

# Correcting errors in the L2 classroom: students' and teachers' perceptions<sup>1</sup>

La corrección de errores en el aula de L2: puntos de vista de los estudiantes y profesores

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## Abstract

Correcting students' errors is necessary for improving their linguistic and communicative competence. This study seeks to examine students' and teachers' perceptions about error correction in the L2 classroom. An online survey was designed and sent out to a purposive sample. The sample consists of 12 students from the University of Guyana's Modern Language Programme, who are pursuing a career in Spanish, French and Portuguese (with B1 and C1 language levels), and 9 teachers (7 current/2 former) from the Programme who specialise in teaching these different languages. The results of the survey are analysed and discussed through a mixed method approach, and conclusions are drawn from the information presented. Recommendations are made for language teachers to use various kinds of error correction (corrective feedback) strategies in the classroom, in order to provide students with the necessary stimuli to correct their language errors, and to engender significant learning experiences.

**Keywords:** L2, L2 acquisition, error, error correction, error correction strategies, corrective feedback.

## Resumen

La corrección de errores de los estudiantes es necesaria para mejorar su competencia lingüística y comunicativa. Este estudio pretende examinar los puntos de vista de los estudiantes y profesores sobre la corrección de errores en el aula de L2. Se diseñó y aplicó un cuestionario electrónico a una muestra determinada. La muestra consta de 12 estudiantes, del Programa de Lenguas Modernas de la Universidad de Guyana, los cuales siguen una carrera en español, francés y portugués (con niveles de lengua entre B1 y C1), y 9 profesores (7 actuales/2 antiguos) del Programa que se especializan en la enseñanza de estos distintos idiomas. Se analizan y discuten los resultados de la encuesta a través de un método mixto, y se hacen conclusiones y recomendaciones basadas en la información presentada. Se recomienda que los profesores de lenguas utilicen varios tipos de estrategias de corrección de errores (feedback correctivo) en el aula, con el fin de proporcionar a los estudiantes el estímulo necesario para corregir sus errores, y engendrarles experiencias de aprendizaje significativas.

**Palabras clave:** L2, adquisición de L2, error, corrección de error, estrategias de corrección de error, feedback correctivo.

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<sup>1</sup> Throughout this article, the terms *foreign language* and *second language*, even though technically different, are used interchangeably and are represented by 'L2'. They are understood to mean the learner's non-native language.

## **1. INTRODUCTION**

One of the most polemic issues in L2 didactics hinges around error correction in the classroom. L2 students seem to be condemned to committing errors in their linguistic productions, in their attempts to acquire another language, in addition to their mother tongue (Van Lier, 2006; Livingstone, 2011). Teachers become frustrated when this happens, especially when these errors recur continually. Students not only become frustrated with themselves when they keep making these errors, but also with the teacher, when their errors are addressed in certain ways. While some teachers have their preconceived ideas about what errors should be corrected, and how, students also have theirs. This has resulted in a mismatch between students' and teachers' perceptions regarding the kinds of language errors committed, whether or not they should be corrected, and how this should be done.

Students' errors are very important in the language learning process (Corder, 1967). It is because of Corder (1967) that error analysis is recognised as a scientific method within the field of Applied Linguistics. Before Corder's (1967) time, students' errors were placed into two categories – common/uncommon – however very little attention was placed on their function in L2 acquisition. This author contends that in order to properly design and develop pedagogic materials and, most importantly, use the appropriate didactic strategies, knowledge of learner errors is absolutely necessary. In other words, without knowledge of learner errors, it would be virtually impossible to design and implement effective error correction strategies.

Biggs and Tang (2011) assert that a good teacher is one who will use all available strategies to ensure that his students achieve the intended learning outcomes. Once students are able to achieve these outcomes, then instruction will have been effective, and naturally, effective learning will have taken place. In the language classroom, with specific emphasis to correcting errors, this is no different. It is well known that committing errors is a natural part of the language learning process. The good language teacher should not only be linguistically and communicatively competent, but also should be ever aware of the learners' language errors, and consequently direct his energies towards employing teaching techniques and strategies that would help the students to eliminate, as far as is possible, their language errors.

Regarding the above-mentioned, this study deals with students' and teachers' perceptions of L2 error correction in the classroom context, with specific reference to the University of Guyana (UG). Since there is a lot of research done in the area of L2

error correction, this case study is significant since it is a *pioneer* study, which seeks to shed light on the error correction phenomenon from the perspective of students and teachers in the UG's Modern Language Programme.

The aim, research questions, and objectives of this study are as follows:

### ***1.1 Aim***

*Examine students' and teachers' perceptions about error correction in the L2 classroom.*

### ***1.2 Research Questions***

- (1) How do students perceive language errors and their correction?
- (2) How do teachers perceive students' language errors and their correction?
- (3) What error correction strategies do teachers employ?

### ***1.3 Objectives***

- (1) Investigate students' perceptions of L2 error correction.
- (2) Explore teachers' perceptions of correcting students' language errors.
- (3) Analyse teachers' error correction strategies.
- (4) Recommend error correction strategies.

## **2. BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT**

Guyana, located in the continent of South America, is the only country whose official language is English. 13 countries make up this continent: 9 are Spanish-speaking (Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Paraguay, Uruguay, Venezuela), 1 Portuguese-speaking (Brazil), 1 French-speaking (French Guiana), 1 Dutch-speaking (Suriname), and 1 English-speaking (Guyana). Figure 1 shows a map of South America, indicating Guyana's location. The country in red is Guyana.



Figure 1. Map of South America showing Guyana's Location

[Source: [http://www.lib.utexas.edu/maps/americas/south\\_america\\_pol98.jpg](http://www.lib.utexas.edu/maps/americas/south_america_pol98.jpg)]

Due to globalisation and bilateral/multilateral agreements with neighbouring countries, there is an influx of foreigners entering the country, most of who speak very little or no English. Most of these foreigners are either Spanish- or Portuguese-speaking, with French falling behind, for which it is critical for these languages to be taught and learned so that communication with these foreigners is made possible.

The UG, the country's only university (Livingstone, 2013), with two campuses in two different parts of the country, offers different kinds and levels of modern language programmes and courses for those desirous. Figure 2 presents a map of Guyana with the two campus locations (1 and 2).



Figure 2. Map of Guyana showing UG's Campuses

[Source: <http://guyana.facts.co/Guyana-Map.png>]

At the UG, students can pursue programmes in Spanish, French and Portuguese as L2. English as L2 courses are offered, on a small scale, as the need arises, to those foreigners who wish to strengthen their linguistic and communicative competence in that language.

Years ago, the above-mentioned programmes used to attract many students; however, of late, just a handful of them opt to study languages. The Modern Language Department at the University is very small, with just 7 lecturers who teach various courses in the above-mentioned languages. There are no more than 12 students in the Department. The low numbers are arguably due to the loss of interest, and lack of motivation, in such programmes. From personal discussions with students, past and present, one of the major concerns put forth is that “some lecturers do not know how to teach”. Such an affirmation is an indictment against teaching faculty. For students to be able to learn, and learn well, teachers must know how to teach, and teach well (Biggs & Tang, 2011; Livingsstone, 2014b). In other words, effective teaching engenders effective learning.

From personal experience, some FL students of the University, past and present, lack the linguistic and communicative competence necessary to function outside of the classroom setting. How is it that students, who, in some cases, spend up to 4 years

completing a degree programme in languages, are not able to communicate effectively in the language they have, were supposed to have, 'learned'? The reason for this state of affairs is due to the fact that the FL teaching faculty are not au-fait with current teaching methods and, consequently, they conform to the traditional method, the *Grammar-Translation Method*, the same method through which they were taught, and the only method with which they are familiar. Even though they may be instance of *Communicative Method*, the learning-teaching process is principally traditional.

An integral part of effective learning is the correction of learner errors (Corder, 1967). It could be assumed that the language errors of those students, who left the University as incompetent FL speakers, were never sufficiently, or properly, corrected. This could be due in part (1) to the teacher not doing it properly, or (2) to the teacher not knowing how to do it. In the presence of 1 and/or 2, it would be seemingly difficult for students to 'notice' their errors (James, 1998; Doughty, 2001; Ellis, 2008), with the objective of attempting to correct them. This is understandable, since the traditional approach to language learning and teaching only caters for little focus on the function of learners' language errors (Corder, 1967).

In light of the prevailing situation within the Modern Language Department at the University, it therefore follows that the pedagogical practices of the teaching faculty will have to undergo a massive transformation. The objective of this pedagogical shift would be to embrace newer and more effective learning and teaching strategies, especially in the context of learner error correction.

### **3. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

This study is significant because it is a pioneer research, since is the *first of its kind* to have been done at the University of Guyana. There is no documented evidence of any research of this nature being conducted, with respect to students' and teachers' perceptions about L2 error correction. Its overarching objective is to enlighten the UG's modern language teachers about their pedagogical practices, with specific reference to learners' language errors, and what they need to do to improve them.

### **4. LITERATURE REVIEW**

There is a plethora of SLA literature about the concept of error correction and how it should be addressed. Error correction can either be done orally, or in written form. In this section, however, the literature reviewed concentrates only on three aspects

of oral error correction relevant to this study: (1) the error correction concept; (2) the ongoing debate on error correction, and (3) Hendrickson's (1978) five questions about error correction.

#### **4.1 The Error Correction Concept**

The concept of error correction in language learning has been embroiled in a never-ending debate among researchers and practitioners in the field of L2 acquisition, since its value was reassessed due to the increasing prominence of the Communicative Approach (CA) beginning from the 1960's. This concept originated with Corder (1967). He played a pivotal role in the short-term resuscitation of error analysis, before he threw his support behind 'idiosyncratic dialect' (Corder, 1971). His position was that the errors in the learner's L2 system were idiosyncrasies, which affected his target language or L2 production, and that these same errors were not seen as idiosyncrasies in the learner's interlanguage (IL). Other researchers (Muñoz, 1991; James, 1998) endorse these propositions.

When Corder (1967) speaks of errors, specifically in the context of L2 acquisition, he is referring to systematic errors. This author makes the distinction between unsystematic errors, referring to them as *mistakes*, and the systematic errors as *errors*. These mistakes are produced in the learner's L2 '*performance*' (Chomsky, 1965). For L2 learners, they bear no real significance to the language learning process. They result from situations of tiredness, tension, stress, nervousness, and carelessness, among others. With regard to 'errors', these occur in the learner's L2 '*competence*' (Chomsky, 1965), during the L2 learning process. These systematic errors would not normally be produced by the native speakers (NS); in other words, these are usually, and only, produced by L2 learners.

It is Corder (1967) who established that learners' errors are helpful not only to teachers, but also to researchers, and to the very students who commit them: they are helpful to teachers because they shed valuable light on student progress and what else is to be learned; they are helpful to the researcher because they detail how language is learned or acquired, and reveal learner strategies in language discovery; they are helpful to learners because, from and through these very errors, learners are able to tests various hypotheses about the new language they are learning or acquiring.

#### ***4.2 The Ongoing Debate on Error Correction***

Over the years, there has been an ongoing polemic about error correction and its usefulness in L2 learning. Some opponents argue that error correction is dangerous to L2 learning and may very well hinder the process (Krashen, 1994; Truscott, 1999; Krashen, 2003). Some proponents affirm that error correction is synonymous with L2 learning (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Azar, 2007). Further, some assert that, under the correct conditions, error correction can impact positively on L2 learning (Hendrickson, 1978; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Heift & Schulze, 2003; McDonough, 2005; Ellis, 2009; Inceca & Dollar, 2011; Livingstone, 2011; Kayum, 2015).

Krashen's (1994) and Truscott's (1999) view has some merit because correcting errors is never an easy process, especially in the way in which it done. It can be a very unpleasant experience, where students' anxieties are raised, where they feel embarrassed, ultimately frustrating the learning process. This does more harm than good. Based on research done, students' discrepancies regarding the kinds of didactic practices, strategies and techniques conducive to their learning can impact negatively on their attitude, their motivation, and their assessment of the teacher (Schulz, 2001; Rauber & Gil, 2004, Yoshida, 2008). These authors proffer that these issues can jeopardise both learning and teaching effectiveness in the classroom. Schulz (2001) adds that the teacher's credibility and the learner's attitude can be severely affected, if the teacher's pedagogical practices are not on par with students' expectations of what strategies and techniques could be helpful to their L2 learning process.

Amman and Spada's (2006) and Azar's (2007) position about the naturalness of error correction in the L2 process cannot be ignored. In the real world, when someone makes mistakes, or has done something wrong, the only way for that individual to know that he has made a mistake, and for it to be corrected, or not repeated, is for it to be pointed out to him. In other words, therefore, he has to be 'made aware' of it. The same applies to the L2 process: it is natural for errors to be made, and it is also natural for them to be corrected. For them to be corrected, students have to become 'aware' of them (Ellis, 1985; James, 1998; Doughty, 2001; Gregg, 2001; Ellis, 2008).

Those propositions in favour of error correction being done judiciously and under suitable circumstances (Hendrickson, 1978; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Heift & Schulze, 2003; McDonough, 2005; Smith, 2010) are also noteworthy. For L2 students to be able to 'notice' their errors, careful

consideration must be exercised in how they are made to ‘notice’ them. It is not necessarily what is done, that makes the distinction, but rather *how* it is done. Teachers need to consider a number of issues – individual differences, culture, and motivation levels, among others – in order to implement the best error correction strategies. Once this is done, students will benefit, thus leading to learning.

### ***4.3 Hendrickson’s (1978) Five Questions About Error Correction***

Hendrickson’s (1978) pioneering study about corrective feedback (CF) sought to question the ‘should’, ‘when’, ‘which’, ‘how’, and ‘who’ of the oral error correction process in the L2 classroom. Over the past three decades, researchers and practitioners have been debating the best way possible to answer these questions. The answers to these questions are still being explored, and there is no clear-cut one way answer. Hendrickson’s (1978) questions are: (1) Should learner errors be corrected? (2) If so, when should learner errors be corrected? (3) Which learner errors should be corrected? (4) How should learner errors be corrected? (5) Who should correct learner errors?

#### ***4.3.1 Should learner errors be corrected?***

One of the burning questions is whether or not learner errors should be corrected. There are opposing views. Hendrickson (1978) is in favour of L2 learners’ error correction because their competence in the language is improved. Krashen (1994) and Truscott (1999), on the other hand, are not in agreement with this. They believe that unpleasant classroom activities like inconsistent error correction and grammar instruction are counterproductive to the L2 learning process. Proponents (Rauber & Gil, 2004; McDonough, 2005; Smith, 2010), through research done, however, believe that it would be injurious to students’ L2 learning, were their errors to be left unattended. Important to note is that Hendrickson (1978)’s findings establish that for a conducive classroom climate to be achieved, some errors, and not all, should be corrected.

#### ***4.3.2 If so, when should learner errors be corrected?***

Since there seems to be consensus in support of the correction of learner errors, an appropriate time to do this, during the lesson, must be determined. Dekeyser (1993)’s research highlighted that it is not only a matter of student readiness for correction, but also a question of motivation and anxiety. In other words, high achievers would be more open to error correction than low achievers. Loewen’s (2004) study on incidental focus

on form (FonF) tasks in the communicative classroom yielded favourable results. Yoshida's (2008) study, however, highlighted a number of discrepancies regarding error correction in the classroom: teachers' uncertainty about when, for whom, and how learners' errors should be dealt with; time constraints; learners' ability to process public feedback, among others. While this issue is still being researched, Loewen (2007) suggests that FonF tasks be incorporated strategically during the classroom experience.

#### ***4.3.3 Which learner errors should be corrected?***

Since researchers and practitioners are of the view that learner errors should be addressed at specific moments during the classroom experience, they are now confronted with which specific errors to correct? Should some, or all of them, be corrected? Cathcart and Olsen's (1976) findings from their survey research highlighted 91% learner preference for continuous correction. The downside to this was that students complained that it was next to impossible for their L2 speech to be coherent, due to the continuous interruption and error correction during a speech act. Hendrickson's (1978) stance (as mentioned in 3.3.1) is to address only some of them. This author contends that when the teacher overlooks some errors during their L2 productions, learners are motivated to communicate at ease. But which errors should be corrected? In Katayama's (2007) study, Japanese students pursuing English as L2 preferred their pragmatic errors, and those errors that impeded their communication, to be corrected. This research corroborates what Hendrickson (1978) established: the errors that should receive precedence are those that occur repeatedly, those that impede coherent communication, and those that socially stigmatise the learner. In other words, systematic errors should be addressed.

#### ***4.3.4 How should learner errors be corrected?***

Another critical question to be addressed is the way in which learner errors should be corrected. Are there determined ways to correct errors? Regarding oral error correction (the focus of this study), it can either receive implicit or explicit treatment. When corrected explicitly, students become 'aware' of the error. It is difficult to determine if the student has 'noticed' the error through implicit correction. According to Suzuki (2004), based on research conducted, explicit error correction is more favourable to cause the student to repair the error than implicit error correction. Dabaghi's (2008)

study confirmed Suzuki's (2004) findings, establishing the effectiveness of explicit error correction in a post-treatment experiment with learners.

Notable in the treatment of errors is Lyster and Ranta's (1997) contribution of six kinds of error correction strategies. These are: (1) *effective corrective feedback*, (2) *recasts*, (3) *clarification*, (4) *metalinguistic feedback*, (5) *elicitation*, and (6) *repetition*. Each of these kinds of error correction strategies is important in the L2 learning process. Research done in these areas (Yamamoto, 2003; Sheen, 2006; Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Han & Kim, 2008) has shed light on their validity in learner error correction.

#### **4.3.5 Who should correct learner errors?**

One of the most critical questions in the error correction process in the classroom hinges on the 'corrector'. Who is responsible for correcting student errors? Is it the teacher? Is it the student? Is it both the teacher and student? Hendrickson (1978) submits that there have been various hypotheses about the desirability of self-correction. The obvious answer may be "the teacher, of course", since it is the teacher who is trained to 'detect' student errors and 'fix' them. It is the teacher who is the 'expert' in the subject matter. Mackey's (2002) study revealed that while less than 50% of peer CF was noticed by their colleagues, 77% of the NS teacher's CF was noticed by learners. Morris and Tarone (2003) conducted a study on student corrective recasts, where students were required to work in pairs. There were frequent interpersonal conflicts between the high and low achievers, and this imperiled the corrective feedback process. These authors concluded that the weak learner's defensiveness and the strong learner's frustration created a situation that was not conducive to peer CF. While research has shown that students should not necessarily correct each other, other research done has shown that peer correction should not be ignored (Yoshida, 2008; Smith, 2010; Kayum, 2015).

## **5. METHODOLOGY**

Given that this research is about error correction in the L2 classroom, from the students' and teachers' point of view, a *case study* approach (Thomas, 2011) was used as this study's paradigm. This particular research type was selected, based on the fact that it offered the most suitable methods for a context-sensitive in-depth study of the phenomenon in question.

The specific methodology used was *mixed method* since it “[...] employs strategies of inquiry that involve collecting qualitative and quantitative data [...]” (Creswell 2009, p. 40). Additionally, this author contends that this is the preferred research method, since using only one of the methods (qualitative or quantitative) would be contradictory to the modern research approaches being employed in the ambit of human and social sciences.

In order to fulfil the aim and objectives of this study, in addition to answering the research questions, an exploratory study was done by means of an online survey. This survey sought to shed light on the error correction phenomenon in the L2 classroom, based on research participants’ responses.

### ***5.1 Investigative Site***

The investigative site for this study was the UG. As earlier stated, the UG is a tertiary education provider in the country of Guyana, in the continent of South America. This University was selected specifically because of the researcher’s affiliation to it, and given that there is a need to improve pedagogical practices in the L2 classroom.

### ***5.2 Sampling Technique***

A *purposive sampling* technique (Palys, 2008) was employed. This technique was selected, since the intent was to survey specific groups of people – students and teachers – with a view to subsequently making judgments on the information collected. Said differently, the specific samples used were most suitable to answer the research questions.

### ***5.3 The Study Programme***

Since the focus was on error correction in the L2 classroom, the students of the Modern Language Programme, offered in the Department of Languages and Cultural Studies, within the Faculty of Education and Humanities (FEH) of the UG, were earmarked. Students can pursue the (1) Associate Degree in Spanish, French, or Portuguese, and the (2) Bachelor of Arts (B.A.) Degree in Spanish, among others. A B.A. Degree in French or Portuguese is not offered, since the University never attracts the required number of students (about 6-10) to enroll in a degree programme, in addition to the shortage of staff to teach those languages. The B.A. Degree allows for minors in French or Portuguese, in addition to other subject areas within the Faculty

(English, Tourism, History, Social Studies, and the like). The Modern Language Programme in the Department is designed in such a way that students from other degree programmes can pursue Spanish, French, English or Portuguese as minors. The programme does not attract many students, so the number of students pursuing these subject areas, on a yearly basis, is usually quite small.

Important to note is that those students, who wish to pursue Spanish as a major, must have previous knowledge (secondary education or other) in the language. For those languages offered as a minor, it is advisable to have previous knowledge (though this is not mandatory).

#### **5.4 Respondents/Participants**

The respondents came directly from the educational institution, the UG, and each set of participants is described below.

##### **5.4.1 Students (Modern Languages)**

Students in the Modern Language Programme pursue studies in Spanish, either as a major or a minor, and French, Portuguese and English (in addition to other subject areas) as a minor. The students' language levels in Spanish, French and Portuguese, according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages [CEFR] (Council of Europe, 2001), fall between B1 and C1. There are 12 students in the modern languages programme. All of them are Guyanese, and they all have previous knowledge in the languages they are learning. Table 1 shows the distribution of these students and their major/minor.

*Table 1.* Distribution of Students in Modern Language Programme

<b>Students</b>	<b>Year of Study</b>	<b>Major</b>	<b>Minor</b>
1	Year 1	English	Spanish
2	Year 1	Spanish	
3	Year 2	Spanish	French
4	Year 2	Spanish	French
5	Year 2	Spanish	Tourism
6	Year 2	Spanish	
7	Year 2	Spanish	
8	Year 2	English	Spanish

9	Year 3	Spanish	English
10	Year 3	Spanish	Portuguese
11	Year 3	Spanish	French
12	Year 3	English	Spanish

#### 5.4.2 Teachers (Modern Languages)

Given the small number of students in the Programme, the Department employs only seven full-time lecturers. Two former lecturers, who are currently language teachers in other institutions, also participated in the survey, bringing the total number of teacher respondents to nine. Of the nine teachers, seven are Guyanese and two are Hispanics (Panamanian and Cuban). Table 2 below shows the distribution of teachers in the Programme, and the subject areas that they teach.

Table 2. Distribution of Modern Language Teachers

Teachers	Subject Area(s)
<i>Current</i>	
1	French, English
2	French, English
3	Spanish, Portuguese
4	Spanish, English
5	Spanish
6	Spanish
7	Portuguese, English
<i>Former</i>	
8	Spanish
9	Spanish

#### 5.5 Instruments

The research instruments used in this study for data collection were two surveys, which had the objective of addressing the research questions. The questionnaires were made up of both open-ended and close-ended questions, all of them focusing on correcting errors in the L2 classroom. Moreover, in each of the two surveys, the meaning of the concept of ‘error’ in linguistic terms, a description of the research’s purpose, and a confidentiality statement could be found. The statement of confidentiality, for transparency and clarity’s sake, alerted respondents to the fact that completing the survey was a *voluntary* act, and that their answers would be *confidential*.

Each of the questionnaires was designed as an online survey, using a free online tool, *SurveyMonkey* ([www.surveymonkey.com](http://www.surveymonkey.com)). Each of the surveys is described below.

**5.5.1 Students (Modern Languages)**

The student survey was the first to be designed, consisting of five open-ended/close-ended questions centred on the first research question. Three questions followed the ‘5-point Likert scale system’, while the remaining two demanded one of two choices. Each of the questions was divided into two parts, where respondents had to give follow-up essay-type answers to the first part of the question. These questions hinged on students’ feelings about making language errors, who should correct them, and whether this should be done publicly or not, among others.

**5.5.2 Teachers (Modern Languages)**

The teachers’ survey was the second and final one to be crafted, comprising six open-ended/close-ended questions hinged on the second and third research questions. Four questions adhered to the ‘5-point Likert scale system’, while the remaining two required a response of one of two options. Each question was divided into two parts, allowing participants the opportunity to give a follow-up essay-type response to the first part of the question. These questions centred on teachers’ feelings about students’ language errors, who should correct them, and the kinds of error correction strategies that they (the teachers) use, among others. Important to note is that the first five questions of the teachers’ survey were similar to those of the students’ survey.

The specific sample target for each set of participants was determined, following Leedy and Ormrod’s (2013) guidelines, and corroborated by Help With Research (2013). These authors affirm that if the population size is smaller than 100, then all should be sampled. This is exactly what was done in this research. This information is presented in Table 3:

*Table 3. Determined Sample Target*

<b>Respondents</b>	<b>Sample Target (N)</b>
Students	12
Teachers	9
	<b>21 (Total)</b>

**5.6 Implementation of Instruments**

A simple validity and reliability test (Data Analysis Australia, 2014), also known as a cognitive interviewing test, was done on the surveys, before they were actually implemented, to verify whether or not the research instruments measured what they were supposed to. Four different individuals were contacted, and they agreed to participate in a trial run of the said survey, two for each questionnaire. These individuals finished the survey without difficulty, before the day’s end. Since participants did not seek clarification at any point during the completion of the questionnaire, this was indicative that the survey was ready to be implemented. A check of the responses by those individuals confirmed that the questions were indeed clear.

The two links to the two online surveys were formally sent to the participants on March 23, 2015. The students’ survey was sent to their email addresses, with subsequent reminders to these very addresses, and to their personal Facebook (FB) inbox. The teachers’ survey was sent only to their email addresses. Participants were reminded thrice weekly of the importance of not only completing the survey, but also completing it in its entirety. Respondents were given a time-frame of 14 days to complete the survey, even though they were not informed of this. This step was taken, in order to ensure that both sets of samples answer the survey, with a view to obtaining the required amount of data for subsequent analysis.

The surveys were formally closed on April 6, 2015, two weeks after they were opened. The total number of questionnaires answered was 21. All of the participants responded to all of the questions. Regarding the return rate, the following information is presented in Table 4:

*Table 4. Response Rate for Online Survey*

<b>Sample Target (N)</b>	<b>Return Rate</b>	<b>% Return Rate</b>
12	12	100%
9	9	100%
<b>21(TOTAL)</b>	<b>21 (TOTAL)</b>	

Important to mention is the fact that an empirical quantitative-qualitative analysis was done, making use of data triangulation. Each of the questions for each of

the two surveys was analysed individually with the primary aim of answering the research questions.

## 6. RESULTS

In agreement with this study’s aim, research questions and objectives, the quantitative results obtained from the first part of the survey questions are presented below.

### 6.1 Students’ Survey

As was earlier mentioned, the students’ survey consisted of five questions. **100%** of the sample (12 students) participated. The results are presented for each one of them. Each of the specific survey questions is contained within the figures.

#### 6.1.1 Question 1

The first question was for students to respond about making in-class errors. Figure 3 presents this information.



Figure 3. Students’ perceptions about in-class language errors

#### 6.1.2 Question 2

The second question was about how they should be corrected. This information is presented in Figure 4.

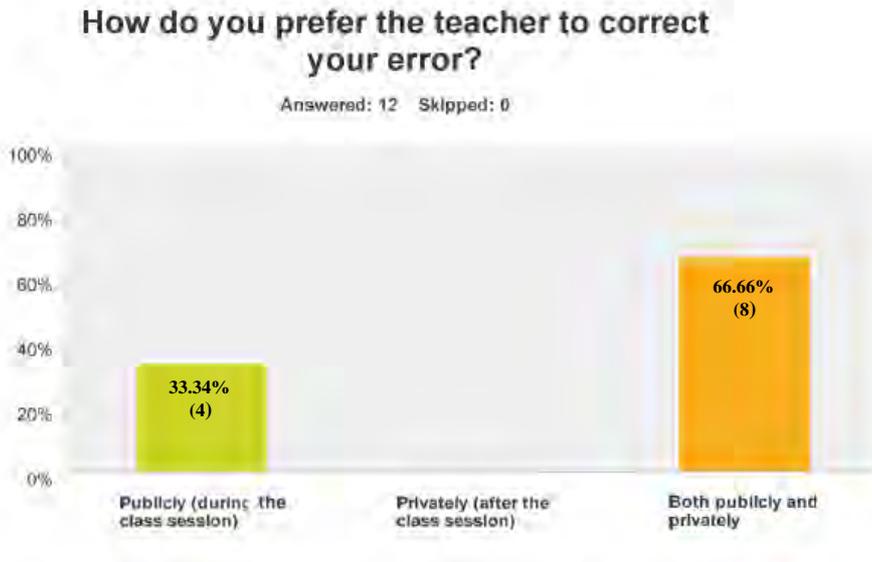


Figure 4. Students' perceptions about how to correct them

### 6.1.3 Question 3

The third question hinged on whether or not students felt that their errors should be corrected for the benefit of others. Figure 5 records these results.

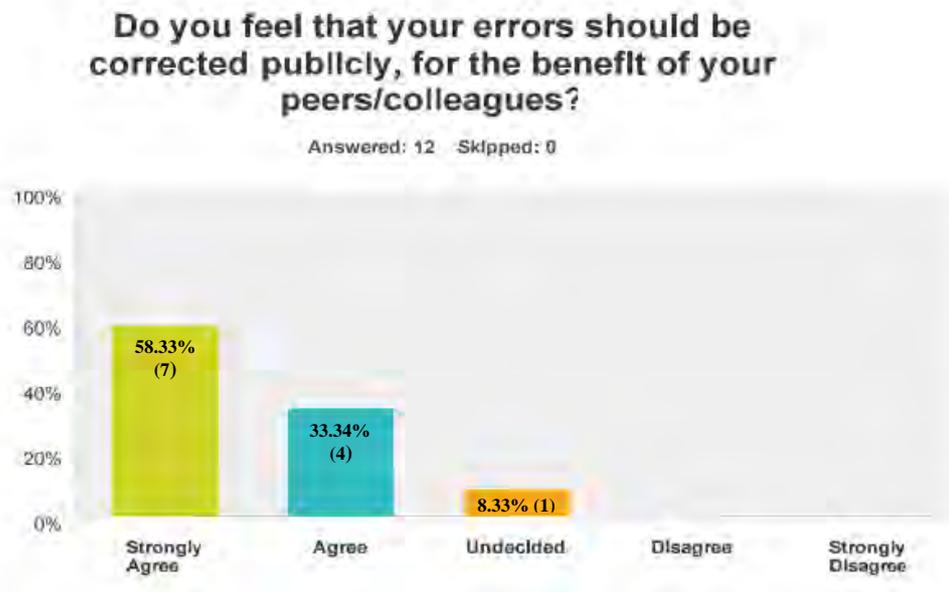


Figure 5. Students' perceptions about the benefit of public correction

### 6.1.4 Question 4

The fourth question focused on when was the preferred time for students' errors to be corrected. These results are recorded in Figure 6.

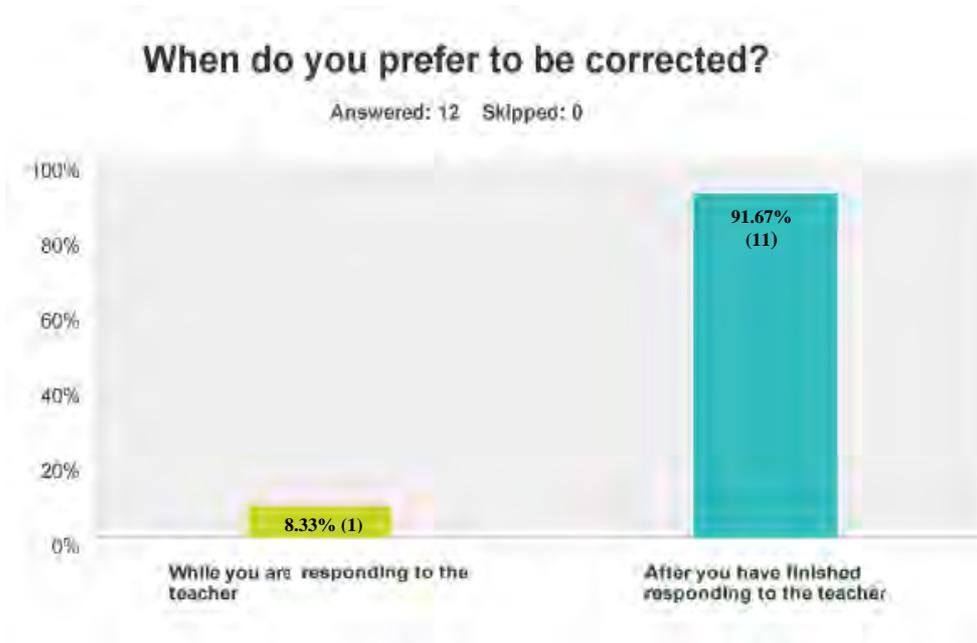


Figure 6. Students' perceptions about when to be corrected

### 6.1.5 Question 5

The fifth and final question of the students' survey dealt with their perceptions about the teacher alone correcting them. Figure 7 deposits these findings.

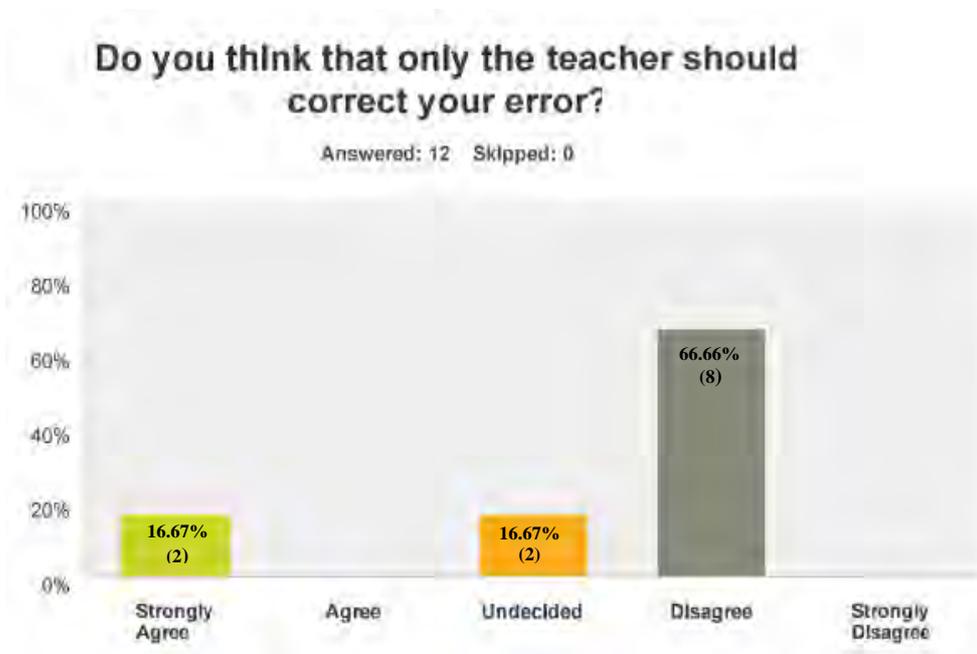


Figure 7. Students' perceptions about correction by teacher alone

## 6.2 Teachers' Survey

The teachers' survey was made up of six questions, as earlier highlighted. The first five questions of this survey were similar to those in the students' survey. **100%** of the sample (9 teachers) participated. The results are presented for each one of them. Each specific survey question is contained within the figures.

### 6.2.1 Question 1

The first question was for teachers to respond about students' in-class errors. Figure 8 presents this information.

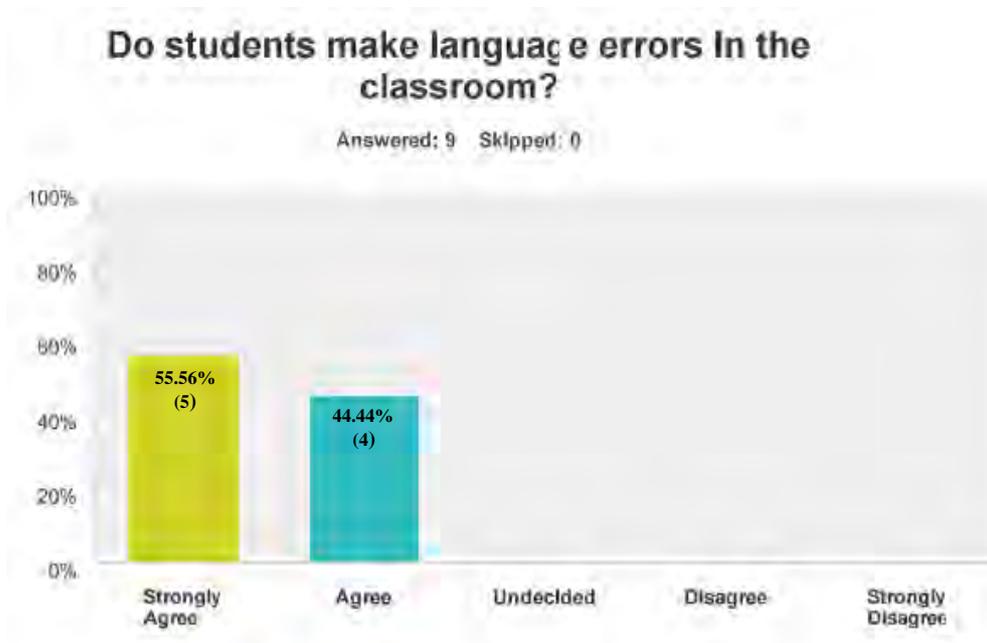


Figure 8. Teachers' perceptions about students' in-class language errors

### 6.2.2 Question 2

The second question was about how they preferred to correct student errors. This information is presented in Figure 9.

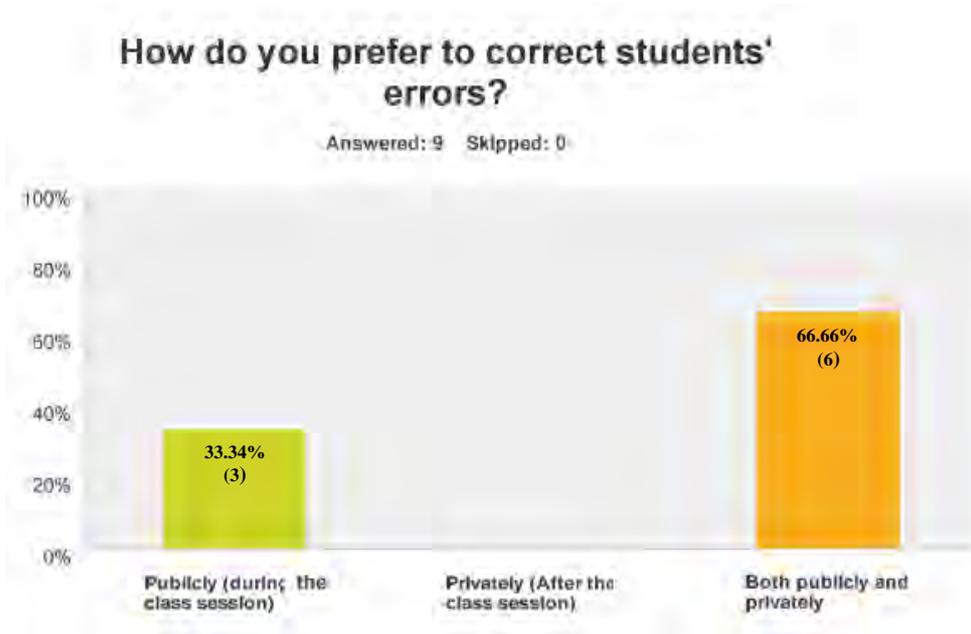


Figure 9. Teachers' perceptions about how to correct student errors

### 6.2.3 Question 3

The third question hinged on whether or not teachers felt that students' errors should be corrected for the benefit of their peers. Figure 10 records these results.

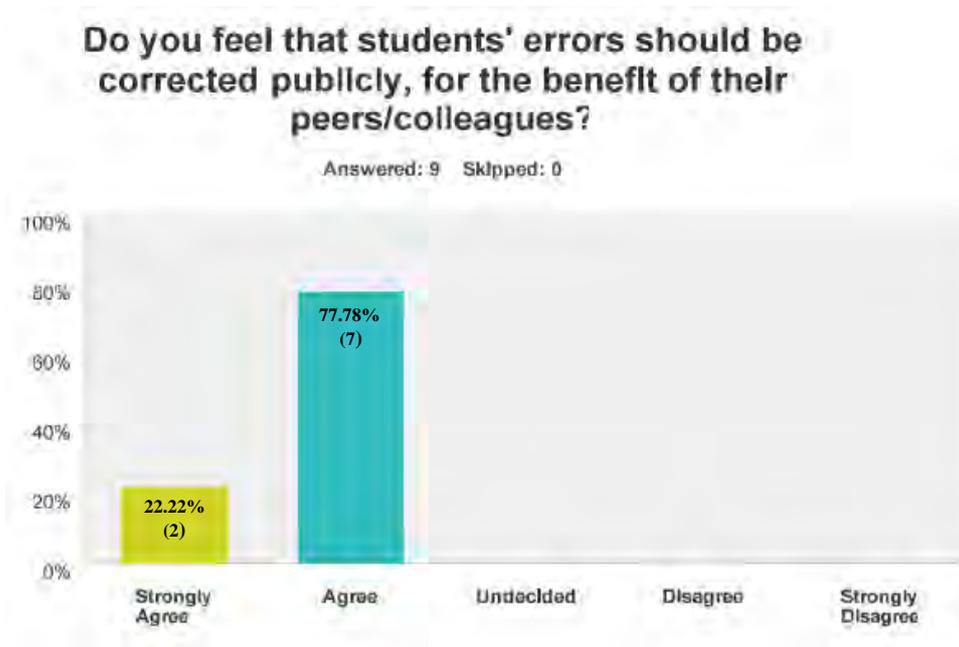


Figure 10. Teachers' perceptions about the benefit of public correction

### 6.2.4 Question 4

The fourth question focused on when was the preferred time for teachers to correct students'. These results are recorded in Figure 11.

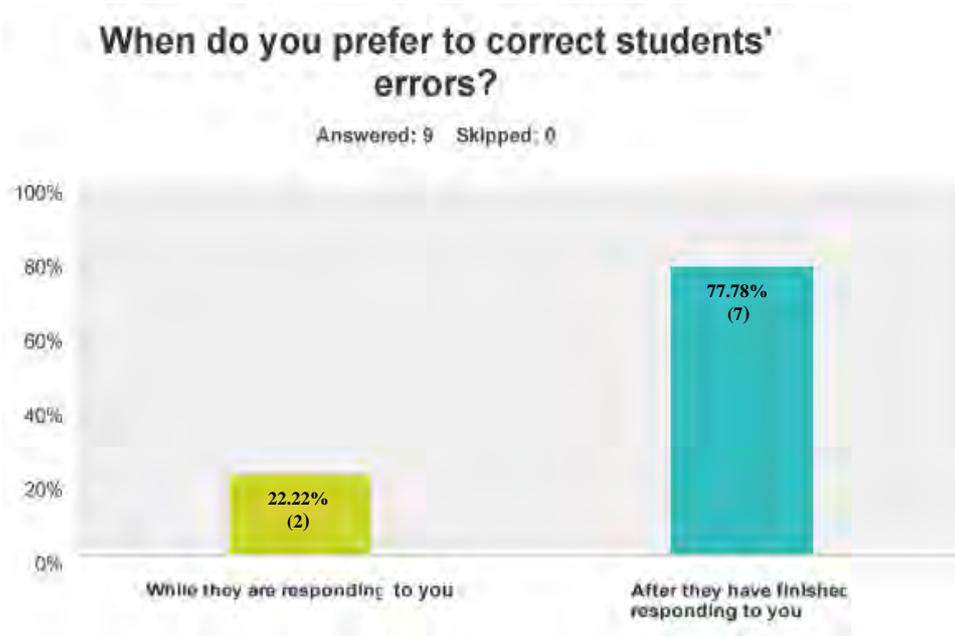


Figure 11. Teachers' perceptions about when to correct students

### 6.2.5 Question 5

The fifth question centred on teachers' perceptions about the teacher alone correcting them. Figure 12 deposits these findings.

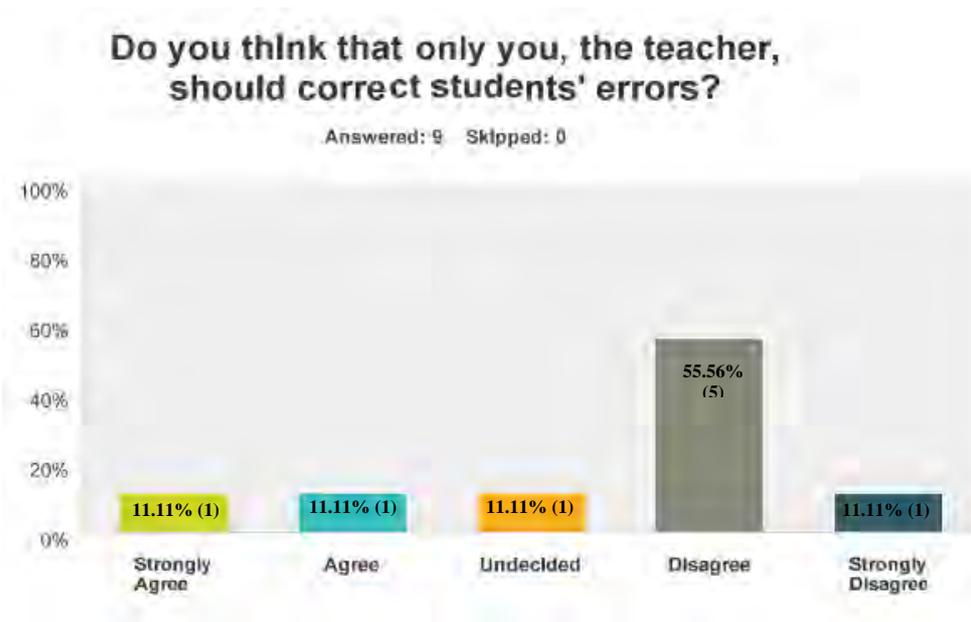


Figure 12. Teachers' perceptions about correction by them alone

### 6.2.6 Question 6

The sixth and final question of the teachers' survey dealt with whether or not they would use error correction strategies. These findings are deposited in Figure 13.

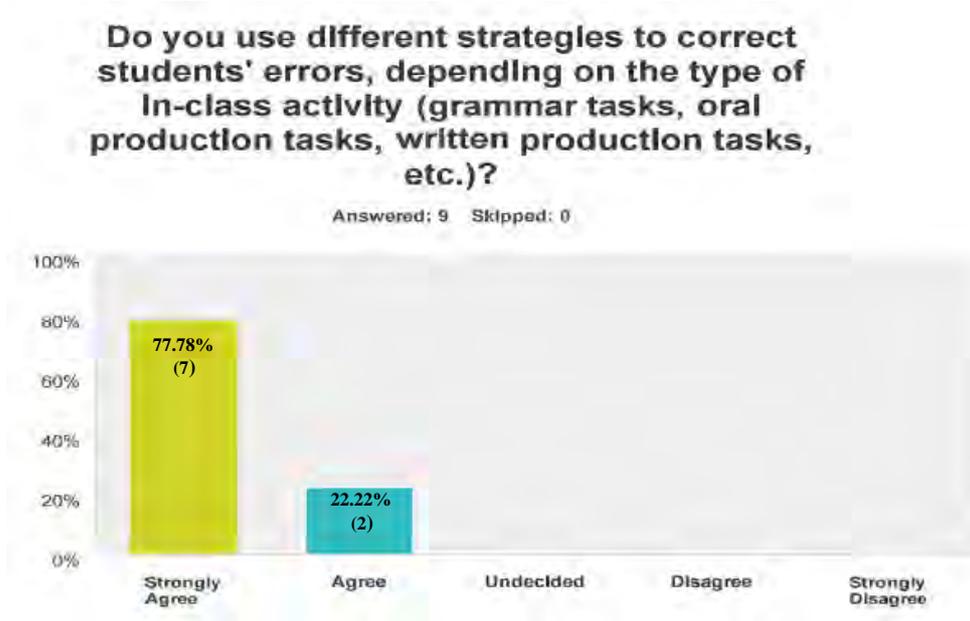


Figure 13. Teachers' perceptions about using error correction strategies

## 7. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The section above presented the quantitative results obtained from the first part of both the teachers' and students' survey, as it relates to correcting errors in the L2 classroom. The second part of each of the survey questions required respondents to elaborate on their answers. Each of those is discussed qualitatively, in conjunction with the quantitative results.

### 7.1 Students' Survey

The focus of question 1 was for students to say whether or not they made language errors in the classroom. The results showed that 41.67% strongly agreed, while 58.33% agreed. In other words, therefore, 100% of the given sample agreed that they all made language errors. Not one of them said anything different. This is an indication that students, at some time or another, become aware that they are making errors. This error awareness can only take place when they are given a sign that their target language production is not correct (Lightbown & Spada, 2006; Azar, 2007). This can only come through correction.

Respondents were asked to elaborate about their feelings when they make these errors. Two students said that they felt normal, because it was human to err, and that they simply needed to work harder on that problem area. Some of the key words that the other students used to describe how they felt were “inadequate”, “ashamed”, “embarrassed”, “terrible”, “frustrated”, “depressed”, “incompetent”, and “disappointed”. It could be assumed that students felt this way, perhaps because they were corrected, because they should not have made such an error, or perhaps because the way in which the error correction was done. It is important to note that it is natural for students to make errors (Livingstone, 2014a), since error making is a natural part of the language learning process (Amman & Spada, 2006). The respondents did not say if their feelings were due to how the error correction was done, so it would be unjust to assume that.

Question 2 was about learner preference for error correction, either publicly, privately, or both. 33.34% of the given sample preferred to be corrected publicly, while 66.66% preferred error correction to be done both publicly and privately. For those students who preferred only public correction, some of their reasons given were that they wanted the errors to be corrected early and immediately; it could help build their confidence; they could make notes of the error before they forget, and that their colleagues, who could be prone to making these same errors, could benefit. These reasons tendered are very important, from the students’ perspective, because it is they who are on the receiving end, as it were. Public error correction is important for students because it makes them aware that they are producing deviant language structures (Hendrickson, 1978; Suzuki, 2004).

With regard to those students who preferred to be corrected both publicly and privately, the reasons given for public correction were the same as those given above. They signalled, however, that they favoured private correction because the personal teacher-student interaction helped them to focus more on correcting the error. Some students felt that they wanted to avoid the feelings of public shame and embarrassment, thus removing the attention from the error to be corrected. Additionally, students also desired private correction because they wanted to prevent the public aggressiveness of teacher correction, causing them to feel less than their colleagues. Krashen (1994) alludes to the fact that the unpleasantness of public correction, leading to anxiety and embarrassment, can frustrate and negatively impact the learning process. Research evidence has put forth that the teacher’s credibility could be at stake, hence the need for

error correction to be done tactfully (Hendrickson, 1978; Dekeyser, 1993; Schulze, 2001; Ellis, 2009).

For question 3, respondents were asked to determine whether or not public correction was helpful for their colleagues. 91.67% of the sample agreed, while 8.33% remained undecided. These findings reveal that the majority of the given sample did feel that public error correction was beneficial for all concerned parties. The minority of the given sample remained undecided for reasons unknown to the researcher.

Those in accord with public error correction provided a number of reasons why they saw it as beneficial for all. Some students said that that was the ideal way for them to learn, since their colleagues would be able to correct similar errors or use strategies to prevent them from occurring. Some also felt that since the classroom was a learning environment, and that learning was not only an individual matter, it was the most suitable place for error correction to take place. Others believed that public correction of errors helped those students who were afraid to speak up, for fear of being reprimanded or embarrassed by the teacher. All of the reasons given are valid. The classroom is indeed a learning space, where learning should be encouraged through knowledge construction and meaning negotiation (Biggs & Tang, 2011; Livingstone, 2014b). Error correction, done either privately or publicly, is necessary for students, because it helps them to become aware of the deviant structures, and consequently test various hypotheses to correct them (Corder, 1967; Hendrickson, 1978; Heift & Schulze, 2003).

For question 4, with respect to when student errors should be corrected, 91.67% of the given preferred the public error correction to take place after they would have finished speaking. Only 8.33% of the sample wanted to be corrected while they were speaking. The reason given for this was that they would realise their error immediately and seek to correct it.

Those students who preferred to be corrected after completing their target language productions offered a number of reasons to substantiate their claims. The general reason, from most of them, was that they didn't like being interrupted while speaking because they would become nervous; lose their train of thought; forget what they had to say; discourage and frustrate them, causing them to commit more errors while speaking and possibly frustrating and wearying the patience of the teacher. They felt that correcting them afterwards would help them to faster analyse their language productions. One respondent affirmed that she was a slow learner and that corrections

while speaking would normally confuse her a lot. This is what they all wanted to avoid. It must be noted that error correction is a serious issue for language learners. The overarching objective is for students to be able to repair their faulty utterances. As can be seen from these results there is no one way to correct learner errors. While there is no clear cut way on when to correct student errors, it is clear that this must be done strategically, at some point, during the classroom session (Hendrickson, 1978; Mackey, 2006; Loewen, 2007; Yoshida, 2008; Smith, 2010).

The focus of question 5 was for respondents to determine whether or not the teacher was the only one to correct their linguistic productions. 16.67% of the given sample agreed, 16.67% were undecided, and 66.66% disagreed. Those who agreed said that the teacher was the more knowledgeable of them, the expert in the language, and would be best suited to point out their errors. Those who were undecided felt that while everyone had the ability to teach, allowing peer correction could not only be misleading, but also could lead to feelings of superiority/inferiority.

From the above results, it is apparent that the majority was not in favour of teacher-only correction. Some students opined that the teacher should not be the only one to correct learner errors, and that learners could correct their peers. Others said that peer correction was usually less discouraging, since their peers would probably faster recognise their colleagues' error and help to correct them. In other words, they are in agreement with both teacher correction and peer correction taking place in the language classroom, given that both student and teacher involvement is necessary in the learning process.

As can be seen from the different responses tendered, the findings suggest that there is no one answer as to who should be the 'corrector' in the classroom. The literature has highlighted various studies done, supporting one or both of these contentions (Hendrickson, 1978; Mackey, 2002; Morris & Tarone, 2003; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Kayum, 2015). This is a decision that should be taken with both teacher and learners because a constructivist approach to learning and teaching (Piaget 1928, 1932; Vygotsky 1934, 1978; Biggs & Tang, 2011; Livingstone, 2014b) demands that students be involved in the whole process of constructing knowledge and negotiating meaning.

## 7.2 Teachers' Survey

As has been earlier highlighted, the first five questions of the teachers' survey were similar to those of the students' survey. With regard to question 1, teachers were asked to say whether or not their students made language errors in the classroom. 55.56% of the given sample 'strongly agreed' and 44.44% 'agreed'. In other words, therefore, 100% of the sample agreed that students did make language errors. These teachers knew that the students made errors because their language productions were not in conformity with the correct target structures.

When asked about how they felt about students' errors, respondents said that making errors was a natural part of the learning process, and that it was a step towards progress. Some of them believed that the errors should not be viewed negatively, because they helped teachers to understand the language problems that their students had. Some also said that they would encourage their students to not be afraid to make errors, because it was a part of learning. By understanding these problems, teachers would help students to notice and correct these errors. These responses highlight that teachers do see learner errors as important because they shed light on learners' progress, and what is to be learned (Corder, 1967; McDonough, 2005).

In question 2, teachers were asked how they preferred to correct student errors. 33.34% of the given sample preferred public correction, while 66.66% of them preferred both public and private correction. Those in favour of public error correction said that since contact outside of the classroom may be limited, it would be best to do it in class, so that others students, who may be making the same errors, could benefit from the corrective strategies and learn.

Those in support of private correction would do so for the sake of concept reinforcement; to safeguard the learners' self-esteem, since some of them would feel exposed and embarrassed, and also to have the one-on-one teacher-student interaction which is so vital for learning (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky (1978) refers to the teacher as the more knowledgeable other (MKO), whose responsibility is to facilitate student learning. These finding clearly validate that teachers are cognisant of their students' attitudes towards error correction. This tendency is in keeping with what the literature has established about teachers knowing their students, and knowing how best to approach the error correction process (Hendrickson, 1978; Suzuki, 2004; Dabaghi, 2008; Ellis, 2009).

With respect to question 3, respondents had to say whether they felt that public correction was beneficial to their students. 22.22% of them 'strongly agreed', while 77.78% of them 'agreed'. In other words, 100% of the given sample agreed that students would benefit from public error correction. These responses here confirm the results obtained in question 2.

In support of their chosen answers, teachers affirmed that it was part of the learning process; that students would usually pay attention not only when their peers make errors, but also when they are corrected; that it would save time, if it were a common error, and that students would usually be humble enough to accept correction, knowing that they are not perfect. One teacher said that even though public correction was usually frowned upon by some, the way in which it was done was important. This teacher went on to state that most times, she would wait until everyone had spoken, then highlight those language areas that needed attention, for the benefit of the entire class, without saying specifically who said what. This is a very good strategy to use, because not all students have the same level of motivation, and may not accept correction in the same way, were they to be specifically pointed out (Krashen, 1994; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, Lightbown & Spada, 1999). From these findings, it is clear that public correction has its benefits (Hendrickson, 1978; Heift & Schulze, 2003).

Question 4 was to determine when student errors should be addressed. 22.22% of the sample preferred to do so while students spoke, and 77.78% of them were in favour of doing so after the students have finished speaking. It is therefore obvious that the majority saw it in the best interest of the students to correct them after they have completed their language utterances. Those who preferred to interrupt students while they spoke revealed that, for them, it was better that way because it helped the students to transmit their ideas properly, since they sometimes would make errors during the language production process. Additionally, some even said that it would be difficult to wait until the presentation ended to correct students, especially in the context of large-size classes.

For the majority of the given sample who opted to correct students after they had finished their target language productions, some of their reasons given were that it was better to not interrupt the learners' thought process, and they should be allowed to communicate in the target language, regardless of the mistakes they make during the process. One teacher asserted that she would be better able to analyse the response after it has been made, and that in that way, correction could be better nuanced.

Irrespective of when teachers preferred to correct student errors, it must be noted that all of them were concerned about addressing those faulty target structures that students would produce. Choosing the appropriate time to correct student errors is critical to their learning (Hendrickson, 1978). That being said, research has clearly highlighted that error correction should be done strategically and tactfully (Mackey, 2006; Loewen, 2007; Yoshida, 2008; Ellis, 2009; Smith, 2010).

For question 5, teachers were asked whether or not only they should correct learner errors. 11.11% of the given sample 'strongly agreed', 11.11% of them 'agreed', 11.11% was undecided, 55.56% 'disagreed' and 11.11% 'strongly disagreed'. In other words, therefore, 22.22% agreed, 11.11% was undecided, and 66.67% disagreed. Obviously, the majority was not in agreement that only they should correct student errors. Those who felt that only teacher correction was necessary said that they were the experts in the subject matter, and only they would be able to detect the errors. Those who were undecided simply said that anyone qualified to correct learner errors should do so, whether it was the teacher or a native speaker.

Those teachers who did not favour teacher-only correction provided a number of reasons why they felt this way. Some said that students learned better from their peers, especially when the L2 classroom had an environment that promoted peer correction; in such cases, they would use the 'high flyers' (the brighter students) to help those who would have difficulty in producing target structures. Some asserted that peer correction was efficacious and a very important part of collaborative language learning, especially in group activities; in such cases, the teachers would have the students work in groups, helping and correcting each other, as the need arose. Others believed that peers should be involved in the process, because that would minimise the discomfiture experienced by the student from teacher correction.

The issue of who to correct is always a contentious one. From these results, some teachers believe that only they should do it, while some are convinced that students should be involved in the process as well. While there is no consensus as to who should be the 'corrector', research seems to suggest that both teacher correction and peer correction are a necessary part of language learning (Cathcart & Olsen, 1976; Katayama, 2007; Ellis, 2009; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Incecay & Dollar, 2011; Kayum, 2015).

Question 6 focused on whether or not teachers used different error correction/corrective strategies in the classroom. 77.78% of the given sample ‘strongly agreed’, while 22.22% ‘agreed’. In essence, 100% of the sample revealed that they would normally use corrective strategies. This is a good indicator that teachers are aware that different approaches should be used to address learner errors. There is no one way to treat an error, and different errors should be treated differently (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Ellis, 2009; Lyster & Saito, 2010).

With respect to the kinds of strategies they used, some teachers said that they would use different strategies because grammar errors, for example, could either be corrected in the learners’ notebooks, depending on class size, or it could be done orally after learners’ presentations. One teacher said that she would use oral, visual, contextual and even musical strategies. Another teacher said that she would normally listen to the students and together they would work out the ‘best way’ to address the errors. As important as these may be in the error correction process, these strategies are too general and do not give much detail about the specific kinds of strategies used. In some ways, these responses are a bit surprising, given that all of these teachers have at least 10 years teaching experience at the University, in addition to the fact that most of them are trained L2 teachers. In other words, therefore, one would assume that they are ‘familiar’ with these terminologies, or know exactly how to correct student errors.

Important to note, however, is that two teachers (who are non-native speakers) did highlight the kinds of strategies they used in the classroom. One teacher said the following:

The kinds of strategies will vary from task to task, and from activity to activity, depending on the specific task. Depending on the task, I would use recasts, metalinguistic feedback, error repetition, elicitation, clarification requests, explicit corrective feedback, and so on.

The other teacher said the following:

For oral production tasks I mostly use strategies like recasting since this is an effective way of getting students to think about the utterances and reformulate them correctly. In the case of written production, I sometimes simply highlight the error and ask students to rethink their answers based on other contextual clues. In longer writing tasks like compositions, I indicate errors using a specific rubric (symbols and abbreviations) that student then use to correct their work. They can thereby reflect on their own errors and correct them based on what they have learned

As has been mentioned in the literature reviewed, Lyster and Ranta (1997) provide six kinds of corrective strategies that should be employed in the L2 classroom. Existing research done in the ambit of error correction and corrective feedback strategies

(Yamamoto, 2003; Sheen, 2006; Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Han & Kim, 2008) has established their effectiveness in the language learning-teaching process.

### 7.3 Comparison and Summary of Results

Given that five of the questions in both the teachers' and students' survey were of a similar nature, a comparison of the results, for those five questions, are presented. Additionally, the findings for the sixth question from the teachers' survey are also presented. Together, they summarise the results obtained in this study, and are deposited in Table 5.

Table 5. Comparison and Summary of Results

	<b>Students' Survey (12 students)</b>	<b>Teachers' Survey (9 teachers)</b>
Q1	<b>100%</b> agree to error-making.	<b>100%</b> agree that students make errors.
Q2	<b>33.34%</b> agree for public correction; <b>66.66%</b> opt for public/private correction.	<b>33.34%</b> agree for public correction; <b>66.66%</b> opt for public/private correction.
Q3	<b>91.67%</b> favour public correction to benefit colleagues; <b>8.33%</b> are undecided.	<b>100%</b> favour public correction to benefit colleagues.
Q4	<b>8.33%</b> prefer error correction during the process; <b>91.67%</b> prefer it afterwards.	<b>22.22%</b> prefer error correction during the process; <b>77.78%</b> prefer it afterwards.
Q5	<b>16.67%</b> agree for teacher-only correction; <b>16.67%</b> are undecided; <b>66.66%</b> disagree.	<b>22.22%</b> agree for teacher-only correction; <b>11.11%</b> are undecided; <b>66.67%</b> disagree.
Q6		<b>100%</b> agree to using error correction strategies.

## 8. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Error making is an inescapable aspect of the language learning process. The process of correcting errors provides the kind of negative evidence which is critical to determining the correct concept. It is the teacher who is tasked with the responsibility of providing the learner with the correct information, so that he is able to formulate the

correct concept through hypothesis testing, with the overarching objective of improving his L2 learning.

This study has focused on students' and teachers' perceptions of correcting errors in the L2 classroom. With regard to the aim, questions and objectives of this study, the findings reveal that both students and teachers are generally in agreement with the error correction process in the classroom. Other findings disclose that some teachers use different strategies to address their students' errors.

Students generally believe that, once they have become aware, their errors should be corrected both publicly and privately, after they would have finished speaking, and not only by the teacher. They clearly establish that they should be a part of the process, since they are the ones on the receiving end, in whom the goal of teaching – learning – is realised. Additionally, some students alluded to the way that some teachers would correct their errors which did not help the learning process. Teachers generally feel the same way as students. They are cognisant of the fact that student learning is important, and that the error correction process must not injure it. From the results obtained, there seems to be consensus that correcting errors is a shared process, and that students must always be considered.

With regard to the error correction strategies used in the classroom, the study has highlighted that at least some teachers use some strategies to deal with learner errors. Based on the answers given by teachers, in response to this specific question, all of them said that they did use correction techniques. A careful examination of the supporting reasons, however indicated that some of the 'strategies' used were too general. It is important for teachers to be very conscious about what these strategies are and be able to use them effectively to address student errors. If teachers are not cognisant of the kinds of corrective strategies to use, it would be next to impossible to aid student learning. While it is important to know the names of these strategies, of utmost importance is to know how to employ them in the classroom process. In other words, while teachers may not be aware of the given names of these strategies (even though they should be), their techniques used should allude to them. If they choose to ignore, they ignore at their own risk, and the risk of student learning.

### ***Limitations***

The first limitation was that some of the teachers and students' who selected the option 'undecided' in the survey questions did not provide reasons to justify their

position, even though the questions allowed room for it. Had they done this, it would have shed additional light on their stance about the error correction process, and added to the richness of the study.

The second limitation of this research was that students and teachers did not elaborate sufficiently, when they were required to give additional information defending their position. Most of the respondents provided one-sentence or one-phrase responses. Elaborating adequately on their responses would have certainly contributed to the strength of the qualitative analysis.

### ***Recommendations***

It would be worthwhile for teachers to familiarise themselves with the questions proposed by Hendrickson (1978), with respect to the ‘should’, ‘when’, ‘which’, ‘how’, and ‘who’ of the error correction process. These are crucial questions and they succinctly summarise what is involved in this process. Knowledge of these questions, and what they mean for the language learning and teaching process, could have positive far-reaching consequences for learners.

It is recommended that teachers familiarise themselves with, and use, the different error correction strategies as proposed by Lyster and Ranta (1997). Rauber and Gil (2004) endorsed these strategies, in addition to adding a few of their own. These strategies are context-dependent, and teachers must know which ones to use, and when to use them.

In order for students to benefit holistically from the error correction process teachers should: (1) consider the classroom context; (2) be aware of the current didactic practices; (3) utilise different corrective feedback strategies and techniques, and (4) promote learner-focused error correction.

### ***Further/Future Research***

This study can be extended in a number of ways. One way would be to conduct another online survey, with the same sample, using Hendrickson’s (1978) five questions. Additionally, the survey could include a question about Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) six strategies, explaining each one of them, and asking both students and teachers to highlight whether or not these are used in the classroom. The findings would be rather interesting.

Another suggestion is to conduct another online survey, involving only students who pursue the year-long compulsory L2 course (Spanish/French/Portuguese) at the University. Since this is a larger sample, the results would be rather interesting.

An added proposal would be to conduct a few interviews with respondents (students and teachers). Interviews help to acquire deeper and detailed information not previously given. Such a practice would contribute to the richness of the study.

### ***Final Thoughts***

The literature reviewed has ascertained that error correction, and more importantly the process involved, is critical to successful language learning, and must be done at some point, during the classroom session(s). It is necessary, when dealing with students and errors, to take into account their defining individual factors like their age, aptitude, styles of learning, individual choices, language proficiency level, learning strategies, motivation, their stage in the language learning process, anxiety levels, previous achievement, and metalinguistic levels, among others. The afore-mentioned factors can seemingly complicate the process; however, they are vital and should be considered so that students can have significant learning experiences. It is the teacher's responsibility to analyse these factors and choose the appropriate corrective feedback strategies that would benefit most, if not all, of the students. At times, it may not cater to the needs of each learner, especially in large classes, however a common ground must be found, in order to effectively address errors in the classroom setting.

This study can be incorporated into the already existing empirical evidence about students' and teachers' perceptions about L2 error correction. It can be used as a reference for those L2 classrooms that are yet to embrace learner-centred approaches to correcting errors.

### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

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