning through web-based that we have are enough because if we have to go there every day, you'll do other stuff instead of the things that you are supposed to do. You'll thing you can still come back tomorrow and do the things that you were supposed to do that day. That one day we have in a week is enough for us because you'll think that if I miss this chance I won't have any other chance to do this, I have to do it this day and the other day I do the other things.	
About tutorials, I find it different from the tutoring in class because it was hard for me to adapt to the e-learning tutorials. The pronunciation of the person who is giving tutorials was difficult to understand; the language difference is what makes it hard to understand. I actually prefer to have a lecturer in class.	
I find the web-based learning method to be the best way of studying English. It made me learn English better by doing different English quizzes on for example tenses learning about verbs on line. It is more fun than the way the lecturer teaches me in the class. Integrate e-learning in teaching	
Morning time is best for learning a language. Not only students get tired but the lecturer may also be tired and nothing is going on. Web-based lesson are the best, but sometime if we are in the language lab, some students get online and start doing their own things. So it is better that the lecturer goes around and monitor whether the students are really studying. Integrate e-learning in teaching	

APPENDIX 5: Lecturers' interview transcript

A. Focus group lecturers' interview 1

Interview questions and lecturers' responses	Researcher's comments/follow up questions
1. Would you identify and explain the best ways that you think help your students to learn English better?	
Lect. 1 For my students what I've identified, what usually helps them with learning English is if I give them literature pieces to read, reading basically helps and role plays also helps, if I give them topics then I ask them to role play them in class, as well as group discussion where I like force every student in the group to basically say something or to participate within that group, they also learn. Sometimes not because maybe they are saying a lot of things, but because they are engaging with other students and they are actually hearing what or how other students speak. That also helps them to learn better English. Lect 2: You know what I usually do is, I look at the syllabus or the course outline what we have to cover and then I see how I can, while still covering what is in the course outline, incorporate it in the best possible way for students to learn better. So, if it's a grammar activity, I'll see how we can maybe make it as a discussion, for example. And then of course you already have the literature aspect, so…, that can be covered like on the web-based learning, for example. So, not to deviate from the time that I'm given I always try to see, what is on the outline and how do I want to execute this for the students to actually learn. Lect 3:	Maybe just a follow up question on that. Do you find time to do that, especially now with our schedule here, that we only have limited time to cover our semester work.

In my opinion, the best way for a student to learn English is through reading. Especially the reading of literature. Although not everybody likes reading literary books, students can be encouraged to read material that they have interest in. Lect 1: Reading is very important. Practising the language helps, i.e. writing it, speaking it, listening to it. It's important to know and understand the rules of grammar.	
2. Can you mention things that you think may frustrate students most when they learn English as a Second language?	
Lect 1: They get frustrated when they do not understand a concept that you are trying to explain. … and when they fail to express themselves properly (verbally or in writing) but have the idea in their mind Lect 2: Definitely problems with writing. Discrepancies between pronunciation and spelling; all the different tenses; exceptions to rules; active/passive voice, etc. English is not an easy language. Lect 3: Uhm, if they don't understand, sometimes the vocabulary that we use probably, as lecturers, in class is difficult and maybe out of their reach or not what they are used to. And they are also shy to express themselves. So, that can also be frustrating for them because they'll just be sitting there quietly, not asking you to elaborate or to explain, because of the element of being shy. So, I think vocabulary is one of the elements. Another thing that I've also noticed is with regards to web-based learning. So, many a times when they come to us we assume they already know, say for example how to use a computer, but we also assume they understand the instructions that are being given on the particular activity. Say for	

example, if it's an online activity, so we just assume and just tell them go to which webpage and do activity A, B, C and D. And then when they get there they might not understand the instruction. So, that is one element that is also really frustrates them.	
Lect. 3: You know I have a policy in my class, beginning of the semester already, I encourage my students to relate to me as Susan (pseudonym), and not as Ms Nangolo (pseudonym). Because I think Ms Nangolo creates a certain distance between us. Like, I'm the lecturer, you are just a student, you know, be that side. And that is what I always want to do away with very early in the semester, so I always tell them relate to me as Ms Susan or Susan. That way I encourage them to come to my office if they have problems or see me after the class if they are too shy to ask a question in front of the other classmates. So, that really helps for me. And that has…, I have seen that students really , they relate well to me, even the ones…, because what I also do is that I try my outmost best, because with age is not always so easy, to remember the names of my students. So when I'm relating to them in class, I like to address them on their names, especially the shy ones. If I know their names, then I'll say, "What do you think Mr Johannes, about this and this and this". So, they feel they are also included and they are actually visible in the class that they are not forgotten.	How do you encourage the shy ones to participate in class?
Lect 2: Sometimes they feel uncomfortable, sometimes they feel relieved. Because you see they actually have something that they want to say and it's just that you have not asked them, so they'll just sit there quietly with it. And with the others that would feel uncomfortable, you'll see that they would just say, "No, I don't know the answer to that" or "I don't have anything to say", which is fine.	And, when you give them a chance like that, don't they like appear disappointed or feel uncomfortable, or feel you are imposing…
Lect 1:	And while we are there, if they for example make an error or mistake in class, how do you

Uhm, I correct them there, while the mistake is still fresh, not just in my mind but also in their minds. Say for example, it's a speaking activity or so. I let them complete the speaking activity obviously because many a times we time the oral presentation also and then after that I'll just take them back to that error that they have made, and then I'll correct them, or I'll tell them you know this is not the correct way to pronounce this word or to use this word in this context. And then I'll just explain to them or maybe refer them also to the study guide to read up a little bit for themselves.	respond to their errors? My question is like, do you correct them there, right there, or do you come back to them later or how do you go about the correction?
3. Reflect on the way you respond to your students' spoken errors in your class and give your comments on how you feel they may help them to improve their speaking skills.	
Lect 1. It basically also depends on the type of students that you have. That's where knowing your students comes into play. Because it's not for…, okay, with everyone, I would say for example in the oral presentation, for everyone, if they had made a mistake, I would, right after there, so that I don't forget. I would correct them. I would tell them this is the correct way and not the one that you have just used now. Okay, but also knowing my students, and knowing that this is probably a more deep-seated issue that needs a bit more help than just me correcting them right there, after the presentation I'd say just see me after the class so that we can discuss or so that I can show you maybe a website or an activity in the study guide that can assist you more. So, with other students it could be a simple mistake or a simple error that they make, that if you correct it right there, they'll get it and they'd improve on it. But with other students is not that simple. So, they'd need a little bit more extra help, so I would ask them to see me after the class and then I would may be refer them…	*Arrange for remedial session.*

Lect 2: My response to their errors depends on the situation. Sometimes I respond immediately but other times I wait until they are done with e.g. presentation. I alert them to the error and give them the correction. Sometimes I engage the other students to address the identified error. That way I determine if they (other students) have also identified the error and whether they all don't know and I perhaps need to teach the whole class on it. Lect 3: It depends on the purpose of the lesson. If it's grammar, I will definitely correct them. If the purpose is communication, e.g. I won't always correct them in order not to discourage participation. I will usually correct them and even address similar common errors.	
4. How helpful do you think it is when students correct other students' errors in class?	.
Lect. 1: It is not always helpful because they tend to think, 'you are just a student, like me; what do you know?' But if you as a lecturer back up the student that is doing the correction, it helps. Thus as a lecturer you also need to make your students aware that we all learn from each other and not just the lecturer. Lect. 2: It might be discouraging or humiliating. The "corrector" might even be wrong. It can be helpful, but only if part of a peer marking activity. Weaker students can learn from the better ones and differences may probe them to find out more. Students should not be allowed to freely or indiscriminately correct peers.	
5. How effectively do you think the feedback provided in web-based language learning	

contribute to students' language proficiency, especially their speaking and writing skills?	
Lect 1: In my experience web-based learning feedback has been effective with listening and reading activities. Or activities that require short answers. I have not seen a tool that effectively provides feedback for speaking and writing e.g. essays. These tools might be available but I have honestly not looked for them yet. Lect 2: It depends on the nature of the feedback. It can only be helpful if it is interactive and explanatory in nature, otherwise the student might still not know why it's wrong.	
	Thanks very much for taking part in this survey.

B. Focus group lecturers' interview 2

Interview questions and lecturers' responses	**Researcher's comments/follow up questions**
1. Would you identify and explain the best ways that you think help your students to learn English better?	
Mhm, I think one way is for students to learn by doing. Meaning when the instructor is presenting it's very important to involve the students in the lesson so that they become actively involved in the presentation of the lesson for them to be doing some of the activities for them to be able to gain the knowledge a bit better. So, I guess that's one way. And another way I think is for students to be involved in practical activities. In other words, instead of just the presenter presenting the theory students should be given tasks that can involve them in doing so that they can put in practice the theory that they are given by the presenter. I think that would be helpful for them to be able to remember what they did or what the presenter said later on.	In your class, how do you motivate them to get involved and then, if they are involved, how do you interact with them from simple, mhh… may be if you give them group work or something like that?
Yes, one way to motivate them to be actively involved in the lesson, for example, is to give them pair work and group work, and then you check them when they are working. So, that helps you to be interacting with students when they are working. So, they are engaged; they are working and you are checking what they are doing, just to make sure that they get to understand what you are presenting. Giving students many practical example, on how they can use the language in real life situation, can help the students to understand the language better.	

2. Can you mention things that you think may frustrate students most when they learn English as a Second language?	
One thing that I have noticed, you know, English is not like other subjects, somehow. In other subjects, students get high marks, but in English it's not that easy for students to get high marks. And then that frustrates them, just because they expect to get very good marks in English, as they do in some other subjects. That's one thing that frustrates them. And then another problem with English, it's not like other subjects where you can memorise facts and pass. In English, memorisation of facts doesn't really work. You need to understand what you are reading and you need to prove that you understand what you are reading or what is being done in class. It's not like in other subjects where a student can just memorise facts and pass without understanding. Uhm, and also in English, even the way we mark English tasks is not like other subjects. In some other subjects, even if the meaning is not quite clear as long as the sentence is somehow related to the correct answer, a student could be given a mark or could be credited, but for English it's different. If you make a grammar mistake and the meaning is affected, you might not even be credited for that answer. And I think those are some of the thinks that frustrate students because in their opinion they think they are correct, and they think it's a minor mistake whereas to us the instructors it's not a minor mistake, as long as meaning is affected.	Do you have preferences as to what language features you correct?
Yes, in many cases when I'm giving feedback to students I look at content, and then the grammar aspects as well. So, first we check the mistakes that they made that affect the content, whatever they were doing and then at the same time, we look at the mistakes that are grammar related and then we correct those mistakes together. I highlight those mistakes. Sometimes I put them on the screen for them to be able to see and sometimes I ask them, for example, if they are grammar errors I put their work on the screen and	

then I ask them to check those sentences or paragraphs for them to identify what could be wrong with those sentences or paragraphs; so, just to engage them or to involve them in the process of correcting those mistakes. Being more theoretical when teaching a second language can frustrate students because students may fail to apply the theoretical part of language in their day to day use of the language.	
3. Reflect on the way you respond to your students' spoken errors in your class and give your comments on how you feel they may help them to improve their speaking skills.	
I see spoken errors as something a bit sensitive, for example if a student makes a speaking error in class, in many cases, I do not intervene directly because it would make a student feel a bit embarrassed should others find out that oh, she or he made a mistake. What I do sometimes, I take notes of those mistakes, and then at another stage I will bring up those mistakes just talking generally, not referring to any specific student. For example, I can just say, Namibians say or pronounce this word like this. Just, putting it like in a broader term instead of addressing that specific student in class because I don't want the student to feel kind of embarrassed for others to find out that she did a blunder or something. I have noticed, because like for some, as I said in many cases I try to do this later, but there are sometimes when you might just intervene directly, even though I do not do that many times and I have noticed that If you intervene directly, other students also start kind of laughing, you know, that the correction is being made and other students might feel a bit embarrassed because they start laughing at that student, as if they don't make the same mistakes. I correct the error as soon as it was uttered, by repeating the right version of what was said.	Is that just your feelings or did you get to know that from experience as a lecturer?

4. How helpful do you think it is when students correct other students' errors in class?	.
Ok, I wouldn't say it is not helpful. It is helpful but only to a certain extent, because if students are at the same level, they might not be in position to help each other better. But, it is helpful to a certain extend because yet in class you might be having some students that are performing a bit better than others and they should be in position to help others. At the same time, you have some students who can't just help each other if they are at the same level. For example, they make the same mistakes even if you pair them, then they won't be able to identify other students' mistakes. But what I do sometimes in such cases, especially when I get to know the students, and get to know where they are standing, their level of understanding, when I'm pairing them to work on some tasks, especially when they are helping correcting each other's errors, I try to match them myself. Because I know that this student knows better and can definitely guide others. So, that's what I do sometimes, especially with students that are struggling very much, I try to team them or to pair them up with students that are doing or performing a bit better, because that one is a bit helpful. On the other hand, even when students are helping correcting each other's errors, it's very important for the instructor to also somehow walk around and check what they are doing, just to guide them because sometimes they might give each other wrong correction of their work. So, it's just important for you as the instructor to kind of observe what they are doing and help when possible. Talking from experience what I have been observing for all these years, I don't think that students really matter that much about what others are saying in terms of correction. I don't remember any incidence of a student correcting another student's error because he or she made a speaking mistake. I don't remember. They, they just concentrate on the content, whatever they are discussing. I don't think that they pay much	If students are speaking in class who correct them most of the time?

attention to the speaking errors and I guess that's why they don't intervene. On the other hand, it could be that they don't also want to make others feel embarrassed for them to be corrected openly like that. That could be another reason. It will be most useful, provided that students are encouraged to correct each other in the polite manner and they understand that they are all learning, so they must always help one another.	
5. How effectively do you think the feedback provided in web-based language learning contribute to students' language proficiency, especially their speaking and writing skills?	
To a certain extent, especially speaking, yes, for speaking maybe they can somehow try to imitate especially first speakers of the language, they can for example learn how to pronounce words better. So, may be in that way, it can somehow help improve their speaking skill. But when it comes to writing, I don't think that web-based language learning is that effective for writing skills because even our students, it is in writing where they struggle a lot. And the problem with web-based learning is the absence of a lecturer, presenter or instructor for them to be able to ask that person to clarify something there is no one to guide them, because it's just a computer or a laptop that they are working with. So I think that absence of the instructor who should be there to guide them that what you are doing is in the right path or not. I think that's what might not make language learning for writing skills quite effective in web-based learning. But I think for speaking they can gain a bit as I said earlier. They are helpful but only to a certain extent, because if you look at, for example, web-based language learning activities, for many of them	You know when they do those exercises online, they get immediate feedback whether they got it right or not, there are always some prompts to guide them, do you think they are still not adequate to help them.

they are multiple choice activities, so that the computer can easily mark the work or give feedback. So, in many cases the activities are multiple choices, just for students to choose. Choosing does not really help students that much to improve. Because sometimes you can just guess and choose the correct answer but it's possible that you don't really understand. So, they are helpful to a certain extent but the presence of the instructor or a lecturer is still needed.	Is there anything we can do to improve our e-learning?
I don't think that they are really bad, our e-learning activities. But, I think we need to, especially for our course, we need to concentrate more on assessment activities, in other words to add assessment activities to our e-learning course, so that students don't only look at the theory. So, they look at the theory, they do some activities for practice and then we test them. So, testing is what is missing in our e-learning course. And I really think that's something that we need to add. We just need to add some activities where students do some interactive activities, and then may be their work is sent to us, we check how they are performing. I think that could be a little bit helpful instead of just being reading and we don't even know if they read what is there because there are no mechanisms to check if they are really reading. So, involving them in some assessment activities would probably show us or give us some, uh, a picture how they are doing, just for us to know that, yes, they are learning, because in the mean time we don't know. They might be sitting there doing some other things, because there is nothing that we are using to ensure that they have learned or they did something. So, that's what I think is missing or lacking in our e-learning course.	As a lecturer, do you have any concern as far as providing feedback to students is concerned whether is orally or written?
Probably not, but here I'm just talking under correction probably, because I know there are some instructors who for example when students have written a test or any assessment task, they just give the papers back; students check their	

marks and then that is it. That does not help students much. In my opinion feedback is even more important than the number or the figure that is on a student's script. Because it is the feedback that helps the student to get to understand things better and also to be able to clearly see that this is where I made a mistake and this is what I need to do for me to improve. So if you just give the papers back and students look at their marks, that does not really help them to improve. But if you give them feedback, I think should you give them another task, similar task in future, it might help them to do a bit better, because they know what they didn't do correctly the other time.	Some lecturers complain about time. If you give feedback on paper, will you have time to go through that in class again or how will you encourage them to look at that and go back to what they had written already, instead of just going ahead with a new topic?
I agree, time is a big concern, especially here. I have noticed, because for example when students submit something, you mark their work, and you have to take their work back, now for you to give feedback, that means in many cases you just need to probably spend that whole hour just giving feedback. And then that means you won't be able to do anything else that day. On the other hand, some students don't even see the importance of a lecturer or instructor giving feedback like that. They might even thing that, that day they were not taught. You know, they might even go to their, other students in some other classes and say, you know what, in class today we didn't do anything. You know, the teacher or lecturer only gave us our papers, and that is it. They don't see the value. You see, they might think you are not really teaching if you are just giving feedback. So, but it's really important. But, on the other hand, as I said there is no time.	
What I do, even if I have written down comments on the paper, in many cases, even on my laptop here, I have documents for students' mistakes – students' errors. So, in many cases, let's say	

students wrote essays, before…, of course I have written down comments on their essays that this is wrong, this is wrong, etcetera, but at the same time, before I give their papers back, I write down, and I have samples maybe of good work from the classmates, samples of work that is not good, so that when I give them their papers back then I show them what they have. We look at what I have together, what I have compiled together, and then we look at the mistakes they made together, just to attract their attention because if you just give them their papers, even if the corrections are made there, for some of them when you just give their papers, it's just the matter of filing them and that is it. But it helps if you go through those mistakes together with them in class again. In my case, in many cases I put those things on the screen and we go through together. Yes, they do. Especially, because they like, you know, laughing at other students mistakes. In many cases I encourage them because I say, "should your mistake be one of the ones that we have on the board, I mean on the screen, or should this be your sentence or the paragraph on your essay, you should be glad. Because we are helping you much better. Because you'll get to understand much better because we are looking at your work, helping you much better." So, that's how I somehow motivate them, for them not to feel embarrassed, that whoo, it was my essay that was put on the screen today and it is full of mistakes. You know, I encourage them to look at it that way that "I should be lucky if the work that we are now checking is yours because we can't check all the work of all students in class, I take selected mistakes and there is no way we can check all of them. That's why I said you should be lucky if yours is the one we are checking. It can very effective on condition that students take web-based language seriously.	When you go through together, do they show interest?
	Thanks very much for taking part in this survey.

C. Focus group lecturers' interview 3

Interview questions and lecturers' responses	**Researcher's comments/follow up questions**
1. Would you identify and explain the best ways that you think help your students to learn English better?	
Lect 1: Constant work, practice and feedback seems to be the most effective tools for teaching English. I try to create an English-only atmosphere in class and "immerse" the students in English. I give daily homework and we do mini-revision sessions at the beginning of each class. Students also need to create an English environment outside of class by speaking in English with friends/family and listening to English radio/tv. Most crucial, however, is promoting reading-whether it is the newspaper, novels or magazines. Students need to actively cultivate their skills in English inside and outside of the classroom. Lect 2 I'll try to establish a link between the actual attendance in class, the choice of English learners and their motivation. In other words, what is the purpose? We have to establish the link between learning English and something that's gonna give them some benefits, how work impact is gonna have in their lives. What is the added value, the plus, that they're gonna have by learning English. Because many times students just go to class because they are registered or because they're supposed to do something but they don't really reflect on why or how this is going to make me a better person; how it's going to contribute to self-improvement and so on. So, once you have that, you have a strong,	

emotional link, right. The motivation will be there. It might be a long journey, but the students will persevere no matter how. That's how the amount of difficulties looks like. So, for me that's the key. From there we can draw many other ways. Getting more specific, obviously you have to get it right for the pedagogical tools. So, the first thing you need to do, in particular the Polytechnic and some other institutions is to identify the needs, needs analysis. Because may be they can learn English fast, because if it is a case that, they've been learning for twelve, fifteen years, and maybe we have been perpetuating the wrong methods. They've been learning in not so fruitful way for a number of years. So, maybe it's time to press a research button, so that we can see what then, if you have been learning English for twelve fifteen years, and you have only got this far, something is not quite right. So, let's look at what we've done and how we can do it differently. In that light, then we can change, and bring in new communicative methods. Well, they are a lot, I don't want to get more specific with methodology but now we have a lot of new technology platforms, but something I want to emphasise is, for example, I feel very strongly by the presence of formative assessment. Meaning, providing feedback to the students, that is non-mark related. Every time the student gets information is about non-numerical way zero, A, B+, B, you, you are not up to bla-bla-bla… So, it will be great to make them participate in a process where they can just get rid of the pressure and feel that they can experiment because learning a language has a lot of experimentation, taking risks, the will to communicate, and that seem to gone from the classroom . So, formative assessment, give them the tasks, and then monitor the progress without necessarily recording marks. So, they see that they can have	

identified areas of improvement with low, sort of, academic risk. Lect 1 It's to help them to practise the skills that you teach them. You have to teach them the basics, of course. But then we don't have enough time I think. Our courses are too short. We have, but one semester. So, if you really want to teach them something, I think we need more time. It's definitely too short. So that we can focus on the basics, if we can help them to get that right first then they can build on that. And of course if they really want to learn English, then they'll have to start reading. But I don't know how you are going to get that, or to get them to do that. Because you don't have time to read with them, and I always tell them if you really want to improve, you have to start reading and I have seen that from personal experience, and I tell them that all the time. Because we had English as a second language at school level, and my English was really not very good when I left school. So, I had to improve my own English by reading, so I strongly believe in reading. But, then how you are going to do it, I'm not sure. Because they are not motivated to read on their own. But, that's my take on it. They have to read, then you must just basically give them the opportunities to practise the basics, the grammar, the tenses the sentence construction, whatever. Lect Also building on that, I think spot on, if you don't read, particularly in English, one of the difficulties we are gonna see may be in the other questions is that mismatch in spelling and reading and…, but anyway we shouldn't have to motivate them, we should maybe try to inspire them, because learning English is such a long endurance	

	kind of a marathon, any language. So they only read because it's compulsory or because it's part of the module really stop there. So, they have to discover the fun side of the language and the benefit of communicating. So, maybe there are ways in which we can reach the students, that maybe we haven't activated. Maybe books that inspire them or texts, or being less ambitious, because apparently one gets the feeling that they have this sort of negative connotations or these kind of challenge in front of them instead of being looking forward to learning more and more. Lect Read something to them that they find interesting, like a small, extra small grammar book. I did that with my learners at school, but then it was a different level. There is something like a diary of Adrian mile, I don't know if you have heard about it, but it's more like fun, and you read a good little part and they enjoy it so much and they'll all want to go find the book and read it. So, if you can try and find something that it can really spark their interest just read a little bit from it, so they would want to go and find the book and read it. Lect: In addition, maybe you can also obviously have to integrate on these skills reading will help but maybe they read something and it becomes social they write about it, and then they practise and then they share it, and then they speak about it in a presentation, then you get the reading integrated into, I supposed to this idea of reading, somebody isolated, just give away pages and have no impact, maybe if you read something and then you write about it and you post it now, with these social media that are into cell phones…	With regards to less time that we have, how do we see to it that they are reading?

Lect But then we'll need more time, I think we don't have enough time. In a semester we can't even finish the syllabus as it is. We struggle to work through it and finish it within four months. Lect Just to finish on the issue of time, obviously nobody is going to learn English by attending class five hours a week.	
2. Can you mention things that you think may frustrate students most when they learn English as a Second language?	
Lect Many of our Namibian students are very good at spoken English, but struggle and become frustrated with written English. In addition to spelling/grammar/structure errors, students struggle with expressing complex thoughts and forming arguments. I feel they also grow frustrated/embarrassed with reading out loud in class. Further, the students doubt themselves in terms of understanding directions/assignment or test instructions in English.	
3. Reflect on the way you respond to your students' spoken errors in your class and give your comments on how you feel they may help them to improve their speaking skills.	
Lect I often do not correct students on spoken English in class as I do not want to embarrass them or stop their train of thought. Though I often doubt if I am doing the right thing by not giving immediate feedback!	
4. How helpful do you think it is when students correct other students' errors in class?	

Lect I think peer-to-peer feedback is one of the most effective, least-threatening forms of feedback. It is also very instructive for the student who is giving feedback. I often have students give mini-presentations and then their peers fill in a grid rating them on their elocution, pronunciation, error control and general skills.	
5. How effectively do you think the feedback provided in web-based language learning contribute to students' language proficiency, especially their speaking and writing skills?	
Lect Web-based learning is excellent for correcting written errors as the student receives immediate feedback (for instance, when completing an online grammar quiz). I do not think web-based learning can provide much corrective feedback for spoken errors, but we had students make and upload video presentations on Moodle. This activity was designed to assist their spoken English skills. The students first had to write out a script and then present on camera.	

APPENDIX 6: Class observation checklist

Lecturer: _____ Class group: _____
No. of students: _____ Date: _____

Topic dealt with: _____

Types of errors made	**Types of feedback provided**						**Feedback Provided to**			**Feedback Provider**				**Response to feedback**				**Any comments**
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Indiv	Class	L	S	O	NF	1	2	3	4	
Wrong tense used																		
Wrong verb form																		
Wrong word used																		
Wrong word order																		
Concord																		
Pronunciation																		
Wrong/ irrelevant answer																		
Other Grammatical errors																		
Other Non-grammatical errors																		

Key:

Types of feedback provided	**Feedback Provided to**	**Feedback Provider**	**Response to feedback**
1 = Recast/ Reformulation	Indiv. = individual student	L = Lecturer	1 = Repeated correction
2 = Clarification request	Class = whole class	S = Self-correction	2 = Feedback acknowledged only
3 = Repetition		O = Other students	3 = Feedback rejected
4 = Explicit		NF = No	4 = Feedback ignored

correction		feedback provided	
5 = Prompt/Elicitation			
6 = Paralinguistic signal			
7 = Metalinguistic feedback			

APPENDIX 7: Ethics for the Respondents

Dear Participant

My name is Saara Sirkka Mungungu-Shipale, a student at the University of Namibia, doing a PhD in English in the Department of Language and Literature studies, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, under the supervision of Professor J. Kangira. As a requirement for the completion of my studies, I am conducting a research project entitled: **Lecturers' and students' perceptions and preferences on English as a Second Language corrective feedback in Namibia: towards an intervention model.**

The purpose of this research project is to identify some possible clues or guiding evidence on how ESL students learn English in Namibia. This will enable the researcher to compose an intervention model for corrective feedback in an ESL classroom. This study has been approved by the University of Namibia Research and Publications Committee together with the Postgraduate Studies Committee.

You have been selected to participate in this survey, as you may have different perceptions, preferences and experience regarding the impact of providing effective corrective feedback to ESL students. It will be appreciated if you avail yourself for an interview of about 10 to 15 minutes and anonymously complete a questionnaire concerning lecturers' and students' perceptions and preferences on corrective feedback. The researcher will make use of a tape recorder and take narrated notes during the interview session. Please be assured that the information obtained during this survey will be used for academic research purpose only and will be treated confidentially.

The researcher believes there is no risk to participating in this research project. Participating in this research may have some direct benefits for you, as the results may benefit lecturers and future students of English.

Your participation in this survey is greatly appreciated.

Please sign below to indicate your consent to participate in the research.

Name:_____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

APPENDIX 8: Permission to conduct research study

SUBMISSION

TO: Dr A. Niikondo
Vice-Rector: Academic Affairs and Research

I approve this. 26/09/2014

THROUGH: Dr S. Krishnamurthy
Dean: School of Human Sciences

Approved and recommended for approval 29/09/14

THROUGH: Ms E. Wittmann
HOD: Education and Languages Department

Strongly recommended 23-09-2014

FROM: Ms S. S. Mungungu-Shipale

DATE: 23 September 2014

SUBJECT: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH STUDY

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1. **Purpose**
   I am hereby seeking your consent to conduct research at the Polytechnic of Namibia during the period of October 2014 – October 2015.

2. **Background**
   I am a lecturer at the Polytechnic of Namibia (PoN), in the School of Human Sciences, Education and Languages Department. I am currently a registered PhD student at the University of Namibia main campus, in Windhoek. The research I wish to conduct for my Doctoral thesis involves lecturers' and students' perceptions and preferences on English as a Second Language corrective feedback in Namibia. This project will be conducted under the supervision of Professor Jairos Kangira (HOD: Faculty of Languages, UNAM Main Campus).

3. **Motivation/Discussion**
   I hope that the institution management will grant me permission to visit eight Language in Practice (LIP) class groups for observation that consist of a total of about 240 students (30 per class group), from the school of Human Sciences. I request permission for these 240 students to anonymously complete a questionnaire on students' perceptions and preferences on corrective feedback. Further, I also seek permission to interview about forty students from the observed groups. Due to the nature of the study, I hope to interview the lecturers who teach LIP to these students as well as anonymously complete a questionnaire concerning lecturers' perceptions and preferences on corrective feedback. If permission is granted, student and lecturer participants will complete the survey in a classroom or other quiet setting

on the institution site during a lunch hour. Students and lecturers who will participate in the study will be given a consent form to sign.

Apart from the actual research that I need to conduct, I also need to visit two LIP classes of about 60 students, prior to the research study, for the purpose of pilot study. I shall administer the questionnaire to ten students from these LIP classes and to two lecturers who teach LIP course to these two classes. The purpose of piloting the questionnaire is to check that each question measures what it is supposed to measure and to find out the duration the questionnaire takes to complete. I shall arrange to receive verbal feedback about the questionnaire from the participants. The pilot study participants will not take part in the actual survey of the study.

To get started with the process, I have already identified ten potential lecturers, two to take part in the piloting session of the study and eight to participate in the actual research study.

Together with this letter, I provide you with a copy of the summary of my thesis proposal and an approval letter for me to conduct research that I received from the University of Namibia, School of Post-graduate Studies.

If you require any further information, please do not hesitate to contact me on my mobile phone number 081 244 1774 or email address: ssmungungu@gmail.com. Thank you for your time and consideration in this matter.

Sincerely yours

Saara Sirkka Mungungu-Shipale
Polytechnic of Namibia

APPENDIX 9: Research permission

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Website: www.unam.na

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Private bag 13301
Windhoek
NAMIBIA

Inspiring minds & shaping the future

Date: 10 JUNE 2014

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: RESEARCH PERMISSION LETTER

1. This letter serves to inform that student: S. S. MUNGUNGU (Student number: 201212500) is a registered student in the Department of LANGUAGE & LITERATURE STUDIES at the University of Namibia. His/her research proposal was reviewed and successfully met the University of Namibia requirements.
2. The purpose of this letter is to kindly notify you that the student has been granted permission to carry out postgraduate studies research. The School of Postgraduate Studies has approved the research to be carried out by the student for purposes of fulfilling the requirements of the degree being pursued.
3. The proposal adheres to ethical principles.

Thank you so much in advance and many regards.

Yours truly,

Name of Main Supervisor: PROF J. KANGIRA

Signed: Jkangira

Dr. C. N.S. Shaimemanya

Signed: ----------

Director: School of Postgraduate Studies
Tel: 2063523
E-mail: cshaimemanya@unam.na

APPENDIX 10: Ethical clearance

UNIVERSITY OF NAMIBIA

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

Ethical Clearance Reference Number: SEC/FHSS/31/2014 **Date: 5 June, 2014**

This Ethical Clearance Certificate is issued by the University of Namibia Research Ethics Committee (UREC) in accordance with the University of Namibia's **Research Ethics Policy and Guidelines. Ethical** approval is given in respect of undertakings contained in the Research Project outlined below. This Certificate is issued on the recommendations of the ethical evaluation done by the Faculty/Centre/Campus Research & Publications Committee sitting with the Postgraduate Studies Committee.

Title of Project: Lecturers' and Students' Perceptions and Preferences on English as a Second Language Corrective Feedback in Namibia: Towards and Intervention Model

Nature/Level of Project: Doctorate

Principal Researcher: Saara S. Mungungu (Student Nr: 201212500)

Host Department & Faculty: English Studies, Humanities and Social Sciences

Supervisor : J. Kangira (Main) J.Ola-Busari (Co)

Take note of the following:

(a) Any significant changes in the conditions or undertakings outlined in the approved Proposal must be communicated to the UREC. An application to make amendments may be necessary.

(b) Any breaches of ethical undertakings or practices that have an impact on ethical conduct of the research must be reported to the UREC.

(c) The Principal Researcher must report issues of ethical compliance to the UREC (through the Chairperson of the Faculty/Centre/Campus Research & Publications Committee) at the end of the Project or as may be requested by UREC.

(d) The UREC retains the right to:

(i). withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance if any unethical practices (as outlined in the Research Ethics Policy) have been detected or suspected,

(ii). request for an ethical compliance report at any point during the course of the research.

UREC wishes you the best in your research.

Prof. I. Mapaure
UNAM Research Coordinator
ON BEHALF OF UREC