An investigation of co-operative error correction in Asian education settings.

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Abstract

Error correction in writing remains a controversial topic in literature on English language teaching. While the premise that writing should be corrected often conforms to student expectations, many doubts still remain about the most efficient way to conduct written error correction. Due to the demands of time and the large class sizes involved, current teacher based methods do not necessarily address the needs of weaker students in Asia. The current study investigated teachers' beliefs and practices in written error correction by comparing and contrasting two qualitative case studies in two different East Asian contexts. Two English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers were introduced to a new method of error correction that promoted an increase in self and peer correction of writing. Both teachers were then interviewed, to elicit their practices, local adaptations and beliefs on the effects of this method. Responses of the participants were recorded in interviews, transcribed and analysed. The teachers were found to believe that an increase in self and peer correction held advantages, such as increased student cooperation, and new friendships were formed. The teachers were also found to appreciate the time saved using self and peer correction.

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Declaration

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma at any university or equivalent institution and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

Signature: ████████████████

 Date: 30th July 2015

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Finally, I dedicate this work with love, to the memory of my mother, Stella. Although she is no longer with us, she has never left me, she looks over me and guides me still.

Chapter 1. Background to the issue

Introduction

Students and teachers of writing in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) often regard error correction as an essential component in the development of writing; students expect that teachers will correct their written errors and teachers comply with this expectation. This happens even when teachers have doubts about how effective their corrections are (Lee, 2003). Students believe that when teachers correct their errors, they can take a significant step forward in their writing development (Ferris, 2003). There are two main types of error correction treatment in writing. The first deals with form, the mechanics of a piece of writing, dealing mostly with grammar usage and accuracy. The second deals with content, and operates at the level of ideas or meaning, and is considered the more important type (Ashwell, 2000). It appears that students and teachers both have relied more on feedback related to form than content, as feedback on the latter has had less effect on revision (ibid).

Much of the research in the field of error correction has concentrated on small and isolated aspects of grammar to measure student improvement in writing. This is the case in Asia, where many teachers stick to a time consuming, comprehensive error treatment method, yet note the apparent lack of progress in the writing of their students (Lee, 2004). However, students invest a great amount of time and energy in writing and feedback on their pieces may well be the most essential aspect of their development (Ferris, 2003).

However there are still no definitive answers as to the effectiveness of error correction. Many writers agree that research findings on this point are inconclusive and will remain so until studies are replicated, and findings are compared. The debate has been ongoing in academic circles for considerable time, and is still hotly debated (Chandler 2003; Ferris 1999, 2004; Lee, 2004; Truscott, 1996, 1999, 2004; Truscott & Hsu 2008). At present, valid conclusions cannot be drawn with confidence, and the debate will continue, as new research findings continue to investigate the efficacy of error correction and whether or not it helps to enhance the accuracy of students' writing (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Ellis et al., 2008, Ferris, 2010; Sheen, 2010; Truscott,

2010). However, even in the more modern parts of Asia, such as Hong Kong there is still a high degree of conformity among teachers with regard to the way they treat error correction (Lee, 2008).

The present study used two independent case studies in different Asian contexts to examine the effects of an error correction treatment method that shifted the responsibility for error correction away from the traditional teacher centered style, and required students to do more self-correction. It also examined student preferences concerning the greater use made of self and peer correction. Additional support was provided for weaker students in the form of more competent peers who instructed and assisted at a naturally appropriate language level. Opinion was then elicited from the EFL teachers on the effectiveness of the method, compared to more traditional methods. This was done in order to determine what both the teachers and students involved considered to be the main features of using more self and peer correction in class, and elicit what advantages, if any, such correction had on interactions within two different Asian classrooms.

1.2 Background

Error corrections provide real and immediate correction feedback (CF) for students, when correction is done in a timely manner. While error correction is universally considered by teachers as important in the development of writing skills, the benefits are disputable (Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2004: Lee, 2004; Bitchener, 2007; Truscott and Hsu, 2008). Many others believe that error correction by teachers aids the development of both accuracy and fluency (Chandler, 2003: Ashwell ibid). Students have also expressed the need for CF from teachers, which they see as being of benefit and value to improve their writing (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Lee, 2004). Although it allows for individual points of contact to be established between the major participants in the classroom, namely teachers and students, when the students' writing is removed from their presence and corrected in another location and at another time, the process of error correction remains a mystery for those receiving the corrections. Thus, just how effective written error correction is remains open to doubt (Xiao, 2007; Wang, 2010).

However, although many EFL teachers are firmly of the conviction that written error correction does aid in the development of the writing of their students, they have reservations about the persistence of errors (Ferris, 2004; Lee, 2004). Furthermore, students expect teacher feedback on their written errors (Lee, 2004). Many

students express more confidence in written correction than in other forms, and value teacher feedback over peer feedback (Zhang, 1999; Yang et al., 2007). Regardless of the variation in their views, both teachers and students insist on the importance of error correction as a necessary tool to improve students writing.

A secondary issue concerns the type of feedback given. Written error treatment can be of many types, explicit or implicit, or direct and comprehensive where the focus concentrates on grammar (Ellis, 2009; Van Beuningan, 2010). Or it can focus on content, what ideas are being expressed. Studies have shown that both explicit and implicit error corrections methods have lead to improvements in student writing. However, weaker students, with a more limited ability to process errors, may become inhibited without a specific area to focus on (Ellis, 2006). Written correction can also be indirect and selective. Here, the focus is on one or two specific features, while other errors are not treated (Van Beuningan, ibid). This is the approach that most research now investigates. Teachers can also use a variety of methods to highlight errors, without correcting. Less is known about what teachers believe regarding the effects of written error correction, and how those beliefs are put into practice in the L2 classroom. Similarly, little has been done to elicit student opinions and preferences concerning how their written errors are treated. Students who are guided by feedback on their written errors are more inclined to revise their work, than students that don't receive feedback (Ferris, 2004). A selective approach to error correction avoids overwhelming students, as it brings only one feature of the language to the students' attention at a time, allowing them to concentrate more on a perceived weakness (Ferris, ibid). Studies have shown that both direct and indirect forms of error correction have led to improvements in student writing accuracy (Ashwell, 2000; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Lee, 1997; Oliver & Mackey, 2003).

While there is disagreement between researchers as to the effects of error correction by teachers on student writing, there is widespread agreement that effective error correction is a core issue in SLA writing (Chandler, 2003, 2004; Ferris, 2004; Truscott, 2004; Sheen, 2007). This particular study approaches the issue from a pragmatic perspective. Since there is scant time for teachers to reach every student in large Asian classes, the assumption behind this study is that more should be done to get students to help themselves. Those who require extra assistance can access and utilize the existing resources within the classroom, by eliciting meaningful explanations and corrections from their more competent peers, after they have been given a few chances to self-correct. In this way, the assumption is that students can increase their self-reliance.

This study is therefore an extension of the ongoing debate concerning the effects and effectiveness of error correction in writing. It more specifically addresses the issue of the link between what the teacher believes concerning error correction, and what they put into practice in the classroom. This study will detail how two teachers in Asia felt about and dealt with self and peer written error correction after only having previously done all error corrections themselves. By examining the practices of the teachers involved in this study, others may then be able to adapt what has been discovered here, apply those findings to their own classes and extend the self and peer correction technique provided.

1.3 What an error is

This study takes the view that errors are different from mistakes. Mistakes happen when we say or write a wrong word that is already known; they occur because of a lack of attention to output. Errors on the other hand occur because the word has not yet been fully acquired. Ferris (1999) classified errors as either treatable or untreatable. There are many different types of errors in writing, such as wrong word choice, incorrect word order, wrong tense choice or inappropriate use, incorrect spelling, lack of or inaccurate punctuation, subject-verb disagreement, and unclear meaning, to name just a few. Treatable errors are those where there are clear rules for correct usage. Untreatable errors cover such things as inappropriate word choice, and incorrect word order, and are more likely to pertain to the writing style of an individual. Teachers also found that direct error feedback was not as effective as indirect correction (Ferris, 2003). Selecting which errors to correct and focus on is again, more effective than a comprehensive approach, which is time consuming for teachers and demanding for students (Ferris 2002).

Some errors might be classified as persistent, or resistant to self-correction, and require teacher input (Lee 2003). In the context of this study, the self-correction technique used in classes in this intervention does not differentiate between any errors; all of them are approached and treated the same way. This approach follows simple steps. First, minimal feedback is given in the form of ticks for correct sentences, to provide a model based on the student's own work. These correct sentences may use the same structure as the problematic errors for the student. The students then make the necessary changes in their writing. More chances are given to allow for more corrections to be made, either through self-correction of errors, or through a negotiated outcome in

consultation with a more competent peer who already has all the right answers. Collaborating with peers to shape a piece of writing creates a sense of purpose as well as an awareness of writing for an audience, while highlighting written errors focuses attention on the relative strengths and weaknesses of a writer (Tsui &Ng, 2000). The teacher is never absent and always remains ready to assist if the student and peer working together cannot correct any particular error.

1.4 Purpose of the research and methods used

This study aims to investigate the beliefs and practices of two classroom teachers in discrete EFL settings in China and Thailand. In particular this research investigated the following issue: How much teachers perceived improvement in the writing ability of students as a result of more self and peer correction.

This study was undertaken to assess the effects of increasing self and peer correction in large classes, in two discrete Asian settings. The method used was two case studies, based on semi-structured interviews. Case studies were chosen as direct observation of the classes was not possible, and interviews allowed the participants a greater voice in the telling of their stories.

1.4 Structure of thesis

This chapter has touched upon some of the major ongoing issues in written error correction. These issues remain as relevant today as when they first emerged. This chapter has also highlighted the focus of the current study. The next chapter will give an outline of some of the major developments in SLA theory relevant to written error correction. A chapter outlining how the research was conducted will follow the review. This study will end with a discussion of the findings from this investigation, the implications of the findings and lastly provide recommendations for future applications of the self and peer correction technique that formed the basis of this research.

Chapter 2. Literature Review.

2.1 Introduction.

This chapter will look at some of the theory of SLA as it relates to error correction. Firstly, it will summarize some of the key theoretical perspectives that have shaped attitudes towards error correction. Secondly, it will explore some of the issues in the debate on where, when, and how to correct written errors by reviewing the effectiveness of previous methods and how they have shaped practices. Thirdly, relevant literature will be analysed to place the current project within a broader context, in particular a relevant case study in Hong Kong. Finally, the issue of teacher practices and student preferences will be explored concerning written error corrections.

2.2. Whether or not to correct

Ideas in second language acquisition about correction in writing vary considerably according to different perspectives. On the one hand are the views espoused by Truscott (1999) who said that error correction can be harmful to the development of writing. Opposed to this view was Ferris (1999) who said that error correction was essential for writing to develop. Since that time, research has shifted from whether to correct or not, to the type and quality of correction given. Teachers are not the only audience for a piece of writing, and the emphasis of error correction has shifted from unfocused to focused, and from direct to indirect, to better meet the needs of individual students (Ferris 2007).

2.2.1 Behaviourist Theory of Language Learning

One of the pioneering theories in language acquisition is the work of behavioural psychologist B.F. Skinner, which grew out of the army translation methods. In his view people acquired language through the formation of habits. According to Skinner these habits were strengthened over time by repeated exposure to stimuli from which people would select relevant responses. The correct responses are rewarded and the negative

ones are not, leading to reinforcement of the correct responses, until they become automatic (1957).

Behaviourists believed the more language was modeled and imitated through repetition, the more habits would

be strengthened, in both speaking and writing. Errors were treated as signs of failure to avoid, not something to

learn from. Written error correction by teachers became a form of repetition that reinforced desired writing

habits in students. This meant that teachers concentrated more on correction of errors of form and not content, at

the idea level. With the move to communicative learning approaches, changes in the way errors are perceived as

part of a natural learning process have evolved.

2.2.2 Noam Chomsky, the Language Acquisition Device

The behaviourist model of language acquisition was rejected by Noam Chomsky (1959), who pointed

out that human beings are creative, often stringing together unique sentences they have not previously heard.

The new and unique utterances could not be explained by behaviourists, who made no allowances for creative

acts, as language depended upon learning. Chomsky claimed students created new sentences, by observing

structures, forming hypotheses about how they were used and tested them for accuracy by seeking feedback

from others. The process is complex, with students able to use structures they had not been exposed to before.

Behaviourist theory could not account for this phenomenon, and a new approach was needed to better explain

SLA. Chomsky's theory that children have some innate knowledge of grammar rules and were testing them as

hypotheses was radical, but was considered an inadequate explanation (Bruner, 1975). Language acquisition

also depends on the ability to understand meaning. Previous exposure and knowledge helped children to

discover meaning from new or unknown items. The internalizing of concepts makes it easier to absorb grammar,

based on the use of previous knowledge to classify new and unknown syntax rules (Brown, 1973). However,

uptake in student writing is a complex process and some students know and admit they will continue to make

the same errors; even after they have been corrected by their teachers (Lee, 2004). This anomaly is troubling and

calls into question the effectiveness of how teachers conduct error correction in their classrooms.

2.2.3 Krashen and the Theory of Language Acquisition

Krashen claimed that when students had developed sufficient control over certain language structures in context, the language would be acquired automatically rather than learned and that sufficient input alone was enough to facilitate acquisition (Krashen, 1982 p. 133). Krashen' theory (1982) has five hypotheses:

1. The acquisition-learning distinction.

2. The natural order hypothesis.

3. The Monitor hypothesis.

4. The input hypothesis.

5. The Affective Filter hypothesis.

The third and fifth hypotheses are relevant to the issue of error correction in writing, and these will now be discussed in more detail. Acquisition and learning are not the same; each plays a role in language development. Acquisition aids in gaining language fluency, while learning acts as a monitor, to modify writing. When it is effective the monitor has a predictive function, helping to self-correct in advance. Formal rules have a minor role to play in SLA; more important was the amount of comprehensible input students received, which can be enough to facilitate L2 acquisition. In this way the 'monitor' helps students to modify language, and 'supply items that are not yet acquired' (Krashen 1982, p.17). This supported Chomsky's claims and clearly refuted behaviourist theory. As acquired language is monitored, formal rules learned through the application of error correction may have little effect, as the monitor measures actual language production.

Effective monitor use requires three conditions: sufficient time, focus on the correct form and specific knowledge of rules. Many students rely on the use of unconscious grammar, more on what they believe to be right, rather than think about what is wrong, and then correcting it. Students are often resistant to using the monitor to correct their errors. As a result, the monitor theory calls into question the effectiveness of error correction as a tool to aid language learning.

In the last of his hypotheses, Krashen claims that affective filters stand in the way of students gaining competence in language acquisition. There are three main types of filters: motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. Students who are highly motivated, self-confident and have low anxiety optimize the opportunities for

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acquisition which has implications for written error correction, as students will be more willing to take risks the less anxious they are, even when exposed to new language. Written error correction would however increase anxiety, lower self-confidence and decrease motivation as students with strong affective filters place limits on their comprehensible input, and become resistant to second language acquisition (ibid, p. 31). Krashen maintained that the lowering of affective filters could be seen as an important stage in the development of learner confidence. Likewise an increase in affective filters, or emotional states that might inhibit student performance, are to be avoided. Intensive written corrections done by a teacher can be seen as an affective filter, Teachers therefore should be sensitive to the requirements of individual students, and corrections seen as part of an ongoing teacher-student dialogue (Ferris 2007).

2.2.4 Bruner and Scaffolding

The term scaffolding was used by Bruner (1975) to explain a theory by Vygotsky (1962) who believed that learners are more able to learn if they are provided with a conceptual framework or scaffold first. Learners are then guided into areas that allowed them to continue to develop concepts, including how to work out the steps needed to complete tasks independently. Traditionally, scaffolding is defined as providing assistance to students on an as-needed basis. Scaffolding is usually a form of assistance from an adult or other experienced person with knowledge, "that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts," (Wood et al., 1976 p.90). It has also been seen as the "role of teachers and others in supporting the learner's development and providing support structures to get to that next stage or level" (Raymond, 2000). For scaffolding to be effective understanding how to solve the problem must come before action (Wood, ibid) and the problem needs to challenge the student and their current level of communicative competence (Stone, 1998). This last point tallies with Krashen's concept of i+1, where i represents the ability level of the language learner, and 1 represents a step above the students' current communicative competence level.

Over time, as students developed their confidence and enhanced strategies, 'there would be less and less need for scaffolding to accomplish the same task' (Stone, ibid). Assistance provided to students in the form of scaffolding results in the development of enhanced learning strategies and greater learning. The guides could be

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teachers, adults or more capable peers. Scaffold instruction is effective when it establishes new understanding between the learner and the relevant instructor in a way where meaning is made clear and works towards some mutually shared goal. The instructor works to gradually withdraw from the process and encourages the learner to takeover more of the responsibility for the construction of new meaning. Scaffolding is of particular benefit to young learners. This assistance is then withdrawn in stages, as students' ability levels rise (Ching-Huei Chen et al., 2013). Much like in building construction the scaffold is dismantled as the solid structure appears and grows underneath it, until finally when the building is complete, the scaffold is completely gone.

Scaffolding has been widely accepted as a metaphor for classroom instruction (Cazden, 1988, Langer & Applebee 1986, Stone, 1998). Parallels have been drawn between scaffolding for instructional purposes and adult-child discourses (Bruner, op. cit.). Effective scaffolding unfolds through a series of stages. Scaffolding should also follow a logical sequence that combines thinking and doing with a high degree of collaboration, as students take on more responsibility the scaffold is dismantled and they become more confident (Langer ibid). From this we can see that scaffolding is a highly interactive and dynamic process, where learning is not seen as acquisition that is the sum of input, but as the sum of participating in multiple experiences (Turner 2003).

Vygotsky (op. cit.) saw that learning could be enhanced by the development of problem solving capabilities under adult expert guidance or by collaborating with more capable peers, where meaning was negotiated, based on a steady flow of feedback. He did not see learning as something done in isolation, instead he saw learning as a natural element of social interaction. Increasing student responsibility for learning is also consistent with guidelines for scaffold instruction. The foundation of a scaffold for weaker students could be provided by the teacher. A second stage in the scaffold could come with an increase in social interaction, through collaboration and negotiation with their more competent peers from which they could elicit aid and explanations.

2.2.5 Schmidt and Noticing Theory

In the context of this research, before students can correct their errors, they must first be made aware that an error exists. By providing students with an indication of what they have got right, their focus then shifts back to the problematic sentences where the unknown errors exist. At this stage they may be only vaguely aware

of the error, or know only that an error exists. Before learners can correct an error, they have to consciously pay attention to the presence of error, which is the next stage. What starts out as a vague feeling of unease needs to be directed towards problem areas in their pieces of writing. Initially this attention is limited, and students are selective in their application of this attention (Schmidt, 1994). This is in direct contrast to Bruner (op. cit.) who hypothesized that much of the cognitive processing that was involved in error detection occurred at an unconscious level. Some students may pay attention to errors, and some may attempt to apply known rules (Truscott, 1999). Regardless of the source or motivation for noticing, paying attention is the essential factor that sparks the noticing process into action. It follows that providing focused correction feedback (CF) will be more beneficial to students than unfocused CF. By concentrating attention on a few targeted error types at any one time, learners are more inclined to take notice of the error as they develop better understanding, and then how to correct it. Focused CF allows for attention to be concentrated and aids understanding, both of which are considered important for acquisition (Schmidt, 1994; Ellis, 2005).

2.2.6 The Case Against Error Correction

In the past much error correction in writing has been extensive and intensive, even if not focused on one area. Teachers and students in EFL settings were sometimes confused about where and how to start correcting, or how much to correct. Then Truscott (1996, 1999) cited some studies that showed grammar correction did not help students improve their writing, and said this was consistent with what we know about the process of error correction and language acquisition. Studies by Krashen (1982) reached similar conclusions. Truscott claimed results of a study by Fathman and Whalley (1990) that showed students who received comments during revisions got better results than those who did not, did not show improvement, as results could not be extrapolated to new pieces of writing. Students tend to stick to what they feel is right, even if they somehow know or suspect they are wrong. Some students even avoided using particular pieces of grammar that cause problems, or disregarded corrections, which they construed as a form of punishment. Other issues concerned how much students understood of the corrections, how much they remembered them, and how consistent and systematic teachers were. Many students did not enjoy having their work corrected as it raised stress levels

(Truscott 1996). The emotional state of the learner should not be considered independent of error corrections, as students do not like to be told their writing has errors, and this has a negative affect on their writing. More importantly Truscott claimed grammar correction was not only unproductive but could be harmful to the development of students' writing (1996). He found correction helped reduce errors in the writing on which it was received, but there was no transference of these corrections to new writing tasks. Thus, reduction of errors in revision was not a reliable measure of learning.

2.2.7 The Case for Error Correction

Directly opposed to Truscott are those who believe he played down positive research results on the effectiveness of error correction. Many, like Ferris (1999) concluded that his call for teachers to abandon error correction in writing was premature and not supported by the research he cited. The subjects in the different studies were not comparable, teaching approaches differed greatly, and Truscott was selective in choosing negative findings to support his position. Ferris agreed with Truscott on principal that more should be done to assist students to self-edit their errors, and teachers suffered from a lack of consistency when it came to written errors. She concluded that teachers should continue to correct errors, for the same reason that Truscott claimed they should not, because students wanted it. Both authors agreed that error correction was time consuming for teachers and students.

Ferris (2004) noted that the question of error feedback as an aid to second language (L2) writers had not been adequately addressed, as direct comparisons on longitudinal studies between students were rare. Furthermore, the studies were so different that very few of them were directly comparable. She went on to say correction of errors in student writing predicted positive results and overcame the process of error fossilization. Students not only expect error correction to be done by teachers (Lee, 2004) but many regard it as essential to their improvement. Even if students are not the best judges of what they need to do in order to improve, Ferris argues that attitudes toward error correction may be a factor in whether the correction is useful, and a lack of correction may be harmful to how students see their own development. Truscott was unable to advocate a comprehensive solution for teachers to assist with improving students' errors. While Ferris (2004) said teachers

should aim to give students indirect feedback, because students saw this as a form of problem solving which involved them more in the process of writing, and aided in editing their writing.

Error correction can be beneficial to all students, however most studies have involved adults in ESL settings and concentrated on isolated grammar points (Ellis et al., 2008, Bitchener & Knoch, 2008). The same questions continue to be asked, but findings are still inconclusive. Ashwell (2000) for example expressed concern over the validity of his results as students focused on form rather than content. Kepner (1991) asserted that error correction was of no significant benefit in avoiding surface-level errors and written feedback was not consistent. Efforts to improve grammatical accuracy using CF were not clearly demonstrated in new pieces of writing (Sheen, 2007), or even in some long-term studies (Chandler, 2003; Kepner, 1991), while others measured writing for accuracy and fluency (Ashwell, 2000). One of the main weaknesses in these studies was the lack of control groups who did not receive CF (Kepner, 1991). Some researchers felt compelled to provide some form of CF to control groups, for ethical reasons, (Fazio, 2001; Ferris, 2001; Chandler, 2003a). Thus, it was difficult to measure the effects of CF. Also problematic was the way in which writing improvement was measured. Making corrections on revised drafts were measured as an improvement in some studies (e.g., Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris, 2001). However, Truscott (1999) disputed revisions as proof of learning, claiming learning should be measured by the application of corrected forms in new writing.

Ellis et al. (2008) looked at the effects of focused and unfocused written CF on university students in Japan. Students wrote narratives and received feedback on pieces in two experimental groups. No other comments were given, nor was any revising required. The control group received no corrections of errors. Considerable differences were found between student perceptions and the designed purpose. Ellis asserted that CF was of benefit to EFL students, as they were able to apply the results of feedback in new narratives. Both experimental groups improved significantly; these results did not support Truscott's position that CF does not affect acquisition and only assisted in redrafting narratives.

Jean Chandler (2003) conducted two related studies into whether or not error correction improved accuracy in student writing, and how teachers should provide error feedback. In study one, students wrote personal pieces where most feedback was on grammar errors. The experimental group revised each piece, correcting underlined errors. The majority of students wanted every error marked. These findings showed no

significant differences between the experimental and control group on the first assignment. While in study two, student writing improved significantly, students made fewer errors on revisions with use of explicit written corrections. The increase in writing fluency over the semester confirmed the findings of study one, as students took less time to write the same amount of text. According to the findings in both studies, having the teacher correct or underline for student self-correction, followed by revision, resulted in significant improvement in both accuracy and fluency over a semester. Chandler's findings support Ferris' (2004) assertion that correcting errors is a necessary aspect of writing instruction and aids in the development of students' writing. Correction by the teacher was considered the most popular method with students, probably for the sake of convenience and speed. Note that in the guided forms of correction mentioned above the focus has shifted from the teacher providing the corrections, to getting the student more involved in the process of self-correction. One of the goals of self-correction should be to get students more involved with correcting their own errors, rather than having corrections pointed out to them by their teacher.

2.3 Error Correction Methods, and Marking Codes

Many teachers developed marking codes to replace comprehensive error correction, which is labour intensive for teachers, and frustrates students (Ferris and Roberts, 2001; Lee, 2003). Written error treatment can be explicit and direct, known as comprehensive or unfocused error correction (Ellis, 2009, Van Beuningan, 2010). It can focus on form, the mechanics and basic grammar of writing, or content where the focus shifts to the expression of ideas. One danger with comprehensive CF is that students may become overwhelmed with such a blanket approach, which in turn may inhibit and interfere with the ability to process, due to cognitive overload (Ellis, 2006). Error correction that concentrated on form has produced only modest effects in the revision of content (Ashwell, 2000).

Written correction can also be indirect, or selective (focused) targeting specific features only, where all other errors are untouched (Van Beuningan, ibid). The teacher can underline errors, or use code to indicate errors without correcting. In this way students are informed of the error and location, then asked to revise their writing. A selective approach to written error correction has the advantage of focusing students' attention on one feature of the language, thus making it a more effective tool for student improvement (Ferris, 2004).

Many teachers have used coding methods to highlight student errors (Lee, 2003, Ferris, 2002) in writing. While these can be effective and considered a form of guided self-correction (Chandler, 2003a), they sometimes do not go far enough. There are also other problems associated with using correction codes; such as they have to be taught to the students first, before they can begin to notice them. Perhaps not every student will understand the codes or misuse them and that could cause more confusion, or they may decide not to use them at all. Coding still takes a lot of time for a teacher to do in a large class. Even if students understand and notice the symbols, it does not mean they will successfully apply the knowledge later, and codes do not cover all the possible errors that students can make. Some students may also react negatively if they see a lot of code markings on their work, as if there were a lot of written corrections. The use of coding symbols can also differ between teachers and become a source of confusion, as it is possible not all students will understand how different teacher use each symbol (Lee, 2004). In the current project, no marking codes are used, apart from ticks given for correct sentences.

2.4 An Asian Perspective: Challenges and Issues

2.4.1 Teacher and Student Practices and Preferences

Teachers are concerned the same errors will continue to be made, as students are unable to recall what teachers have corrected and such corrections do not improve grammar (Lee, 2004). Therefore, much correction is based on teachers making assumptions, which may be incorrect. Since there are many ways to say things in English correctly, the teacher may not know what idea the student is trying to express (ibid). If the teacher makes an incorrect assumption they may actually compound the error, and confuse the students.

Some students will also avoid using structures, or particular words, because they are worried about the risk of being wrong (Krashen, 1982;Truscott, 1996;Chandler, 2003). This self-imposed limit on writing is the result of a lack of confidence, and a strong reliance on the process of writing, where students concentrate on accuracy of form over developing expression (Fazio, 2001; Chandler, 2004). As confidence improves, students are less inclined towards fossilization, a potential consequence of form focused assessment, or avoiding some

structures to avoid making errors (Tuanhua Lu, 2010; Zhang Yanyan, 2010), as a result they will become more adventurous in their writing more quickly, as the issue of writing coherence is addressed.

Another issue concerns how much notice students take of corrections. This may depend on how much the work has been corrected. Although the labels for error correction have changed over the years, from 'negative evidence' and 'negative feedback', to 'corrective feedback' (Samar, 2009), teachers may jump in too soon to correct. Many early studies showed the teachers' use of corrective feedback was often arbitrary, ambiguous and unsystematic, and questioned the value of error correction in classrooms (Sheen, 2004). As Ferris (1999) pointed out error correction if not done well, can be damaging. It appears the more corrections made to a piece of student writing, the less notice students take of them. In different Asian contexts, if a student's paper is covered in red markings, there is evidence the offending piece of writing will quickly be hidden away to avoid shame (Lee 2001, 2004; Ping Wang, 2010). It also appears that regardless of the corrections made to a piece of writing, teachers are still concerned that students are not integrating these corrections and students "still make the same types of mistakes next time" (anonymous quote in Lee, 2004).

While previous studies have shown that student preferences have been consistent in their desire for teacher feedback on written error correction (Ferris 1995; Lee 2004), it could be that teachers and students are conforming to a mutually binding expectation (Truscott, 1996; Lee, 2003). Teachers correct written errors because students expect them to, thus students want teacher error correction to continue. Reliance on teachers to provide error correction is reinforced over time with each subsequent correction, yet students see this method as a viable technique for improving the accuracy of their writing (Lee, ibid). This finding supports a conclusion from a study where students expressed the desire for teachers to provide feedback by using an error code to indicate the type of errors (Ferris, 1997). Yet using error codes has its own issues, as they can't cover all error types, some errors defy categorization, students may not know how to use them, or how to correct the errors, or knowing the codes they may choose to ignore them (Lee, ibid). Students also preferred implicit correction where they were shown their errors, over explicit correction where the errors were corrected for them, as they perceived it to be more beneficial to improving their writing.

There is a tendency to use CF purely as a means to deliver negative feedback, or signal that something is wrong. However, it can also be used to provide positive information, letting students know they have performed

correctly, and praise stimulates motivation (Nunan 1991, as cited in Ellis & Shintani, 250). While there is a definite place and need for error correction, Ellis (ibid) warns that it often fails to eradicate errors, because errors are deep-seated and not easy to eliminate. However, as Ferris (1999) points out, CF cannot be disregarded, its effectiveness depends on its quality, as that which is clear and consistent, works.

There has been a paradigm shift in the issue of written error correction. This shift has been gradual, away from a reliance on the teacher to provide all corrections, which has been time consuming and arguably not all that effective, as shown by student reluctance to use new target structures. Various other correction forms, like targeting a specific problem, corrective feedback, implicit, or guided correction over explicit forms and using codes have replaced intensive correction. All of these techniques have the benefit of focusing student attention on smaller language points, which are more manageable than a non-specific approach that can overwhelm weaker students.

2.4.2 Teacher and students beliefs: Hong Kong, a case study

One study of error correction in writing in Hong Kong found that teachers spent a lot of time on comprehensive error correction (Lee, 2004). It looked at teachers written error feedback, teachers' views, beliefs, problems and concerns regarding error feedback. Despite the time consuming nature of comprehensive error correction, only a handful of teachers were convinced it benefited students. The author questioned maintaining the practice since teachers thought it ineffectual. Teachers continued with comprehensive error correction to conform to expectations of students, peers and themselves, even though official policy did not require it. Most teachers believed they should have been making more use of selective error treatment methods. Lee's findings demonstrated that teachers' error correction practices are not always consistent with beliefs, and marking codes may not be as effective as they thought. She concluded that teachers should adopt more selective methods. Lee concluded that teachers needed to take a more critical look at their error correction practices and its effects, as many were not convinced what they were doing was effective. Many of the teachers' attitudes were based on assumptions but not supported by experience. Their concerns were based more on helping students to avoid repeating the same errors. Although the Education Department in Hong Kong recommended

teachers "correct mistakes selectively" most teachers still engaged in comprehensive correcting, even though many saw it as inefficient and realized that students tended to repeat errors.

2.4.3 Peer Correction

One aspect that often appears to be missing from the writing process is the direct response of peers. Yet peer feedback comments are seen as valuable, because they are delivered at the appropriate level, are natural, and promote more negotiation among students (Wei Zhu, 1995). Once students begin to seek help from peers to correct errors, both students become engaged in the process of problem solving (Wentzel & Watkins, 2002). The use of peer feedback in writing is a widely accepted and well-established technique that marks a shift towards process writing. The hope here is that by providing writers with a wider peer audience, who provide immediate feedback at an appropriate level, writers will then use comments to revise their work and this will improve their writing (Wei Zhu, 1995). Also, people learn better when they are directly involved in doing things themselves, rather than just being told (Scrivener as cited in Ellis & Shintani, 2014, p 254).

Having peers read their work more often, helps students get away from the blind adherence to the notion of the teacher as their only audience, and they begin to develop a wider sense of the importance of '*who*' they are writing for (Wei Zhu, 1995). By giving learners more chances to self-correct they are required to pay more attention to their writing and focus on errors. Allowing for more pair and small group work on error correction increases the collaborative element of scaffold learning, as the more capable language learners are able to guide by example and explanation. In addition to prompts, the impact of social interaction or feedback on students' performance can be seen (Ching et al., 2013).

2.4.4 Discrepancies between Beliefs and Practices

Much correction of writing is done far removed from students, who are often isolated from their work by both time and distance, as teachers usually correct after class in their office or at home at night or on weekends (Fazio, ibid p 240). Teachers cite a lack of available time for trying to correct in the classroom.

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Teachers and students in Asia face challenges in their attempts to improve their writing and class size is one of the most significant of these. In China for example class sizes in excess of sixty students are common even in wealthy urban centers, and in some rural areas may reach a hundred. In such classes there is rarely time, nor opportunity for students to receive individual assistance. Chinese students are usually reluctant to draw attention to themselves in a classroom context, especially so if there is a chance that they could be exposed as lacking knowledge by giving a wrong answer. Also, the Chinese culture does not encourage students to question their teachers so they lack confidence to speak up in front of their peers (Xiao, 2007). Thus, opportunities for student/teacher interaction are extremely limited.

Large class sizes raise other, associated issues. In colleges "teaching EFL writing is not preferred by teachers in China because the workload is unreasonably heavy" (Xiao, 2007, p.19), as a result many senior teachers choose not to teach writing. This means that inexperienced teachers often teach writing classes. In high schools every teacher takes a writing class, even those without EFL training. Learners sense they are being hampered despite their efforts. Teachers and students dread writing courses, despite both seeing writing as an essential language skill (Xiao ibid). By giving learners more chances to self correct, both Krashen's monitor and Schmidt's noticing theories are brought into play. Both require students to pay more attention to their writing and focus on errors. By allowing for more pair and small group work on error correction a modified version of scaffolding occurs, where more competent language learners guide by example and explanation. This study seeks to investigate and address some of the issues raised in the literature review by examining teacher beliefs and practices around self and peer correction, and their perceptions of how these practices affect students in large Asian EFL classrooms.

2.5 Summary

With the changes SLA theory there has been a corresponding change in the way errors are treated. Under the Behaviourists errors were viewed as an indication that the student had not learnt. Chomsky saw language not as a series of automatic responses, but a lively and creative act. He said our brains came pre-wired, and that we had the ability to form sentences we had never heard before, which was not possible under

Behaviourist theory. At this point language stopped being seen as something we learned, and became something we could acquire. This point was expanded upon further by Krashen, who believed that sufficient comprehensible input was enough for language to be acquired. Learning could also play a part, as it acted as a monitor to predict errors and edit writing.

Learners develop more quickly if they are given assistance by models, adults or more competent peers, who provide a scaffold or framework and show how to solve problems. This process enables a learner to reach a goal that is beyond the limits of their unassisted ability. Before errors can be corrected, they must first be detected, or consciously noticed. This noticing might be highly selective, or operate at an unconscious level, however the critical point is that students need to pay attention, before an error can be noticed. Scaffolding and noticing theories have implications for this study, as the theory behind this technique requires students to re-examine their writing, and concentrate more on their errors, which are seen as problems to solve. To aid them, a scaffold is provided in the form of assistance from peers who have already solved their own problems. The development of SLA theory has seen a shift in emphasis over time. Under Skinner and the behaviourists, errors were things to be avoided. Krashen said errors were a natural part of the learning process and could be overcome by sufficient comprehensible input. Bruner (1975) said more competent peers and adults could help us build a framework, to explain errors at a level easier to understand. While Schmidt's theory (1994) requires students to notice errors first, before they can act on them or acquire new language items. This research project sets out to establish if a similar phenomenon exists with regard to the self and correction of errors in writing, and what effects that might have on two classrooms in different urban, Asian settings.

Chapter 3 Methodology

3. 1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, literature on error correction in writing was discussed. This chapter lays out the principal methodology behind the research design of this project. It also details the setting and participants, as well as the collection and analysis of data, the credibility or trustworthiness of the data and, finally, ethical considerations. This research is based on a teaching intervention where the main focus was on addressing errors of form and spelling accuracy in students' written work. This study was based on an interpretive theory that assumes reality is socially constructed and the researcher becomes the vehicle by which this reality is revealed (Cavana et al., 2001). Case studies were chosen as the preferred method of research as they focus on understanding social phenomena in their natural settings, cultural and historical contexts (Myers, 1998). Descriptive/interpretive case studies recognize that reality is subjective. Such a reality is produced and interpreted by the human participants involved. As such it is not free of values or bias, but based on their beliefs and values, and the researcher attempts to "understand phenomena through accessing the meanings that participants assign to them" (Orlikowski & Baroudi, 1991, p.5). Such research is not always or necessarily concerned with the repeatability of results.

3.2 The Research Questions

The aim of this research was to investigate the practices and beliefs of two teachers in separate Asian contexts regarding their use of a self and peer correction technique for written errors. This project used separate but parallel case studies to collect qualitative data, in order to answer the research questions below. The research questions that guided this investigation, were:

1. How do selected teachers in two different Asian school contexts adapt self and peer correction strategies in their classrooms?

2. What are their attitudes and responses to these adapted correction strategies?

3.3 Research Design

For this current project, parallel, yet separate case studies were chosen for the research design method to investigate the practices of teachers in two different, urban, Asian contexts, as they increased the amount of self and peer correction of writing in their English classes. Case studies were chosen because, if the researcher wants to explore and explain findings, and persuade through a piece of research by investigating emergent themes on common, contemporary phenomena, then each participant's perspective needs to be considered (Andrade, 2009). If results can be replicated through analysis and pattern matching to link information between multiple case studies to a theory, then the use of those case studies helps raise the level of confidence in the robustness of the method. Common themes emerging from two discrete studies, in very different settings means that confidence in the findings should be increased (Zainal, 2007).

These descriptive/interpretive case studies were based on interviews of the principal participants directly involved in the use of this method to provide the main source of data, by directly investigating the practices, and expressed preferences and beliefs of the participants. Case studies were chosen as they allowed the participants space in which to articulate and express their beliefs and opinions in semi-structured interviews, and provided multiple sources of evidence (Andrade, ibid). They were also chosen as direct observation of the participants was not possible and the research was not concerned with an in depth examination of the lives of the participants (Yin, 2009). Therefore to discover how effective this self-correction method was, the researcher determined to examine the effects of the method in two different settings. With two case studies, direct replication becomes possible. Analytic conclusions arrived at from two independent case studies will carry more weight, than conclusions coming from a single case study. If there are conclusions common to both studies, they will have increased the ability to generalize external findings, compared to a single case (Yin, 2003).

Due to the distances involved, the researcher was unable to observe both classes involved directly. As the researcher was in a different location from the participants throughout the entire research period, it was imperative that both classroom teachers were given a high degree of autonomy over how they would interpret and adapt the method to best suit the needs of their students, by allowing for local variations and demands, and as experienced teachers they were more likely to find ways to put into practice what they said and believed

(Basturkemen, 2102). Since achieving a high degree of student autonomy was one of the central aims of this research, an investigation method that allowed students to express their thoughts and reactions was also needed, and a case study was seen as having greater relevance to this investigation than other research methods, as a case study approach allowed for an enhanced understanding of the complex organization in differing contexts (Kayooz & Trevitt, 2005). Research that requires more access to the opinions of participants in the classes being investigated, can utilize case studies to provide greater context and provide more in-depth analysis. The case study approach allowed for deeper understandings and more insights to be gained on "the complex world of lived experience from the point of view of those who live it" (Schwandt, 1994, p. 118). This research was not designed to generate results that could be generalized, but to allow the participants to talk about their experiences, and from their discourses gain a deeper understanding of their perspectives.

3.4 Underlying Principles

By providing initial feedback through the confirmation of written sentences that are correct, the classroom teacher begins to build the foundation of a scaffold, as espoused by Bruner (op. cit.). Armed with the knowledge of what is right, the student then goes back and compares their work with what still remains incorrect. According to Schmidt's theory (op.cit.) they are now ready and in a position to begin noticing more errors, thus building another piece of the scaffold. This scaffold building process is repeated each time students modify their writing and receive positive feedback from their teacher. In the final step, the scaffold is completed when the student enlists the assistance of a peer, who has all the correct answers and functions as a more competent peer. Meaning then, has been negotiated and shared between them.

The intervention in this study was characterized by a basic change in the way both classes were organized. The main change involved a paradigm shift away from the most common classroom model used in Asia, based on the teacher as the sole provider of corrections, towards a more autonomous model, in which students are required to take a larger role in their own learning. As a first step, students are given multiple chances to self correct their errors, through being given minimal feedback on the things they have right. If they

are unable to correct their errors they can then seek assistance from peers who have all correct answers. Thus, instead of all corrections flowing in one direction using a top down model originating from the class teacher, more students become actively involved in the correction of writing, and derive shared meanings through negotiated outcomes. This principle of greater autonomy extends further to include an expectation that students will take more responsibility for correcting their own work, and for those who are successful to then assist weaker peers to correct their writing.

The correction of written errors can be considered a problem that meets the need to be at a level that challenges the student's current level of communicative competence (Stone, 1998). This is consistent with Krashen's (1982) concept of i + 1. The structure of the scaffold framework is constructed piece by piece, as students are shown in advance the next step, before they are required to act upon it. The teacher plays a supporting role by always being in attendance to check student progress during the self-correction stages.

3.5 Settings and Participants

3.5.1 The Settings

Baotou, Case Study 1: Took place in a Grade 4 class in a government school in Baotou, a newly planned city of more than 2.5 million people, in Inner Mongolia. In this class almost two thirds of the parents were city dwellers, and the remainder, are migrant workers. In China, migrant workers often come from rural areas, are usually of lower socio-economic status, and have moved to cities like Baotou seeking employment opportunities that are limited in their local areas. Since these migrant workers were not registered as local residents, their access to government resources such as schools was limited. English classes were held three times a week and each class was 40 minutes duration, for a total of 120 minutes of English instruction per week.

Bangkok, Case Study 2: Took place in a Junior 1 (Year 7) class in a government school, in Bangkok, a rapidly growing metropolis of more than 8 million people, in Thailand. Students came from the local suburban area. In this class 95% of parents were factory workers, the remaining 5% were small business owners, 90% of the parents had minimal education and either did not attend or did not complete high school, 5% had Bachelor

degrees from local universities. This Junior 1 class is not a standard class, in that the students transferred in from different schools in the area, where many were seen as behavioral problems. Thus, they did not know each other as well, and were not as homogenous a group as students in other classes. After consulting with the teacher involved, this class was chosen deliberately for this reason, as these students were identified as being in need of more help than her other classes. English classes were held 4 times a week, and each class was 50 minutes duration, for a total of 200 minutes of English instruction per week.

3.5.2 The Teachers

Study 1. Suki is a Chinese national. She is 33 years of age, and has 12 years of English teaching experience. Suki majored in English at college, and graduated in 2003; in the same year she also became a qualified primary school teacher. In 2006 she obtained a Graduate Certificate from ELIC (English Language Institute of China) and in December 2008 completed a Teaching of English as a Second Language (TESOL) Certificate. Suki has been a grade teacher in her present school for over 5 years.

Study 2. Noi is a Thai National. She is 35 years of age, and has 13 years of English teaching experience. Noi received a Bachelor Degree in Business English in 2002, and is currently studying a Master Degree in Curriculum and Instruction, begun in 2012. Noi has been a teacher in her present school for over 9 years, and is a senior teacher in the English department of her school (See Table 3.4.4 below).

3.5.3 Student Participants

The two classes chosen for this research are of different ages. This was done to examine the effects of increasing peer correction on different age groups. The classes are also of considerably different sizes, to measure whether or not an increase in peer correction is viable for large classes. (See 3.4.4 Table below).

3.5.4 Table Overview of Participants

Teacher Participants	Gender, age and experience	Qualifications
Teacher A: Suki Baotou, Inner Mongolia. Chinese National.	Female, age 32. 15 + years teaching	Graduate Certificate from ELIC (English Language Institute of China). TESOL Certificate. Primary School English Teacher.
Teacher B: Noi Suburban Bangkok. Thai national.	Female, 35 13 + years teaching	Bachelor Degree in Business. Master degree in Curriculum and Instruction. Middle School English Teacher.

Student Participants	Male	Female	Age range	Class Level
Baotou N= 56	35	21	10-11 years	Grade 4 All students are Chinese nationals.
Bangkok N=30	18	12	13-14 years	Junior 1, (Grade 7) All students are Thai nationals.

3.6 Background

The students in both classes involved in this research can be classified as beginner level English students. Despite the differences in ages, both classes have a similar sized vocabulary. They are able to form and use sentences using the three simple tenses, but some students are still prone to frequent errors. This research did not focus on any one particular writing style to correct, such as personal, imaginary or factual, nor did the researcher elicit a list of writing topics from the teachers involved. Not only did I aim to minimize my impact on the classes and teachers involved, but also, I did not want to interfere with the smooth running of each class, and therefore sought no deviation from the regular curriculum.

As the researcher, I wanted to investigate the effects of increasing self and peer correction of errors in two different urban Asian settings. Since I was already based in China, a class in a Chinese school was ideal. The researcher had also spent more than a decade in different schools in Thailand. The teachers involved were approached because of their considerable English teaching experience, and their willingness to undertake the project. I have known Suki since early 2007, and we have worked together previously as TEFL trainers in Shanghai. Informal contact has been maintained since that time. She was invited to participate due to her

enthusiasm and willingness to try new methods, which teachers in the researcher's local area had been reluctant to attempt. I have known Noi since July 2012, when we met on an English camp for the Bangkok Metropolitan Authority. Noi impressed at that time with her desire to be involved in all aspects of the camp and contributed greatly to the various activities run. Both teachers expressed great passion for their job, as manifested in their desire to improve the educational outcomes of their students. As such the researcher believed both teachers possessed qualities that made them both highly desirable candidates as subjects for this project.

As both teachers were already known to the researcher there was always a possibility that this personal contact could in some unconscious way exert an undue influence on their answers. This aspect was considered and acknowledged as a possible source of bias in the interview answers in the initial stages of the research design. However this possible influence was offset by the distances between the two different schools, my own location and the lack of opportunity to observe classes directly, or visit either teacher involved for follow up conferences. While such influence cannot ever be totally eradicated, to lesson any potential impact, l did not have any contact with Suki or Noi during the period of the in class intervention, nor were the teachers in contact with each other. The students involved in this project were selected because they were already in the respective classes. Due to the vast distances involved the researcher recruited both teachers directly via e-mail. The research questions were also sent in advance to allow both teachers time to compose their thoughts.

The researcher met with the teachers Suki and Noi and discussed with them individually the Do It Your SELF correction technique addressed in this section. The classroom intervention then became the teachers' adaptation of this technique. As a follow up to the discussion, the teachers were given a link to a video recording of a workshop facilitated by the researcher on how to use the DIY correction technique – a technique that I had developed. Both teachers watched the recording prior to implementing the method in their classrooms. The use of the DIY Self correction technique was used in conjunction with the unaltered curriculum of the schools, no special writing tasks were set in order to measure the effects of the error correction method. This was done to lessen the impact of the intervention on the normal school program, minimize disruption to the classes, and isolate the effects of the technique from any other variables. A summary of the method is given below.

3.7. An Explanation of Do It Your Self Correction

1. When students submit their written work for checking, all correct sentences are given a tick by the teacher. This is done to confirm correct answers for students, and provide immediate feedback on what they have done well or are good at. This also provides them with a solid foundation upon which to build their scaffold, according to Bruner's theory, and is in keeping with the principle outlined by Ferris (1999) that more needs to be done to assist students to edit their own errors. Errors of any kind are not corrected, thus forming a problem for the student to solve. Students first begin to notice what they have wrong by comparing their errors with what they know they have right, according to sentences already identified and classified by the teacher. This first step in noticing what they have done is consistent with Schmidt's theory. Although this method is minimalist in its approach, it is more consistent than other methods, such as the use of error correction codes for instance, and still meets the basic desire of students to have their errors treated by having them identified. No explanations are given at this point, students are then told to try again, and are given another chance to immediately self-correct any errors before returning a second time for feedback.

2. The same procedure is followed, ticks are given for any new, correct sentences, but errors are not corrected. Students can return for a third attempt to have their corrections assessed, if necessary. Students, who have corrected their own writing and have completely error-free sentences, meet the necessary criteria to be considered 'more competent peers'. Students who are unable to correct their own written errors after the two extra attempts at self-correction are deemed to be in need of assistance and directed to those peers with perfect scores. Students seeking help can choose which peer they want to consult with over their work.

3. When two or more students engage in peer correction work, they form a workstation. The first student with all correct sentences runs the workstation, following the same method outlined above. That is, they give a tick to all correct answers, but initially do not correct any errors, only the student with the errors, makes the corrections. Any necessary explanations of errors between peers, is allowed in the students' L1. The student with all the correct answers takes on the status and role of a more competent peer. At the end of class, the teacher then collects all student work for a final quick check. In large classes in Asia, where a teacher might have more than 60 students in a class, it is possible to set up multiple workstations for correction within a single class, to save time and allow weaker students more choices concerning whom they want to work with. Teachers

can also access the work of weaker students, by requesting to see the work of any particular individual (See Appendix 1 for a fuller explanation of the DIY Self correction method).

3.8 Data Collection

The writing produced for this research did not deviate from the regular classroom curriculum. The writing corrected, was the writing produced in the class, at the time of instruction. No special writing tasks were given, as l wanted to isolate the effects of an increase in self and peer correction, from any other criteria. Feedback in the form of recorded interviews was sought from both teachers on the effects of this method. The investigation was concerned with the practices and beliefs of the teachers in relation to this method. Most of the interview questions were open ended to promote the opportunity to provide expansive answers. A secondary aim was to provide a great deal of flexibility in participant question choices.

For the teacher interviews a list of pre-prepared questions was sent to both teachers 4 weeks in advance, to allow them ample time to reflect on answers, (see Table 3.8.1 below). Suki and Noi nominated which questions they wanted to answer, and the order to be asked. The researcher also asked questions, to elicit more details on events in their classroom. The teachers did not need to answer all questions, nor answer any questions posed by the researcher, but both chose to do so. Transcriptions of the interviews were sent back to both teachers for checking, as some answers were unclear due to technical issues (See Appendix 4A and 4B).

Six students were chosen from each class, two from the top third, two from the middle third, and two from the bottom third, to gain different perspectives from various levels within the classroom, from the helpers as well as the helped. The class was divided into thirds based on their English grades. The identity of the students interviewed was not made known to the class teachers involved (See Appendices 6A and 6B for transcriptions).

3.8.1 Table Interview details

Teacher Interviews	
Recorded via Skype. Transcribed by the researcher.	30 prepared questions sent to both teachers 4 weeks in advance. Teachers nominated which questions to answer. Researcher also asked questions, to elicit more. Teachers did not need to answer all questions. Transcripts sent for checking over technical issues. (Appendices 4A and 4B).
Student Interviews	
Conducted, and recorded by teachers not involved in the research in the students' L1. Transcribed by the researcher.	6 students from each class were chosen. Different perspectives from various levels elicited. Identity of the students interviewed was not made known to the class teachers involved Appendices 6A and 6B).

3.9 The Interviews

3.9.1 Teacher Interviews

Teacher interviews were an essential piece of data collection for this research project as only interviews could provide sufficient detail and insight into the practices, beliefs and preferences of the class teachers involved, also, direct class observations by the investigator were not possible. The interviewer is responsible for the direction the interview will take and must avoid falling into any of the pitfalls, such as uncertainties related to the dilemma of vagueness. This "requires social skills of its participants, not just an ability to ask clever questions" Hermanns (2004, p. 212.) This is particularly relevant with regards to this research where the interviewer had developed the correction method being investigated. These interviews were not discussions, as the teacher subjects were given plenty of scope to develop their own narrative (Hopf, 2004, p. 204). Therefore in the semi-structured teacher interviews, this researcher kept comments to a minimum, restricted mostly to repeating the questions the teacher subjects requested, or comments to acknowledge that answers had been heard.

The researcher did, however, reserve the right to ask some questions from the prepared list, although the teachers were not compelled to answer these 'extra' questions. Research is about asking the right questions, it is not always about finding the right answers (Yin, 2003). Since the teachers chose their questions and the order to answer them, the researcher was given more insight into the issues each class teacher identified as being more relevant and pertinent, as the teachers chose to answer what they considered to be the most important questions first. By allowing the interviewees to determine the direction and aspects of the interview content, the interviewer

allowed them to stage manage the interview, and identified with their perspective, thus the interviewer was placed in a better position to 'accept the truth as presented,' Hermanns (2004, p. 210). For this research, the interviewer was also the developer of the error correction technique being investigated and was known to both participating teachers. This may have influenced the teachers in some of their answers, as they may have assumed the researcher holds similar opinions and they may have left out details or assume shared understandings as a result (Wolff, 2004).

The interview in and of itself is not neutral, indeed, it is an interpersonal drama "actively produced by both participants" Hermanns (2004, p. 209). The collected data needs to be examined with due consideration given to the roles and relationships of the participants. As the questions were sent in advance, the interview subjects were aware of the context and content of the questions. Both interviews proceeded in a relaxed manner, and time and space was given to both teachers involved to develop their answers in depth. The interviewer used short questions, did not attempt explanations, and did not voice any opinion, although in one instance l did complete a sentence for Suki, when she was stuck for words. Instead the interview concentrated on the process; the what and the how, and did not attempt to probe why. This protocol was considered in advance of the interviews and applied during the actual interviews. The aim was to provide a great deal of flexibility in participant choices of questions to answer.

Study 1: From Appendix 2, Suki chose questions in the following order: **1, 6, 27, 22, 30, 26, 23,** supplemental questions by the researcher were asked in the following order **21**, then a **new question** not included in the original questions, **16, 8, 10, 11, 15, 4**. A total of 15 questions were asked. This interview lasted approximately 30 minutes and was transcribed by the researcher (see Appendix 4A). The new question was formulated spontaneously, and was a direct result of the answer to the previous questions. It was not planned but was asked to highlight a point arising directly out of the previous answer.

Study 2: From the list of prepared questions sent in advance, Noi chose questions **3, 6, 7, 16, 19, 27, 20, 18, 8, 30,** supplemental questions by the researcher were asked in the following order **23, 24, 27** (again), **28**. This interview lasted approximately 25 minutes. However, time was lost due to some breaks in transmission, which reduced the effective interview time. The researcher then transcribed the interviews, after the teachers had reiterated their answers, due to technical issues affecting the sound (see Appendix 4B).

Each interview was then analyzed to elicit major categories; three were initially identified. From the three categories, three main themes were identified and are discussed in detail in Chapter 4 Results and Discussion. Figure 3.10.2 below shows the three main categories and how they were linked.

3.9.2 Student Interviews

While the focus of this study was mainly on the teachers' beliefs, student interviews were used to provide depth to the context for those beliefs. While class sizes and ages were different, the number of interviewee subjects (6) was the same for both schools. The classroom intervention took place over two months, from April to June 2014. Student interviews were conducted at the conclusion of this period and were conducted in both schools by teachers who were not otherwise involved in the project. There were some differences in the way the student interviews were conducted. In Baotou students chose to answer two questions out of a list of seven (see Appendix 2). Teachers who were not involved in the research conducted the interviews, which meant students would not feel inhibited by their classroom teacher, allowing them to feel freer to answer the questions according to their own beliefs, rather than answer according to what they thought the teacher might want to hear. The teacher that conducted the interviews also translated the interviews from Mandarin, and the researcher transcribed them (See Appendix 6A for full details). Despite repeated requests for the students in Bangkok to answer two questions each, only one question was answered and video recordings of student answers in both Thai and English were sent directly to the researcher, who transcribed them (see Appendix 6B for full details). Time restrictions prevented me from obtaining a second answer from the Noi's students. Pseudonyms were given to all participants to protect their identities.

3.10 Data Analysis

The interviews that follow were first coded and placed in a table (see Appendix 5). The columns of the tables were then labeled, Advantages, Importance or Remaining Issues. This was done as an initial classification stage only. From these columns further analysis revealed the main emergent themes to be discussed in Chapter 4 Results and Discussion.

3.10.1 Teacher Beliefs

As can be seen below in the 3.10.2 Table of Emergent Themes comments made in Suki and Noi's semi-structured interview were, then coded using thematic analysis which "is a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p 79). Thematic analysis allows data to be organized and described in detail, it often allows for interpretation of various aspects of topics as well (ibid). Themes do not simply emerge, for even though the researcher strives for an impartial and objective stance, it must be recognized that s/he makes conscious decisions in identifying the themes to report. As such, the researcher comes to the data already thinking of themes existing in the data and how to extract them. For our whole data is subject to a rigorous examination, and every piece selected is the result of our own theoretical editing policy. What was important was to identify and analyse the themes both Suki and Noi felt were of vital importance in their classes. While some themes were common to both classes, there were also significant differences resulting from the different directions taken, as they adapted the technique to better suit the needs of their students. Differences I had to allow for and explain in Chapter 4. See Table 3.10.2 below for an introduction to the major themes to be discussed. The three emergent themes that were uncovered from this data were to do with the use of time, student confidence and student improvement, these will be discussed in greater detail, in Chapter 4, Results, by comparing the comments of both teachers on these themes. The quotations in Table 3.10.2 below are examples of what was considered evidence for each theme.

3.10.2 Table Emergent Themes

	Participant Quotes	
Theme	**Suki**	**Noi**
Time	…it definitely saved a lot of my time… l mean for other things, other than marking,	I prefer this style because it can reduce my time.
Student Confidence	l mean two things basically. One, they're comfortable. Two, they're more confident.	I have to explain everything and let them understand step by step and then change.
Student Improvement	l really think this method is revolutionary in the way that it really gets the students to do the work and the teacher can just really sit back and see how they progress and improve	…for the weaker, l have to try to push them like this, and maybe find someone who is stronger to help them…

3.10.3 Data links

The data were linked, by contrasting and comparing the practices and preferences of the two teacher participants involved (See Figure 3.9.2 below). The comments of the student participants in both classes were also examined for their error correction preferences. Finally, the student comments were examined for evidence either in support of, or to contrast their views with the comments of their teachers.

3.10.3 Figure Data Links

Teacher 1: Suki ⟷ Teacher 2: Noi

Class 1: Baotou ⟷ Class 2: Bangkok
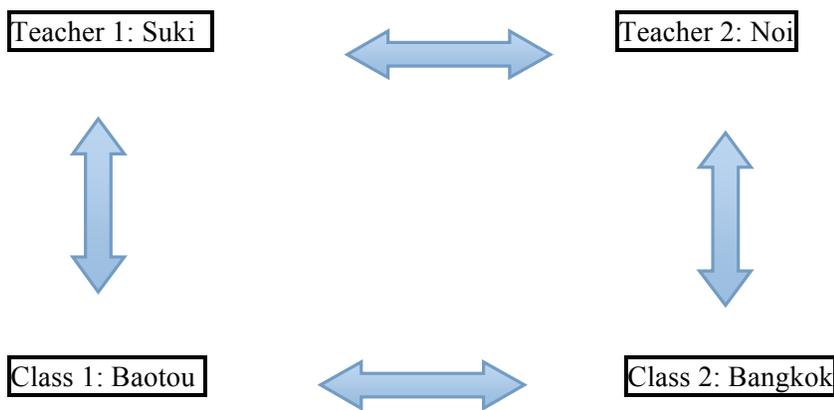
Figure 3.10.3 shows how the data were linked. Firstly the research compared and contrasted the views of the two teacher participants. A second link exists between the teacher comments and the supporting comments of their students, and the third link shows how student comments in the two classes are related. These links were uncovered by examining the anecdotes of all participants.

3.11 Credibility of the Research

The data needs to be considered against the backdrop of the roles and relationships of the participants. The only direct link for the researcher in this study was with the classroom teachers. Therefore it was essential to establish rapport with the participants, and put them at ease. This was done by first adopting "an equal footing and making the interviews appear casual and the interviewees feel comfortable" Hu (2009, p. 644). Several interview strategies suggested by Hermanns (2004) were also adopted, such as setting a clear task and creating a conducive speaking atmosphere by giving the interview subjects time to relax before beginning to ask questions. As the

interviewer and teachers were already well known to each other, a level of informality already existed prior to the interviews and was maintained throughout. Subjects were given time and space to open up and expand on their answers. The interviewer did not attempt to explain or impose his views, nor agree or disagree with the subjects.

The context, content and structure of the interviews were made known to the interview subjects well in advance, to allow them time to become familiar with the questions and prepare answers in advance if they desired. Content from the interviewees dominated the interviews, and the teachers' stories were allowed to unfold at their own pace. As a result the interviewer was given insights into the workings of classes in two different, real world settings. While the researcher was not an active participant in the project, measures were taken to guard against undue influences affecting the results. For example, while the researcher was available for consultation if required, he was not in contact with either teacher participant concerning aspects of the investigation during the actual research period. Thus each participant was free to interpret how to administer the technique in her own way, to adapt it to better meets the needs of the students in her class and her school. The researcher also allowed both participants to choose which interview questions they wanted to answer, and in which order. Allowing them to choose their own questions gave the participants more freedom, and a greater stake in their interviews, as they were not restricted to a lock-step approach. Lastly, the participants chose the order in which they wish to answer questions, thus allowing them to concentrate on what they considered to be the most relevant issues. Thus, the first questions chosen indicated which issues the teachers thought were the most important effects on their respective classes.

3.12 Ethical Issues

Teachers who participated in this research project did so on a purely voluntary basis. Permission was sought and obtained in advance from the principals of both schools involved. Permission was also sought and obtained in advance from all students involved. Due to the young ages of the students, permission was also sought and obtained from the parents or guardians of all students. As many of the parents did not read English, the teachers involved explained the nature of the research to all parents, prior to their signatures being obtained. Students who did not initially wish to participate were not compelled to take part but were given the option to

join in the research project any time later without any penalty or prejudice against them. The option to allow for non-participating students to join the research any time later if they changed their minds enabled them to receive the same benefits as the rest of the class. All students chose to participate. The research was approved by MUHREC in July 2013.

3.13 Summary

The primary data for this case study research was collected from two in-depth semi-structured teacher interviews. Individual variations and practices on how they organized their classes were also, noted. The interviews were then analysed and coded for important, recurring issues. The next chapter will discuss in detail the three main themes.

Chapter 4 Results and Discussion

4.1. Introduction

The present study was an investigation into the practices and beliefs of two teachers, who changed their written error correction practices to promote more self and peer correction in two different urban, Asian contexts. This method was in contrast to traditional error correction methods, as it sought to improve the writing skills of all students in the classes by using the strongest students in a mentoring role to support the weakest. The intervention investigated a technique that seeks to focus on improving writing accuracy. Once students gain a measure of confidence derived from increased accuracy, they can then shift their attention towards writing more fluently.

While the researcher originally designed the classroom intervention, each teacher involved in the research project modified the DIY technique to better suit the students in her own class. Suki superimposed her preexisting class structure, in accordance with her school policy to make greater use of class leaders, who had previously been identified as better students. While in Bangkok Noi changed to a stepped approach, where new language points were taught in Thai first, and the error correction technique was used on known language. The research questions that guided this investigation, were:

1. How do selected teachers in Asian school contexts adapt self and peer correction strategies in their classrooms?

2. What are their attitudes and responses to these adapted correction strategies?

Themes understood to be common to both case studies will be discussed. What teachers practice in their classrooms and how they correct student errors in writing, is closely aligned to their beliefs, as shown in previous studies (Chandler, 2003; Lee, 2004; Bitchener et al., 2005). Teacher beliefs concerning written error correction are an important aspect of language acquisition, and this particular research project investigates the beliefs of two teachers who changed their error correction strategies to promote more self and peer correction in their classes. This chapter will first look at how the teachers involved in the research adapted the DIY Self-correction technique to better suit the learners in their local contexts. Then, three themes that emerged from the comments of both teachers in their semi-structured interviews will be presented along with supporting quotes to

illustrate what they believed happened during the research period. The three themes in order are time, student confidence and student improvement. These themes will then be investigated to determine if they support the scaffold theory of Bruner (op. cit.) and the noticing theory of Schmidt (op. cit.).

4.2 The Case Studies

The case studies used in this research both involved younger students at the beginner level of English, in government schools in urban areas of large cities. However the classes differed in terms of age, size, gender blend and the students' L1.

4.2.1 Comparative Table of the DIY Self Correction Technique

Table 4.2.1 is a Comparative Table of the DIY Self Correction Technique and shows how self and peer correction method strategies were adapted with regard to the two teachers involved in the research, to better suit the learning conditions in their classrooms. These adaptations led to different perspectives being formed. The table will be discussed firstly in relation to Suki and her class in Baotou, and secondly in relation to Noi and her class in Bangkok. For a fuller description of the DIY Self Correction Technique, please see Appendix 1.

Table 4.2.1 compares how self and peer correction method strategies were adapted with regards to the two teachers involved in the research, to better suit the learning conditions in their classrooms. These adaptations led to different perspectives being formed. The table will be discussed firstly in relation to Suki and her class in Baotou, and secondly in relation to Noi and her class in Bangkok. Suki maintained her prearranged class set up, as the students were used to this form of organization from previous years, and it was used in other classes and subjects. She felt that changing her class format would have caused considerable confusion for her students, so she decided to adapt the technique and super imposed her existing class organization over the top of it. As a result students stayed within their designated groups, so a measure of spontaneity and student choice may have been lacking, but this was compensated for by an increase in efficiency, as students knew who and where to turn for help, in advance. Suki's class was instructed on new language points and structures in English. See Appendix 7: Details of Suki's class organization, for more details on how her class was organized.

By way of contrast in Noi's class the only significant variations from the DIY Self-correction technique was the use of the L1, Thai, for instruction. English use was somewhat restricted for review purposes and used only on previously studied English lessons. This was done because in her estimation, her students were not capable of being instructed on new language points and structures in English, which is a significant difference from how the class in Baotou was instructed.

4.2.1 Table of the DIY Self Correction Technique

* DIY Self Correction Technique	Case Study 1 Baotou Adaptations	Case Study 2 Bangkok Adaptations
Students given 3 chances to find the correct written answers	No change.	No change.
Any student with all correct answers begins correcting others.	Appointed team leaders correct work of other students in their small group.	No change.
As students acquire language at different rates, any student could be first to be all correct.	The same students are used as peer correctors, regardless of who in the group was first with all correct.	Any student could be the first to finish with all correct answers and begin to correct their peers.
Weaker students can choose whom they want to work with.	Team members stay within their own group, with their team leader.	No change.
English used for instruction, L1 allowed for peer-to-peer correction sessions.	English used for instruction, L1 allowed for peer-to-peer correction sessions.	Thai used for instruction, English used for review of previously studied English lessons. L1 allowed for peer-to-peer correction sessions.
Strategy used on all types of structures.	No change.	Strategy used only on previously learned structures.

4.2.2 Case Study 1: Baotou, Suki

In answer to research question 1 concerning how teachers in Asian school contexts adapt self and peer correction strategies in their classroom, Suki said that she continued to use an organizational structure that was already established in her class. She had previously divided the class into groups of four, according to where

they sat, usually in lines and rows. Sometimes they were mixed with other groups depending on tasks. As shown in Table 4.2.1, Suki used appointed team leaders to be the designated peer correctors, as this was considered the most effective and efficient way to organize lessons in the time and space available, considering the large number of students involved. These team leaders also carried out regular routine work, like collecting and returning student work to be assessed, and distributing class materials. As these students were already used to working collaboratively, they may have adapted more easily to working together on peer correction. This may have given them an advantage over the class in Bangkok, with its disparate collection of students new to the school, who were not as used to working collaboratively.

These leaders were chosen because they were often perceived to be the strongest academically in the class, and so were deemed more capable of helping their weaker peers. As Suki said in her interview, 'the leader takes a lot of the responsibility, as like a team leader.' Students were given responsibility because they were considered capable. Once the structure was in place, the correction process proceeded smoothly; as all students became familiar with where to go and who to see in order to get assistance, as Suki said, "l don't mark them because they have gotten used to checking and marking each other's, and the ones who know, apart from the leader who is marking, other students are more used to just go (going) to them."

Students became comfortable with the routine action of getting their work checked, or checking others. In her semi structured interview Suki said the team leaders were also perceived as having a higher status, which meant that corrections coming from them would have been seen by weaker students as carrying more authority than if corrections had been made by random others. Allowing any student to correct errors was a desired outcome of the original method design. Thus, Suki decided to adapt how the method was managed in her class, as the small group team structure was already existent in her class, and the various team leaders were well established and known to all members of the class. Therefore in the interests of maintaining harmony in the class, Suki felt that it would cause less disruption to the organization and smooth running of the class to keep the class structure established previously. This point was made clear in a follow up conversation with Suki. When she was asked why the opportunity was not given to all students to become peer correctors, in keeping with the original concept behind the method, Suki replied, education in China has undergone a change, moving towards task-based and peer-support cooperative learning in large classes. Due to the large sizes of classes, up to 75

students in Baotou, Suki's class was divided into small groups of 4, usually in rows or columns. The small groups were nominally organized according to their usual seating arrangements, but sometimes groups are combined depending on the set task. The two main reasons to appoint students into groups were based on expediency. Firstly because it was an efficient and effective way to organize the class within a limited time frame, and secondly because of the limited physical space when working with large numbers. Movement around the class was severely restricted in a small space with so many people. Suki said it was not physically possible for students to go to any helper, as there was insufficient room for free movement. The easiest solution was then to work with other students nearby. Leaders were also chosen for their better language skills, leadership qualities and their ability to help others, but other students were encouraged to aspire to become leaders. The small groups were used in all subjects by all teachers and group membership changed depending on tasks, and whom they sat next to, which altered the classroom dynamics (See Appendix 7, Suki class details, for a fuller explanation of how her class was organized).

4.2.3 Case Study 2: Bangkok, Noi

In answer to the same research question Noi adapted the technique in two significantly different ways from the original concept and how Suki did. Firstly, due to the low English levels she perceived in her class, Noi used a bilingual approach to promote an increase in self and peer correction in her class, "Step by step, we cannot start a quick step like a foreigner, so we need the background first." As shown in Table 4.2.1, she and the class used Thai when the work involved new target language structures, and she then collected all student work and corrected these structures by herself, outside of class time. The class then changed and spoke in English to work on previously studied language points, for review sessions within class time. At the same time the class also changed over to use the new self and peer correction method. Noi explained in her interview that she felt compelled to set up her class this way, particularly for the sake of weaker students, as they could not use the new correction method in English on new language points, '...we have to teach slower and slower and go back Thai to English, then it is easy to do method of yours.'

Noi felt that the weaker students needed the extra support that came in the form of using Thai, their L1, when instruction was given on new language points in English. She considered that this approach was less

threatening for weaker students, even though it meant going slowly. English was used for review purposes on known or previously studied language points. She did this because she felt that if she had attempted to use the new method on new target language items, the weakest students in the class would not have understood and would have derived little or no benefit from the corrections. Weaker students furthermore would have become confused and perhaps would have been disadvantaged and been left further behind the rest of the class. In effect this meant that the entire class used Thai, their L1 initially, when dealing with all new language points in English.

Unlike the class in Baotou, Noi's class smaller numbers (30 students) and physical class space were easier to manage and she was not forced to adopt other strategies to cope with the correction load. Therefore she was able to organize her class in a way that allowed any weak student to access the assistance of any stronger peer to help with corrections of written errors and relevant explanations using their L1, Thai. This allowed all students to become involved in the correction process, during regular class time. Also, any student who had all the correct answers could take on the correcting role, in keeping with how the method was originally designed. Also, since students were not restricted by being placed in set groups they therefore did not have to wait for their particular team leader to finish in order to have their writing checked and corrected, but could readily access anyone who was free to assist them.

4.3 Emergent Themes

The remainder of this chapter will address research question 2, concerning the teachers involved and what their beliefs about these adaptations were. From the transcripts of their interviews, three main themes were identified., They included the use of time, student confidence and student improvement. While these themes will be examined separately, comparisons between the views of both participants will be included for each.

4.3.1 Time

This section focuses on Suki's and Noi's beliefs concerning how time was used doing peer correction work in both of the classrooms. This theme will examine the saving of time, and use of class time. First I will

discuss what was done in Suki's class in Baotou, and then second what happened in Noi's class in Bangkok. Quotes from both the teacher and student interviews will be included to illustrate the points made.

In class Suki mentioned that more time was devoted to self-correction and peer marking of writing and homework. The time saved was actually Suki's teacher time, "it definitely saved a lot of my time…I mean for other things, other than marking, you know monotonously those sentences or any writing assignments." The main finding for Suki appears to be that she thought it was a great time-saver for her as she was able to avoid the tedium of marking with its series of highly repetitive answers: "In the past I used to take all their homework back to my office and sit there and spend at least an hour to mark and it is not only time consuming but also all the nights I've stayed back l think it's a little stupid because I'm the one who is getting the practice." Suki did not actually specify what the saved time outside of class was used for. Inside class Suki said she often lost track of time, and the class actually spent more time correcting. This was done to the extent that she would allow the peer correction sessions to go on for long periods of time in the classroom and more than once became so involved, she actually lost track of time, "in a forty minute class very often I would be carried away and spending too much time on this." At this point Suki realized that she had spent too much class time on using the peer correction technique. So, it appears there were occasions when Suki did not adhere closely to her class schedule, and the length of time spent on error correction sessions in class varied, which appears to have been more of a spontaneous decision than a planned event.

So while she saved time for herself, actual class time spent on error correction increased over what it had been previously. This comment shows some contradictory beliefs, for on the one hand Suki found there was a direct benefit in the amount of time she saved, but on the other hand she became so absorbed with peer correction she lost track of time in class. Suki felt the students were content, that they were able to locate their errors rapidly and with less effort than in the past "…they were quite happy that they can get problems solved quickly and easily." There was a sense of progress being achieved as students became more capable of locating and correcting errors for themselves. This allowed the class teacher more free time "the teacher can just really sit back and see how they progress and improve," as students corrected their homework in class.

Noi expressed a similar notion as Suki's when she commented that the best thing about the use of the

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method was that it saved her time and she did not have to stay at school late marking, "I prefer this style because it can reduce my time." Once again the comment refers to teacher time saved, that allowed the teacher discretion to pursue other options, "You save lots of time. You can finish, and I can… do anything that I wish." However, like Suki, once again the teacher did not specify what was done with the time the teacher saved. Noi decided that using class time that involved all students was preferable to leaving all the corrections in the hands of one teacher. However, unlike Suki, Noi went into detail and qualified her statement when she said that setting up the class to run more peer correction required an initial investment of time. This investment in time was predicated by the need to offer support for weaker students, by getting stronger students more involved in peer correction, a point that will be taken up later under the theme of student improvement. Student improvement was dependent on having sufficient class time to complete the work, and Noi was conscious of the need for a methodical approach, "they will get better, it's slow, so I think it's a good way, but it takes time." The need for a cautious approach and slow pace was because the rate of improvement in her class was determined by the weakest students, "If I have the stronger students, I can go faster, but if I have more weaker students I have to be slower." In reference to the speed of rate of improvement Suki said of the weaker students, "this is how I feel, I think they are less intimidated… they ask another student, and they can get things faster… in the sense they can… it's just so easy." This comment indicates that since weaker students now got things faster, the speed at which the entire class improved was also faster than previously.

However Noi considered the initial investment in time concerning these adaptations was worth it, because it was, "faster than if I always use the old method, it takes time but we will adapt together, it's good." Correction using traditional techniques was more labour intensive and time consuming for Noi, "with the old one, when the person give me everything I have to check. I have to go home late…" indicating that previously corrections had been made by the teacher after class was finished. However, although written error correction still took up class time, this was still more efficient, than leaving all corrections up to one person, the teacher, "…just your method, so quick, faster than if I always use the old method it takes time," as the entire class was involved in the process. Also, as students became more familiar with the routine of how to correct, they became more efficient in terms of doing the correction work quicker, "…when they know how to do it they gonna help

each other quickly." However, since peer correction was mostly used on previously studied and known language points, prior knowledge of the structures and repeated exposure may have been a factor in the increase of speed.

4.3.2 Student Confidence

In this section I will examine Suki's and Noi's beliefs about confidence in terms of student anxiety, relationships, classroom dynamics, and lastly autonomy and how these aspects of the theme affected support for students in class. Firstly I will consider these aspects in relation to the class in Baotou and then secondly compare the quotes with findings from Noi's class in Bangkok.

I define confidence as an inner belief by students in their and others' ability to perform. Suki said her students were cautious initially, "they're not used to it, because this is not what they have been taught, or what I have used in the past." Adapting the method to increase peer correction was also a novel experience for Suki as it was her "first time to try something different, in the classroom." She considered the gain in student confidence a key outcome of using more peer correction. Suki gave a qualified comment that she thought confidence took priority over speed or outcome, "I consider this more important than perhaps if they are faster or they are more successful." In her interview Suki mentioned psychological effects three times. In the first instance these effects were seen as a barrier to communication, "they feel that they have to sort of… overcome this psychological um stress," she also considered that there was still a gulf for weaker students to overcome that inhibited and held them back from seeking help from the teacher. In the other instances she mentioned that anxiety levels were reduced for weaker students who saw it was less threatening to approach friends and other classmates, and the general classroom atmosphere among students improved, "…they feel psychologically or emotionally more confident and comfortable, I consider that as a great success." Suki also acknowledged an improvement in the classroom atmosphere was a benefit to weaker students, "…so if they are asking a student they get problems solved much quicker, and, um, they are therefore… they feel a lot more successful."

Suki pointed out that confidence levels were not a problem for stronger students like the team leaders, "…the quicker ones they are so used to the way they learn things, they're smart, they're sharp, they understand(s) everything, they just get it." Initially when asked about the confidence levels of weaker students

Suki replied, if they are asking a student they get problems solved much quicker, and, they feel a lot more successful." Here success for the weaker students was based on solutions being found quicker, when they worked with a stronger peer. Suki made a comment regarding a belief that it was easier to see improvement in stronger students than it was in weaker students, although this remark was based on the teacher's perception and was not measured in any way, "I think students definitely more… confident, especially the ones who were more able to help others. " She said that the status quo within the class had largely been maintained, "…it seems that it has always been a few good students with better language ability to be the helpers." Since she had already divided her entire class into teams with stronger students appointed as team leaders, this finding is not surprising, as she may have had more interaction with stronger students in their regular monitoring roles and duties in class and so noticed them more. Suki also commented that she no longer marked the set homework, "I don't mark them because they have gotten used to checking and marking each others." This quote showed that relationships among students changed as they become more familiar with working together, and knew in advance from routine action what was expected of them.

    While the status of individual students within the class may have remained mostly unchanged, the dynamics in the classroom were modified as the whole class was exposed to a new and novel learning technique: "as an experiment it's quite exciting for students to, experience such a way of teaching and learning." Suki's perception of the change in classroom dynamic was also reflected in her comment: "this method is revolutionary in the way that it really gets the students to do the work."

    Students became less self-conscious and more willing to overcome their personal inhibitions; as the correction task gained prominence individuals shifted their focus from being reluctant to take part, to become more task oriented. Suki said they were: "progressing to a different level, where they will let who ever they are sitting with. I'm hoping for, you know, new developments," the new developments being the positive new student relationships that would be formed, from working with whom ever they are sitting with. However, a predictable pattern emerged which was consistent with the way in which her class was organized. Regardless of who finished first with correct answers it: "seems that it has always been a few good students with better language ability to be the helpers." As team leaders were assigned the role of providing peer correction, and they had been identified as stronger students, this was not an unexpected result.

In answer to a question asking her opinion on what had been the single, best about increasing peer correction in her class, Suki replied that it was an increase in the "students comfort level, and their confidence level. I mean two things basically. One, they're comfortable. Two, they're more confident… because for the experience they have. If you evaluate the result you may not see difference, however on an experiential level, I… I am really happy that they are experiencing this at a … at a young age, to work with each other. "

Giving students chances to work with peers in a non-threatening environment, gave them an increase in confidence as psychological barriers were lowered, and they became more independent. Suki was adamant that her students were growing in confidence, they became more willing to seek peer help according to her, as they overcame one of the psychological barriers, or one of Krashen's affective filters, "Definitely they have more confidence, it's successful, and easier and quicker and less intimidating basically." This comment was supported by the view of a student, who said, "I was not so threatened since my work is marked by my classmates." Weaker students were given options about who to work with and chose according to their individual levels of personal confidence, "sometimes they would ask their peers, and sometimes they would come to me." Suki's comments were not supported by an observable increase in speed of improvement, as weaker students did not find their errors any quicker, "in terms of learning they would still be slow and make mistakes." She maintained that there was no, "…noticeable improvement because of their age… they're going to be grade five, I think they will be more conscious, of their errors now." While Suki attributed a possible improvement in ability due to maturation of her students, improvement could also be attributed to repeated exposure to peer correction, or a combination of maturation and regular exposure.

In contrast to Suki, Noi chose to focus on the confidence of the weaker students, encouraged them to become more involved in the class, **"**I always put them… so the slower ones or the weaker one can find the answer and so be proud," this attempt to build the self image of weaker students was seen as necessary. Without giving them a measure of success, slower or weaker students may perhaps have been less willing to join in. In Noi's class student confidence grew slowly, as a result of working first on known material. The students expressed their preferences, "the traditional is good for grammar… but when they know how to use the sentence already they prefer to use your method to find that they can check up." Allowing students to express a preference on issues that can affect their performance is one way to lower their anxiety levels. By way of

comparison Suki did not revert to her previous error correction method, instead she applied the new method in other ways, to cover different language skills and subjects, which will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

In the class in Bangkok, Noi's students assisted each other, new relationships were formed and there was a sense of fun being had as students learned how to correct their errors and strived to succeed, "they help each other, the friendships, the learning, they funny, how to find the best answer." A sense of camaraderie grew as stronger students developed a sense of responsibility towards weaker peers and became more involved in finding ways to help others, "they pay attention what I'm going to teach today and how they can help their friends." Increased peer correction of written errors increased the amount of student interaction, and students were more willing to work together as motivation grew and the atmosphere in the class was positive, "…(they are) enthusiastic to do this. They're good in reaction about this method." This comment recalls Suki's positive comment regarding her belief that "students (were) definitely more… confident. " Noi observed that stronger students exhibited confidence when they worked with their weaker peers as when one student said "I told you already if correct I check correct, already and the stronger one (*says*) 'You have to do like this,'" Noi's quote of a student comment was evidence of a competent peer in action, providing a scaffold for weaker students. As previously shown, in Suki's class weaker students also had their confidence levels increased, as working with stronger students enabled them to find solutions quicker and enhanced their feelings of success.

Noi was conscious of a lack of confidence among her weaker students acting as a strong affective filter operating in her class. She was initially protective of the students and methodical in her set up when she introduced peer correction in order to instill student confidence and later autonomy: "I have to explain everything and let them understand step by step and then change." This was done to provide students with the required basic procedural knowledge. Then when students knew what to do, she changed the classroom dynamic as she allowed students to work independently. Noi noted another benefit for students, "it is good when they have a problem they can help each other." When students cooperated more a change in the classroom dynamic was manifested. Like Noi's class, Suki's students were also motivated and excited to experience a new approach to dealing with their written errors. Every student interviewed in Noi's class mentioned that the use of peer correction was a good and positive thing, three students mentioned that it was a good way to practice English

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with friends, and two of the six students mentioned helping others. Students made no mention of working with their teacher. A similar change in classroom dynamics occurred in Baotou. When three students were asked who had helped them the most in correcting their work, all three nominated another student, not their teacher.

4.3.3 Student Improvement.

In this theme I will explore what Suki and Noi believed concerning the theme of student improvement and three related sub themes; unconscious, cooperative and conscious. One significant comment by Suki focused on the importance of students making a link to previously acquired knowledge, while Noi focused on what language was used, and when and how stronger students could help weaker students improve. Suki also commented on the importance of collaborative learning but not to the same extent as Noi, and without drawing attention to the issue of stronger and weaker students.

Suki reported an observation which she thought was important concerning increased student concentration levels,"…the *biggest* thing maybe that they realize that they make errors unconsciously sometimes, because as I point out their errors they go 'Oh, I learned this." The student reply showed that they did not see the error correction as a threat, and is evidence of Schmidt's noticing theory in action. Suki's point was supported by a comment from a student in Baotou, "Finding and correcting errors by ourselves can help us to remember things." Once an error was found in this way it triggered other memories from previous lessons, while another student recalled, "Marking others' papers not only helped people but also helped us with our study," as reviewing answers assisted both parties.

Suki decided to extend the application of increased peer correction into other English skills, and other subjects such as Chinese and mathematics, in order to promote cooperative learning. As she explained "I was thinking that I may also use this with a speaking practice." Students worked in pairs or collaborated in their small groups and became involved in assessing each other. The speakers developed a sense of a wider audience beyond the teacher, while their peers functioned as active listeners, "Having another pair of students to listen and sort of evaluate*, other than say you,*" *(the teacher*). Students were given a definite task and reason to develop their listening skills. As a result students' concentration on task improved: "students are more alert,

because they know that I'm not the one who's listening and checking." Suki impressed on students the need to take their new role seriously "…they need to be listening carefully. They would be asked to find out the errors when others speak." Here the students were given a real purpose for listening, as they were actively involved in the assessment process, as a result they had to listen more critically in order to grade each other fairly and accurately. Eventually the students took over more of the error correction process, "I would maybe ask a pair to talk, to have a dialogue, and then maybe ask another pair to listen and have them replace what they hear." This critical listening became a regular activity that Suki, "thought would be great and in fact I have used this very often in my class now."

There was also evidence that some students were fully aware of what they were doing and actively applied error correction in a conscious way to their learning. One of Suki's students referred to an effect of increased self-correction: "I am more self disciplined in finding my own mistakes, as well as memorizing and mastering what I've learned." Here the student had sought out the errors, noticed them and then focused on correcting them. As students in Baotou became more familiar with the process of peer correction they became more involved also, as another student said, 'Most classmates have helped me with various writing assignments at school,' a statement which indicated that many students cooperated in the production of written pieces and supported Suki's earlier claim, "They all know what to do." While another student talked about the willingness of a classmate to assist, I once asked my desk mate to help me spell an English word, she was willing to help, I was able to complete the sentence."

While Suki chose to focus on the importance of students' linking to prior knowledge, Noi turned her attention more towards developing cooperative learning strategies, what language was used at different stages, and when and how stronger students could help the weaker students improve. Suki did focus on the importance of cooperative learning but not to the same extent as Noi and without drawing attention to the issue of stronger and weaker students. Noi's comments made no reference to unconscious acts of learning on the part of her students.

For weaker students Noi made the conscious decision to apply some academic pressure, and at the same time also provided assistance in the form of a more competent peer, "for the weaker, I have to try to push them like this, and maybe find someone who is stronger to help them." The need for speed was seen as secondary as

Noi initially sought to ensure student understanding, "Its gonna confuse at first, when we use this one, I'm finally gonna use DIY Self. Have to explain everything, let them understand step by step, then change." For the class in Bangkok, the transition from teacher based error correction to doing more peer correction was a gradual process. To lessen the chances of students becoming confused, Noi first introduced new language points in Thai, and switched to using English for practice purposes on known language points, "…sure that I use this method so we have to teach Thai, slower and go back to English." Speaking practice was also augmented with flashcards, "teach the lesson first, then use a (flash) card or structure." Noi was cautious in her approach "because we are (have) Thai students we have to attend more to let (help) them understand each sentence." While Suki on the other hand saw no, "…noticeable improvement because of their age," she predicted that students would improve: "they're going to be grade five, I think they will be more conscious, of their errors now."

In answering a question concerned with how she would adapt the method in future classes, Noi spoke about what she did in the class during the research period, 'I adapt, you know because we are Thai students, so we have to teach at least to Thai, slower and slower and go back Thai to English, and then it is easy to do method of yours." Once they knew how to use peer correction, Noi's students made an informed, conscious choice and expressed their preference for the new technique since they had experienced both methods, "when they know how to use the sentence… they prefer to use your method to check." This was in contrast to Suki in Baotou who, besides written error correction, adapted the method to promote more cooperative learning in speaking and listening exercises, Chinese, and mathematics.

Noi judged an increase in student interaction as a positive outcome, "it is good when they have a problem they can help each other The most important point Noi made was that she saw the increase in peer correction, as evidence of cooperative learning being used as a strategy to assist student learning, "…the other thing that I know about this method is, they know, they know how to help each other… they know how to like, learn for themselves." This comment recalls Suki's phrase "Oh, I learned this," which she said was maybe the biggest thing students realized when she pointed out errors they made unconsciously sometimes. This was a point reinforced by a comment from a student in Bangkok who liked the mutual assurance they received as they worked with friends to find and treat errors, "DIY is good for me and my friends, to help each other to learn to correct the sentence."

4.4 Summary of Results

Although Suki and Noi operated in different level classes, in different cities and countries, their comments touched on some common points of interest. This chapter has examined how they adapted the method to their own contexts and the needs of their students. It has also examined in depth three themes, which emerged from the data. Those three themes were the use of time, student confidence, and lastly student improvement. The themes have been examined in detail, and quotes from both teachers have been used to support the observations made on the themes, quotes from students involved in the research have also been included where appropriate.

Chapter 5. Discussion

5.1 Introduction.

The research findings presented in this chapter were related to the research questions posed in Chapter 4. These findings were examined in light of previous research in the literature, as discussed in Chapter 2. The present study investigated the practices of two teachers in two different East Asian contexts, and also their preferences regarding the use of a technique that promoted an increase in self and peer written error correction. The primary source of data to address the two research questions was collected through semi-structured interviews of the participating teachers, supported by comments collected from interviews of randomly selected students in their respective classes.

The interviews were then examined, summarized and discussed regarding the findings of this study. The previous chapter presented the results of this study according to each research question and discussed the research in relation to three emergent themes: the use of time, student confidence and student improvement. This chapter provides a brief discussion of the results, some of the implications for teachers in East Asia in general, and larger classes in particular. The chapter will conclude this investigation with some recommendations that outline suitable areas for further research on the effects of promoting more self and peer written error correction.

5.2 Summary of Results

While this intervention operated at two different class levels, and in two unrelated contexts the results contain some common points. Both teachers remarked about how promoting the use of self correction allowed them more time in and out of class, however neither teacher commented on what they did with this extra time. Noi and Suki also remarked on an increase in interaction in the class and also an increase in confidence and writing improvement in some students.

These results indicate that even young students are able to render assistance to peers in need, and are willing to get involved in using co-operative learning strategies. Suki's team leaders stepped in to provide assurance and show weaker peers how to correct their errors. However it must be pointed out that these team

leaders were already accustomed to a leadership role, nevertheless they fulfilled the requirements of Bruner's theory (op. cit.) by providing the necessary scaffold for others to build on. Likewise providing students with an indication of what they had correctly written, allowed them to then shift their focus to noticing more errors, and is consistent with Schmidt's (op. cit.) theory.

Promoting the use of more self and peer correction in the classroom gives teachers more free time, even if this is not free class time. While Suki and Noi both mentioned saving time was an advantage, neither talked extensively about what they did with this extra free time, apart from Suki's comment in passing about being able to sit back and see how students are progressing, and Noi saying that she did not have to go home late. However it should be noted that with more time available, there is potential for teachers to observe more, and do more planning and preparation as they reflect on the nature and purpose of student writing tasks (Harmer as cited in Ping Wang, 2010, p 201), or they could consider different error treatments (Ferris, 2004).

Results from the present study suggest that the participating teachers considered an increase in the use of self and peer correction in their classes was beneficial to their students for various reasons. Many of those reasons had to with increasing student confidence and an improvement in the different ways students related to each other during peer correction sessions. Neither teacher mentioned any measurably improved academic performance, but insisted that class atmosphere, friendships and class dynamics had all been altered, and for the better. Both teachers continued to use more self and peer correction in their classes after the research period ended, and have continued to use it ever since.

The use of peer correction is particularly relevant to large classes in Asia, where weaker students may not be given as much time to receive individual instruction from their class teachers. There is a natural tendency for teachers to see the work of more competent students first, as they finish set tasks quicker, and so seek error correction feedback, sooner. It could be argued that, as in Baotou with the team leaders, the status of stronger students is being enhanced in the classroom by this tendency. As a result a perceptible form of student hierarchy is being maintained, since it was usually the same, select few students who were perceived by the classroom teacher and also other students, as having more knowledge. As a result the status of stronger students within the class became entrenched, while weaker students could possibly have perceived their lower status within the

class as being reinforced.

By promoting peer correction any student has the opportunity to become one of those assisting with corrections. When students deliver explanations to their peers, the language level and load is more appropriate for weaker students, and is easier to understand. As Suki pointed out, these corrections are also less threatening than those originating from the teacher, as weaker students in her class had more access to their established team leader peers to assist them, and were thus able to receive help or opinions more readily.

Such promotion of self and peer correction, sees a shift in the focus of the class, with extra options now available for students seeking assistance, the teacher moves from being the first and only resort for answers, to being the final and last resort. Teachers with large class numbers in Asia and elsewhere struggle to correct all the written errors of students during class time. They also believe that their efforts are often not effective, as students continue to make errors in their writing even after corrections are made (Lee, 2003). It is therefore a pressing issue in large classes to develop other methods to make more use of the available resources within the classroom, in order to provide extra help to the weaker students. That resource is the other, more competent peers who have already demonstrated their ability, by having all correct answers and coming to the aid of the weaker students. Concentrating more on self and peer correction which utilizes simpler explanations and negotiated meaning, moves students away from a strict reliance on explicit knowledge of grammar rules to affect error correction, rules which are inconsistent and can be confusing for beginners.

This study found that self and peer written correction was considered to be a positive intervention on the part of the teachers involved. Suki for example talked about this shift in the focus of the class, as students now got more of the necessary practice at finding and treating errors in a shorter amount of time using this method. This was practice that she felt she did not need, and she mentioned that she found the constant repetition monotonous; thus the possibility of correction fatigue becoming a factor for teachers could be avoided. With large classes written error correction fatigue could become more of a factor for teachers late at night, as they can miss errors, or make errors of their own. Also the amount of available time can impact on the type of error correction techniques used. This appears a reasonable proposition considering the amount of time consumed by error correction (Lee, 2003). Marking errors occupies a large amount of the teacher's time and increases as

teachers mark student writing in higher level classes, a task they sometimes find exhausting (ibid).

As the entire class was involved in the process of finding errors and correcting them, class time could be saved, as this is quicker than one person doing all the error correction. Error correction in writing takes time to complete however; whether it is all done outside of class time by the teacher. or inside the class by the students. On the one hand if correction work is done in class using more self and peer correction methods, then it will take up more class time than if the teacher does all the correction outside of class time. On the other hand if the teacher corrects all errors outside of class time, explanations of corrections made by the teacher are delayed, and there may or may not be time for adequate follow up with students to discuss during a later class. However, the findings of one study suggest that a delay in receiving correction feedback may not matter (Sheen, 2010). When peer corrections are done in class, the verbal explanations can be immediate, and followed up with written explanations as required. Once students become more used to regular peer correction sessions, the process can be streamlined and the amount of class time used can be reduced. Noi alluded to this with her comments about how setting up peer correction involved an initial investment of time; but that once students became familiar with the correction process they found errors quicker.

By comparison Suki made some contradictory comments concerning how she and her class often became so involved in the process of correcting written errors, and what they were doing, that she actually lost track of time because she found the method absorbing and efficient to use. However, she did not consider the extra time used in class as wasted, as more correction was completed, thus saving her time marking after class. It could also be argued that the reason Suki lost track of time was because the entire class was highly engaged in the process of correcting written work. This was the only comment Suki made on this issue, so no firm conclusion can be drawn on this point.

Suki's belief in the importance of increasing self and peer correction in her class was consistent throughout her interview. She understood that giving weaker students more chances to work with others on their written errors on a regular basis meant those weaker students would develop the confidence to trust that stronger students would assist them when called on to help with error corrections and explanations as required. She was adamant that there was a positive change in the students who were definitely more confident, especially the team

leaders, those ones who were more able to help others. She identified a gain in student confidence as one of the key outcomes of increased self and peer correction, and she considered this was more important than an increase in pace or accuracy. For Suki the increase in confidence was an important measure of student improvement, this could be because Suki considered the emotional wellbeing of her students as a basic foundation upon which they built confidence. Furthermore, results of this study suggest that the preferences of students regarding written error correction were in accordance with the methods employed by their respective teachers.

In Baotou, Suki reported that students were excited to try something new and novel, whereas the teacher saw the greater use of peer correction as revolutionary. In the class in Bangkok, Noi adapted the method to suit the level of her students, and they responded by embracing the new method and using it in the way it was originally intended. Such adaptations were seen as necessary and could be important for weaker students who might feel more inhibited and less comfortable, or perceive themselves as being caught in a bind. While they were in need of more help than others, without local adaptations like those Noi introduced to her class in Bangkok, weaker students may also have been less likely to seek help from the teacher, thus perpetuating or even widening the knowledge gap between themselves and the more able students in the rest of the class, in a cycle of negative reinforcement. One of the goals of introducing more self and peer correction of writing is to maintain student confidence, or in the case of weaker students helping them to rebuild lost confidence. Noi touched on the issue of rebuilding student confidence when she said she structured her classes in such a way that weaker students could find the answers they were seeking and feel a measure of pride from achieving some success.

The results of this study suggest that the teacher participants' perceptions specifically of grammatical errors were influenced by their own beliefs about how the students responded to the use of more peer correction in their classes. It appears from comments in the student interviews that they were not threatened by the verbal explanations given by their peers, on the written corrective feedback on their work. This is possibly because corrections were affected sooner, and the confirmation of correct answers on known items led to an affirmation of what students already knew, which then gave them a basis to extrapolate about errors committed on new language items. Explanations given to them concerning the corrections, were not difficult to comprehend as the

language used to explain the errors came from their peers, and in some cases their friends, and "peer feedback is pitched more at the learner's level of development or interest and is therefore more informative than teacher feedback" (Tsui & Ng, 2000, p. 148). Negotiation of corrections, as mentioned in one example by Noi could provide even greater depth of explanation, and allow for even more improvement. On the other hand Suki's comments on weaker students showed it was more difficult to assess their confidence levels, as she said they were still slow and made mistakes in other subjects as well.

5.3 General Implications

Many teachers have long held the belief that students lack the ability to correct their peers due to their lack of language skills (Maio et al. 2006). However there are research findings that show students have the ability to provide each other with useful feedback concerning language usage (Hu, op cit.). From the comments of the two experienced teachers involved in this research project, Suki and Noi, it is clear that they also support the view that students are capable of correcting their own errors and can be trusted to do the same on the errors of other students. Other teachers have expressed a fear that peer correction may pose potential for the development of 'interpersonal problems.' (Brown quoted in Saito & Fujita, 2004, p.48). In this research the opposite appears to be the case from the comments of Suki and Noi, who both made comments on how willing students were to work with each other and accept peer corrections. In addition, they both considered the development of new friendships to be one of the prime benefits of increasing the amount of peer correction in their classrooms. Suki went even further to say that students appeared more relaxed working with each other, as the psychological hurdle of approaching the teacher to receive error correction on their writing was removed, or significantly reduced.

In this investigation errors were occasionally negotiated, and justification was sought, as shown in Noi's story about the weaker student who wanted to know why a sentence was corrected, when they were sure they were right. Students could feel that some answers were being imposed, if stronger students did not articulate their reasoning. In some Asian cultures great belief and confidence is invested in the comments of the teacher who is considered more experienced and is viewed as more authoritative (Zhang, 2008). While students are

likely to consider peer corrections carefully, they are still inclined to follow corrections derived from the teacher due to their higher authority (Tsui & Ng, 2000). Hence teacher comments carry more weight and status and are thought to be of better quality than those of other students (Tsui ibid.). Maintaining harmonious relations that recognize the unstated hierarchy in the class is deemed important, and tradition in China dictates that students should respect their teachers; not challenge them (Hu, 2005).

5.4 Implications for Teaching

Lee (2003) showed that 99% of teachers involved in one piece of research in Hong Kong believed students should learn to locate and correct their own errors. Lee's findings are supported by the teachers involved in this project; as both Suki and Noi expressed confidence in their students being able to locate and correct more errors for themselves. Each time a teacher corrects an error, a student is being denied a learning opportunity; to practice locating and correcting their own errors. Peer correction of written errors is a simple yet effective way to encourage collaborative learning, in which students take on more responsibility for their own progress and development. Students can see the benefits for themselves, and are willing to become involved in assisting their classmates. This technique also provides valuable opportunities for weaker students to receive scaffolding from more competent peers (Hu, 2005). Encouraging students to take a more active and responsible role in their learning, helps develop learner autonomy, as students move from being teacher dependent, to becoming more independent. Such a shift in their learning behaviour benefits them in another way, as it increases their capacity to solve problems by themselves (Tsui & Ng, 2000). Peer correction also has the capacity to focus students' attention and raise awareness of their strengths and weaknesses.

In Baotou Suki adapted the method outlined in Appendix 1, by superimposing her existing classroom organization, over the DIY technique, to better utilize the skills of students previously identified as having higher skill levels, her designated class leaders. In this way she adapted a best practices management principle commonly used in the world of business, to make better use of the students' time in class. While in Bangkok, Noi took a more cautious approach. As there was no such preexisting structure in her class, she geared the error correction to the learning pace of her weakest students, in order to ensure that they were not left behind and

disadvantaged. This caution also manifested itself in a two-step strategy she developed in order to further assist her students. The first step involved teaching new vocabulary and language points using Thai, their L1. While the second step consisted of reviewing known language points in English, in this way self-correction was introduced gradually, and in stages, so that the weaker students would be more involved. Thus, it can be argued that the group leaders in Suki's class and the two steps Noi developed in her class can be identified as planks in Bruner's scaffold.

5.5 Implications for Class Time

While peer correction may take up more class time, as evidenced in the project, the amount of time students spend correcting their errors could be reduced over time, with more practice. Also correcting the errors in class means error treatment happens sooner and feedback is delivered quicker. Suki mentioned that regular error correction was monotonous for the teacher. Correction can be a very tedious experience for the teacher, and demotivating for weaker students (Tuanhau, 2010). She went on further to say, that it was tedious for teachers because they do not need the practice. Regular short error correction sessions, would give students more class time to focus on their errors. By doing all the error correction for them, teachers are denying their students the practice they need.

5.6 Implications for Students

While the class in Baotou was already organized along task based lines, Noi's class in Bangkok was not, yet her class was still able to be trained quickly and adapted to an increase in the amount of self and peer correction. The implication is that any class involved in writing, can be shown how to use more self and peer correction. The comments of Suki in Baotou with a class of more than 50 students successfully performing peer correction on a regular basis, suggests that peer correction can work in large classes. Large class sizes may discourage teachers from assigning sufficient writing practice exercises for homework. As a result some students lose motivation, and the opportunity to confer with individual students is not possible, even though it is considered a highly effective strategy for improving student writing (Xiao, 2007). In a large class the needs of weaker individuals are often ignored, and Chinese and Thai students are shy and not comfortable with asking for

clarification in or out of class (ibid).

The use of peer assessment encourages students to take responsibility for participating in assessment of their classmates. It also challenges the traditional image of the teacher as the sole authority of knowledge in the classroom and allows for possibly changing the usual dissemination of one-way, top down evaluation, from the teacher-to-student, to the more inclusive peer-to-peer evaluation as well. Self and peer correction also encourages the development in students of a sense of text ownership (Tsui & Ng, 2000). This sense of ownership is enhanced through students improving their negotiating skills as they are given opportunities to explain, and are required to justify or clarify their stance on language points (Hu, 2005). One by-product of this phenomenon is that students develop a keener sense of an audience beyond their teacher, as well.

5.7 Results Conclusion

Although it is time consuming for teachers, students want, value and expect all their errors to be corrected, in order to revise their writing, and make improvements (Chandler, 2003; Lee, 2003). However, this is not always easy for a teacher to accomplish in large classes, such as in China, where classes of sixty are common, and in some remote area approach close to one hundred.

However written errors do not always have to be corrected by the teacher, others in the class, in the form of more competent peers could provide corrections for weaker students. Suki demonstrated that she was successfully able to organize her class of more than fifty grade four students, to quickly carry out peer correction. Dividing her class into small teams, where the more competent students were already established as team leaders, meant that the correction workload was shared more evenly across the entire class, and did not reside in just one place, the classroom teacher. By getting more students involved in the error correction process, teachers are changing the dynamics of their classes, as more students become actively involved in the correction process.

5.8 Areas for Future Research

One particular area of interest for future research concerns a refinement of peer correction to promote more negotiation and guided self-correction. The present method was designed as a two-step approach, self-correction followed by explicit peer correction, with no distinction between implicit and explicit approaches. However it would be possible to set up this intermediate stage, to promote even more self-correction. Currently, students who are unable to correct errors independently after two extra attempts, receive explicit correction from their peers. However, implicit error correction could be used first, to give them another chance to notice errors, thus learning how to make their own corrections, and would be more consistent with Schmidt's (1994) theory which stipulates that more competent peers can act as models by providing guidance for weaker learners (See Appendix 10, Stages of the DIY Self correction technique).

The addition of a middle stage would require training of students. During the research period students doing the correction for others practiced explicit correction. Explicit written feedback strategies are easier, more direct, and more popular in promoting peer correction. Implicit methods of providing written error correction would need more time and effort to be developed. Using an intermediate step, students with errors would be guided to problematic areas rather than simply told or shown what their errors are. Instead the student with the error could ask two or three questions, to discover the error. Such an intermediate stage could also promote more negotiation between students, as weaker students would seek more explanations and reasoning, and both students could gain from deriving a shared meaning. Weaker students would gain more attention, while their questions would allow a more specific, individual approach to be tailored to their need.

The previous chapter discussed findings from the current research, and this chapter has outlined some of the implications of those findings concerning the use of peer correction in writing. While those findings may contribute to our understanding of how students may improve their writing through the noticing and treatment of written errors, there are limitations on the scope of the research and these will now be identified. The project was limited by time, the sample size, scope of the participants, amount and type of data, and correction method investigated. There was also a logistical issue; as the researcher and participants were in separate countries,

hence there was limited opportunity for face-to-face communication once the research project commenced.

The use of this technique shows that increasing the amount of self and peer correction in writing in large EFL classes is achievable. The successful implementation of regular error correction sessions in class relies on organization, adaptation to meet local needs and the willing cooperation of the students involved in the process. This investigation was limited to two isolated case studies. The small scale of the research means that the findings of this investigation are obviously very limited, and may not be transferable or generalized to other settings. It is suggested that further research on this issue needs to be undertaken over a longer period of time and concentrate on comparing and contrasting multiple, large classes. Questionnaires could also be used to elicit more information on student preferences from whole classes, to make the findings more generalizable. As succinctly stated by Tuanhua (2010, p. 76),"Errors should always be seen as learning tools".

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Appendix 1: Outline of the Do It Your SELF Correction Technique

       The following slide show was developed for a workshop given to an elementary school in Sanzao, Guangdong, in 2012. The focus questions on slide two, were used as an introduction to the topic. The teachers then discussed their error correction practices, which were elicited and summarized. These same questions were then discussed with both teachers involved in the research, Suki and Noi, prior to the commencement of the project, to contrast what their then current practices were, with the DIY technique that promotes self and peer correction.

Slide 1

> **Appendix 1.**
>
> **Outline of the Do It Your SELF Correction Technique**
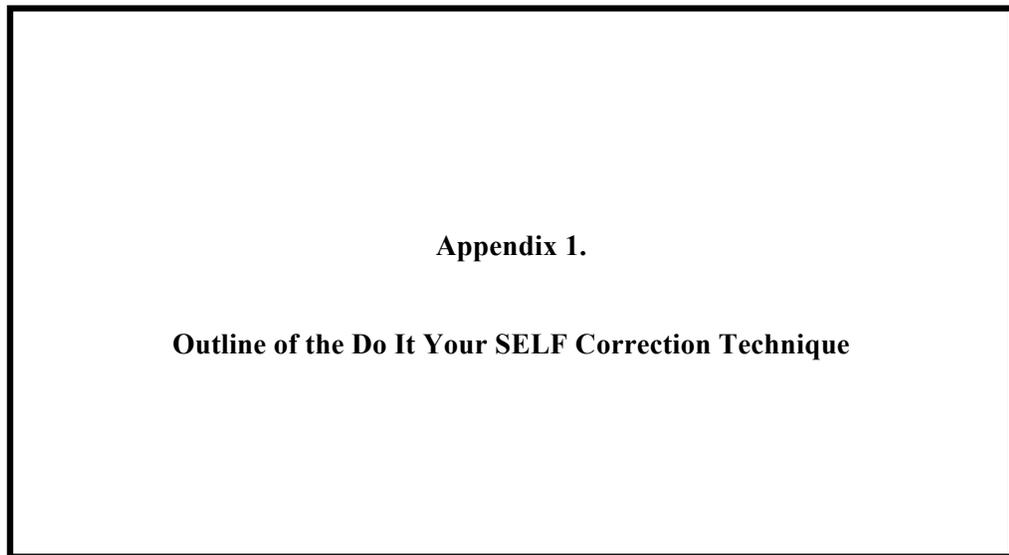
Slide 2

Error treatment: How do you correct writing?

Introduction: Focus Questions.

1. Who does most of the correction in English language classes?

2. Where is most correction done?

3. Who needs to do the corrections, in order to acquire language?

4. Why is there a disparity between what is done and what we want ?

5. How much notice is taken of teacher corrections?

6. How do we change this mind set?

Slide 3

Task: How would you correct these common errors?

1. l have ever been to Bali.   **2. l eated it all up.**

3. Where are you come from?   **4. l am very hunger.**

5. l am boring with this class.   **6. John is go home.**

7. The old man is walking.   **8. Your hat is in the car.**

9. This movie is very fun.   **10. How much is they?**

Slide 4

- **Please note that in most of the above examples, there is more than one possible correct sentence. How can we correct these sentences without knowing what the student intends? We need to know more, about what the student is trying to express before we can correct the error. Many teachers do not do this. They correct based on an assumed meaning.**

Slide 5

Consider that the above sentences are 'almost' correct, or more correct than they are wrong. Yet many teachers tend to emphasize the errors, thus students tend to focus on what is wrong as well, rather than on what they are getting right, which can lead to an increase in anxiety.

Slide 6

Giving students more time to think, allows them to order their thoughts more, put them together in more precise ways.

Newly or partially learned vocabulary is not as accessible as previously known words, so we should give students both more time and opportunities to access newly acquired vocabulary.

Slide 7

How can we get students to pay more attention to corrections in their writing?

Slide 8

Proposition 1.

Students will take more notice of corrections when they make the

corrections.

Slide 9

In order for students to make the corrections themselves, the DIY Self

correction technique requires them to pay more attention to their writing.

In effect they are being given more opportunities to notice their errors.

Slide 10

Once students begin to correct more of their written work the errors change status, they are not things to be feared, rather they become problems to solve.

When students begin to correct more of their own work, they take on more responsibility for their own learning.

Slide 11

As a result they gain more confidence in using their abilities and skills.

They also become willing to share their learning experiences with other students.

Slide 12

Introducing the DIY SELF correction method.

Slide 13

1. When students submit their written work each correct sentence is given a tick. Any errors are not corrected.

2. Students are then told to try again, and are given another chance to self-correct errors before returning for feedback.

3. The same steps are followed, ticks are given for correct sentences, errors are not corrected.

4. Students can return for a third attempt, if they like.

Slide 14

5. Students, who have corrected their own writing and have complete error-free sentences, are now considered 'more competent peers'.

6. Students are given 2 extra chances to find errors and promote self correction. Students unable to correct errors after two extra attempts are considered to be in need of assistance and directed to peers with perfect scores.

Slide 15

7. Students can choose which peer they want to consult with over their work. Explanations are allowed in the students' L1.

8. Two or more students engaged in peer correction work form a workstation.

9. Student with all correct sentences run the workstations.

10. These students use the same techniques to check work, ticking correct answers, any errors are not corrected initially.

Slide 16

11. Discussion of errors in L1 between peers, is allowed.

12. The more competent student explains what is wrong.

13. The student with the errors makes the corrections.

14. At the end of class, the teacher then collects all student work for a final quick check.

Slide 17

15. In large classes in Asia, with 50 + students, multiple workstations can be set up within a single class.

16. Multiple workstations save more class time.

17. They also allow students more choices about who they want to work with, regarding their written errors.

18. Teachers can access the work of weaker students, by requesting to see the work of any particular student.

Appendix 2: Questions about the Do It Your SELF error correction technique for teachers.

1. What has been the overall effect of using this method in your classroom?

2. Have students taken on more responsibilities for their own learning, using this method?

3. In your opinion what has been the single, biggest change in the classroom since students started using this method?

4. Have students shown less or more confidence in their writing using this method, compared to using previous (traditional) correction methods?

5. What, if anything, has this method done for the risk taking ability of your students' writing?

6. How have weaker students responded to using this method?

7. How have stronger students responded to using this method?

8. Has this method led to more interaction among students in the classroom?

9. If so, what has been the nature and quality of the interaction?

10. Are students likely to ask more peers for help than previously?

11. Do you now have more (or less) time to spend with weaker students seeking writing assistance?

12. How have your classes managed themselves while using this method?

13. In what ways, if any, has the use of this method had an effect on classroom management?

14. What has been the effect on student writing accuracy using this method? (Have error counts decreased?)

15. What has been the effect on student writing fluency using this method? (Are students writing more?)

16. In your opinion how do students now view the issue of error correction?

17. In your opinion how do students view new writing tasks?

18. Do you prefer to use traditional error correction methods or the DIY SELF method?
(Please explain reasons for your preference.)

19. Will you continue to use this method in the future?

20. Which method do you believe students prefer to use? Please explain why?

21. In your opinion, what has been the single, best thing about using this method?

22. What drawbacks if any have there been using this method?

23. Do you have any stories that illustrate students are able to successfully use the method?

24. Have students made any particular comments about using this method? lf so, please share them.

25. Were some weaker students able to improve enough to where they could help others in the peer correction stage, or was it always the same students getting help from others?

26. Did some of the weaker students improve and become the first to successfully complete new tasks and then help others?

27. Are there any other things that you noticed in your class about using this method?

28. Is there anything you would do to improve this method?

29. Was there any change in how much students self-corrected after working with peers? If so, was it more or less and how do you account for this change?

30. Were you able to save time by using this method in class?

Appendix 3: Student Interview Questions.

Six students were interviewed in each of the classes, for a total of 12 interviews. Students selected one or two items to answer. As these are young students and beginners in English, two local teachers, not taking part in the project, held their interviews. The interviews were conducted in the students' L1, then translated into English, and sent to the researcher who transcribed them.

Student Interviews:

1. Tell one story of how you got help from another student in class.

2. Tell one story of how you helped another student.

3. What do other students say about using this method.

4. Are you more confident writing in class now?

5. How do you feel about asking for help now?

6. Do you get more help with writing in class now?

7. Who has helped you the most in correcting your work?

Appendix 4A: Transcription of interview, Teacher A, Suki, Baotou, Inner Mongolia

Interviewed via Skype, conducted on Sunday, August 31st 2014, at 8.15 PM

Participants. Researcher (Brad), Teacher A (Suki), Baotou, Inner Mongolia.

Brad: Okay, good evening Suki

Suki: Hello Brad.

Brad: Yes, question number 1. What has been … what has been the overall effect of using this method in your classroom?

Suki: Well, um, as an experiment it's, it's, um quite exciting for students to, to, to experience such a way of teaching and learning, l think. And for me, it is also my first time to try something different, in the classroom. Um, so apart from the excitement in terms of practicality and learning um, er, how do say result? l think students definitely more… confident, especially the ones who were more able to help others.

Brad: Okay. (under)

Suki: Um yeah, that l'd say… l mean, it's, they're not quite used to it, because this is not what they have been taught, or what l have used in the past.

Brad: Sure, sure. Okay, next question, what number?

Suki: Um, number 6.

Brad: Number 6. How have weaker students responded to using this method?

Suki: Um, l think… it's … l mean, this is how l feel, l think they… they are less intimidated… they ask another student, and they sort of… um they can get things faster… in the sense they can… it's just so easy, because if they can't ask me, they feel that they have to sort of… overcome this psychological um stress, if l can say this. But it's, so if they are asking a student they get problems solved much quicker, and, um, they are therefore… they feel a lot more… more successful, or they, were quite happy that they can get problems solved so easily and quickly l think.

Brad: Okay, next question, what number?

Suki: Um, (hesitates, thinking aloud…) Something you can, you can change… where was it? Number 27.

Brad: Alright. Are there any other things that you noticed in your class about using this method?

Suki: Um, because this is towards a writing… writing task, so while using this method, l was thinking that l may also use this with a speaking… um, practice, because not often… as a teacher, or in my case, personally l would jump in and try to correct the students errors when they speak… maybe if they had left out an 's' or they… they can't use past tense correctly, l mean grammatically. So, maybe, perhaps l could um, because of such method basically because of the peer support that is students are able to have, l would probably um … encourage this, when they speak, they... I would maybe ask a pair to talk, to have a dialogue, like A/B dialogue and then maybe ask another pair to listen and have them replace what they hear.

Brad: Okay (under)

Suki: But without me jumping in and correcting their errors.

Brad: Nice.

Suki: That's what l… l was thinking.

Brad: Good, yeah, l…

Suki: Because…

Brad: …hadn't thought of that.

Suki: In my, in my… grade that l was dealing with, grade 4 there's not much, l mean they can write simple sentence, however a lot of what l do in the class, would be speaking and um, the production stages is seeing, like, evaluated when they speak or how much they can talk and how well they can talk.

Brad: Hmm, hmm (under).

Suki: Having another pair of students to listen and sort of like evaluate, other than say… you like, basically (coughs) peer to… to listen (under) not only practices their listening skills but also using this method l thought that would be great and in fact l have used this very often in my class now.

Brad: Good, well that is a great extension. I'm glad that you told me that. Because now l can apply more…

Suki: Um, students are more alert, because they know that l am going to... l'm not the one who's listening and checking. l'm not the… l'm not the… you know the final (indecipherable)… obviously l will, (indecipherable) if they missed out, they that need to be listening carefully. They know that they need to be… they would be asked to… to find out the errors when others speak.

Brad: Okay.

Suki: Yeah.

Brad: Alright, fantastic. Uhm, next question.

Suki: Um 22.

Brad: 22. What drawbacks if any have there been using this method?

Suki: Okay, um. Well l wasn't correcting this work, l was… l would take like ten or fifteen minutes of the class to do the writing assignment. So, l was wondering… instead it felt although (indecipherable) although directly it was up to how much l allowed, how much time l allocate for writing in that class…

Brad: Sure (under).

Suki: … in a forty minute, in a forty minute class very often l would be carried … carried away and spending too much time on this because one way in one way l would love to try this experiment and also students were eager to play it. So, l thought this is my concern and l thought l have been… maybe l still have to work on this. And another thing is for the ones who have helped their peers … for the good ones, they, l mean, they say, they're like quite happy to help, at the beginning, but then they somehow were getting a little, um, how do you say? They just wanted to give the information and go out to play. Do you know what l mean?

Brad: Right, right (under). Yeah, yeah.

Suki: This sense of being there and supporting another one's learning… for kids may not be… like they're still children…

Brad: Sure, they are going to have good days and bad when they want to do different things, and that is understandable.

Suki: Yeah.

Brad: And l think you have to allow for that.

Suki: Well, yeah, sometimes … sometimes personality comes into play, because some would be like… well l don't know whether it is arrogance, or whatever, or maybe selfishness or … which is human, which is fine. They love to finish their assignments and leave the classroom earlier, because they consider that as such an achievement.

Brad: Hmm, hmm (under).

Suki: So l also feel a little like, you know "Oh sorry, can you help… can you help your peers?" You know what l mean?

Brad: Hmm, hmm (in assent). Yeah, yeah. Yeah, l understand. Okay, another question?

Suki: Ah, number 30.

Brad: 30. Were you able to save time by using this method in class?

Suki: Yes, very much so, especially when it comes to marking… marking their papers. Especially their written homeworks, um homework sorry.

Brad: Hmm, hmm (under).

Suki: Because in the past l used to take all their homework back to my office and sit there and spend at least an hour to mark and it is not only time consuming but… but also all the nights l've stayed back l think it's a little stupid because l'm the one who is getting… getting the practice, so…

Brad: Sure (under).

Suki: l really think this method is revolutionary in the way that it really gets the students to do the work and the teacher can just really sit back and see how they progress and improve.

Brad: Okay (under).

Suki: So, l think it definitely saved a lot of my time.

Brad: Okay, and you can use that time for other things, yeah?

Suki: Yeah, absolutely, l mean for other things other than marking, you know monotonously those um…those sentences or any writing assignments. You know?

Brad: Sure.

Suki: Because the teacher doesn't need to… to… to… you know to… to make sure that l know how to say…

Brad: Yes.

Suki: l don't need…

Brad: That's true.

Suki: … the practice.

Brad: It does get tedious. Alright another question. What number would you like?

Suki: Um, number 26.

Brad: 26. Did some of the weaker students improve and become the first to successfully complete new tasks and then help others?

Suki: Um, unfortunately no because in my class it seems that it has always been you know, a few good ones and students with better language ability to… to be… be the helpers.

Brad: Hmm, hmm (under)

Suki: Because you know how some still… they are still sort of weak…

Brad: Hmm, hmm (under).

Suki: ... but … but l still see the (indecipherable) um, some … some change and fundamentally they're… they feel more comfortable psychologically and l… l consider this more important than perhaps um, you know if… if they are faster or … or they are more successful.

Brad: Okay.

Suki: If they feel psychologically or emotionally more… more confident and… and comfortable l consider that as a great success as well.

Brad: So would l. Yeah. Another question?

Suki: So, if we… if l… you know if l… just to answer to the question… unfortunately they are still weak, but l am happy they were able to experience this method.

Brad: Good. Fantastic. Good answer. Thank you. Ah, another question?

Suki: Ah, well l think that is about it. Do you have any questions for me?

Brad: Ah, yeah l'd like number 23. Do you have any stories that illustrate students are able to successfully use the method? Now it doesn't have to be the weaker ones, it could be anybody, just a story about something that you remember from the class.

Suki: Yeah. Well l have definitely implemented this in…in my class, because l am now um… set different homework, l don't um… l don't … l don't mark… l don't mark them because they have gotten used to um checking and marking each other's, and the ones who um know, apart from the leader who is marking, other… other… other students are more used to just go (going) to them, l would just say "Well today's homework, doesn't need to be handed in to me, go to your group leader. They all know what to do." l feel quite, l mean that is like that's… that's quite a difference that this method had made.

Brad: We should explain a little bit here. You have set up your class in a different way, to the way l um, had originally planned it. You've got your students working in groups with each group having a leader. Correct?

Suki: Yes.

Brad: And the leader takes a lot of the responsibility, as like a team leader.

Suki: Yes.

Brad: Okay. Ah, so…

Suki: Because…

Brad: Go on.

Suki: Yeah, because um, not only was um…with English. This is how we work with other subjects as well. For example, for their Chinese and math homework or any… in class or after class assignments, whether its spoken or they need to make up a story any… any assignment. They… they know they need to work as a group to come up with their final um… final (indecipherable). If somebody you know… doesn't … l… l… l… send a leader in the beginning but once they used to the method they don't um… automatically send, depending on the assignment, (noises off), automatically ascend to the leader … would be the sharp one and would lead the group. So, it's just a… just a way to work together basically with all subjects.

Brad: Okay. l so want to ask you a few other questions.

Suki: Sorry?

Brad: If you don't mind. l better… l should ask you a couple more questions if you don't mind.

Suki: Okay, please.

Brad: Okay in your… number 21. In your opinion, what has been the single, best thing about using this method?

Suki: Yeah.

Brad: In your opinion what has been the single, best about using this method?

Suki: Um, students comfort… comfort level, and their confidence level.

Brad: Okay.

Suki: l hope that is clear. l mean two things basically. One, they're comfortable. Two, they're more confident and perhaps if l may add which is uh, as normal, which depends on how you evaluate that… l think the result is… also comes out better.

Brad: Okay (under).

Suki: In my opinion…

Brad: Okay (under).

Suki: …because for the experience they have. lf you… if you evaluate the result maybe they… they… you know… they… you may not see difference, however on an experiential level, l… l am really happy that they are experiencing this at a … at a young age, to work with each other.

Brad: Okay, good. Uh, um… let me see, ah number 24. Have students made any particular comments about using this method? lf so, please share them.

Suki: Um, l haven't asked them about this, but um, l think if l do, they will … they will definitely tell me a lot more, which l can learn… from them, so l… l… l am going to ask them this semester, because l think this last semester… and this semester l am going to ask them to suggest whatever they can… they can help, and l am sure it will be beneficial to both of us.

Brad: Okay. Um, they're going to give you some ideas, you hope.

Suki: Oh, l am sure they can, because…

Brad: Aha (under).

Suki: …l …l …l'm pretty con… confident that they will teach me a lesson, you know.

Brad: Okay.

Suki: … that's, that's usually what happens.

Brad: Okay, has… has this method changed the atmosphere in the classroom at all? (New question, not on original list of questions given to teachers in Appendix 3).

Suki: Um, yeah. I guess, yeah. Yes.

Brad: Okay, in… in what ways?

Suki: Because… oh just the basic dynamic. Because we are… l am also encountering this in other subjects… so it hasn't been like this… how do you say, class… class culture of something?

Brad: Yeah (under).

Suki: They… they… they just know. Um, in the past l used to like… (?) groups by … by when they change their seating arrangement… when… when they change seats… they would all like… the four of them would go together, but this semester, I'm going to ask them… l'm going to tell them, you know look… whenever you are sitting, like… four desks altogether, yeah okay, but no matter, you don't have to stick in the same group…

Brad: Hmm, hmm (under).

Suki: … because that would be boring, and you don't see variety. So… so they're progressing to a different level, where they will let who ever they are sitting with… and l'm hoping… l'm hoping for… you know, new um… um developments… along with that.

Brad: So, new… new student relationships being formed.

Suki: Yeah, exactly.

Brad: Okay (under).

Suki: That's a… that's a better way to put it (laughs).

Brad: Alright. Question 16. ln your opinion how do students now view the issue of error correction?

Teacher A: Um, l think they… they sometimes… real(ize?)… l think the biggest thing maybe that they realize that they make errors unconsciously sometimes, because as l point out their errors they go 'Oh, l learned this.'

Brad: Uh, huh (under).

Suki: So, it was like a… it was more like um… um… how do you say like they… they… they see errors like, 'Oh whoops.' You know 'I knew this.'

Brad: Okay (under).

Suki: It's more like a carelessness thing. Rather than a… a…a technical a… issue.

Brad: Alright. So do you think students are noticing errors more or more quickly than before? (* New question # 2)

Suki: Well, um… not such a noticeable improvement like that, because of their age, l think so… However this term as they're going to be grade 5, l think they will be more conscious of that, of their errors now, 'cos last year they… l… l think they were still um… just um… un… unconscious about it.

Brad: Okay. Number 8. Has this method led to more interaction among students in the classroom?

Suki: Um, it depends on what you do, and it depends on what l ask them to do.

Brad: Sure (under).

Suki: Because whenever it comes to writing there's no 'Okay, come on. Hurry up. Go to the leader or go to your whoever'… you know… like… like, they're more used to just, um this method or… or… hmm, this way of having their papers marked …so in terms of interaction, l guess it depends on what kind of interaction. If it is speaking practice then, that's another thing.

Brad: A yeah…

Suki: Sometimes we do dicta… dictation which is… we don't use this method. They just sit there and write you know. So, l… l would say it depends on the activity itself.

Brad: Okay. Number… number 10. Are students likely to ask more peers for help than previously?

Suki: Hmm, yes and no. Because they are still… l mean for the quicker ones they… they are so used to… to… to the way they learn things, they're smart, they're sharp, they get, they understand(s) everything, they just get it.

Brad: Yep (under)

Suki: Quickly.

Brad: Hmm, hmm.

Suki: … and for the weaker ones, they… they are still… and not only for English this applies to other subjects as well...

Brad: Sure (under).

Suki: …so l think they are still… still, l mean the way they are in terms of learning they would still be slow and make mistakes… so, um… you know l guess l'm not sure if l answered this question.

Brad: l think it is probably one still up in the air, and nothing decisive yet, so… no conclusions, but that's okay.

Suki: Yeah.

Brad: Um, question 11. Do you now have more (or less) time to spend with weaker students seeking writing assistance?

Susan Suki: Um… that's a… that's a very good question in fact.

Brad: Ah, thank you.

Suki: It's a (indecipherable), because sometimes they would ask their peers, and sometimes they would come to me … so l… it's a… it's a… l mean, it's not that they can't come to me, l don't … l don't tell them like, well since we're using this method can you give them up, because come to me… l want them… l wouldn't, so, so come up with them. So they… they still, they would… they would sometimes still come up to me and, it's a different experience in… in overall, you know.

Brad: Yeah, that's fine.

Suki: You know.

Brad: Alright, ah…

Suki: (indecipherable).

Brad: Again.

Suki: Is there a quicker solution, or is the only way they do better is to get this over with? Will they grow? It depends because they… they're… you're working with people and there… there are so many things that are not… not in my control.

Brad: Sure (under).

Suki: (indecipherable) you know what l mean?

Brad: Sure. In a big class, yes.

Suki: So, sometimes they will go and ask their peers, and their neighbor next… next hmm… ah their neighors and just do it, and sometimes they will come to me and then… l don't know, l guess l'm just… l'm just there to… if they come, that's fine.

Brad: No, that's okay. That's fine. l mean, the teachers always HAS to be there. Um, but it's not as if… if the peers are more accessible then l guess that's got to be of benefit to them. Um, question 14. What has been the effect on student writing accuracy using this method? Have error counts decreased?

Suki: Um, yes, l think, because l um at the beginning l used… l asked them to leave their errors and um… um… sorry, let me say it again. At the beginning l asked, when they… when they didn't correct, l don't… l don't ask them to erase their previous errors, so they end up you know like on their paper running out of space. So, they're like, 'Oh my gosh, l have to write on this so many times.' And… and one side they feel ashamed and on the other hand they… they are running out of space. You poor things! So, and then l decided to… to erase the errors. So l was little concerned at how to… how to… how to do this. But soon, they obviously… l mean there's lots of things to be done, throughout this and they will be hopefully error conscious l think.

Brad: Hmm, hmm good. Ah, what has been the effect on student writing fluency using this method? Are… are students writing more? (Question 15)

Suki: (pauses) Um, no. Because usually it's a given… it's a given task, they need to… they can't write a novel, they not writing a… a… a… story, or they're not write… not writing freely, a composition or something. They're just… they're just asked to write specific and very simple um, quest… um sentences. In terms of fluency l don't… l don't think um it's… it's… it's um noticeable.

Brad: Okay. Alright, ah Last question, ah, number 4. Have students shown less or more confidence in their writing using this method, compared to using previous, traditional correction methods?

Suki: Oh, ah definitely more. l think l answered that near the beginning.

Brad: You probably did, yeah. (laughs).

Suki: They have more confidence.

Brad: l just had to get that on the record.

Suki: And um, yeah it's just a different experience you know comparing to… to… to… the traditional method and um, as l said it's… it's successful, and easier and quicker and less intimidating basically. A lot… a lot, it… it has a lot do on an emotional level l think, as well as… as well as on… on a technical level you know. Obviously they see their errors referred to… however, such…such um experiences, such course was different from the traditional way of correcting…

Brad: Okay.

Suki: … of correction, one where teachers will just put a huge red mark… sorry cross on their paper and then… that's really horrible (laughs).

Brad: Yeah. Okay, will you continue using this method in the future? (Question 19, number not given)

Suki: Yes, definitely. As l said previously, l am already implementing in other ways and l'm… l think it's… it will be revolutionary to us.

Brad: That's good (under).

Suki: Beneficial for both the teacher and the student.

Brad: Well, l…l will be in touch about those other ways again because they really sound very interesting and you've got my attention with them. Ah, thank you for your time again this evening, (Susan).

Suki: Thank you very much Brad, and thank you for introducing me to this… this wonderful method.

Brad: Okay.

Suki: l'll… l'll keep in touch regarding the speaking you know… the practice.

Brad: Yeah. Yeah.

Suki: l really love it because, l think, (indecipherable) because a… a big portion of my class is they have um, reading activities and listening is crucial.

Brad: Sure, sure.

Suki: So.

Brad: Well we better sign off on the interview here. Okay?

Suki: Okay.

Appendix 4B: Transcription of interview, Teacher B, Noi, Bangkok, Thailand

Interviewed via Skype, conducted on Friday, 5th September, 2014.

Participants: Researcher (Brad), and Teacher B (Noi).

*Technical note. This was the first time Noi had ever used Skype and her school had installed the software only a couple of days before, especially for the purpose of this interview. As a result there were breaks in the transmission. l decided to send a draft of the transcription to her as well as a copy of the recording and asked her to make new recordings for some answers that were lost in the original interview. This method was seen as the more expedient one, as changes in my employment, meant that doing the interview again, was not a viable option. As a result only full and complete answers that were clearly audible were considered for inclusion in Chapter 4, Discussion.

Brad: Okay, what is your first question? What number do you want?
Noi ; (pause) Number… number 3.
Brad: Number 3. In your opinion what has been the single, biggest change in the classroom since students started using this method? Okay?

Noi: (under) Hmm? (pause)

Noi: Answer right now?

Brad: Yes please.

Noi: My opinion l think… er … this class can because my school have a lot of students and it is good when they have a problem they can help each other. So, if they are single they can't help each other, but the biggest book have a good time. It takes time to help each other, but when they know how to do it they gonna help each other quickly and quickly and find out what the correct answer is.

Brad: Well good, good, okay.

Noi: Yes.

Brad: Uh, next question.

Noi: Uh, number 6.

Brad: Number 6. How have weaker students responded to using this method?

Noi: They respond me like uh, don't want to do anything and then, just…just stay in class and no attention, but l try too much l have to try much… as much as l can, like, like if a normal student has tried at lunchtime… but for the weaker, l have to try it two or three more… but l have to push them like this, and maybe find someone who is stronger to help them.

Brad: (under) Hmm.

Noi: …so they will… they will get better… it's slow, but l think it is for them… so l think it's a good way, but it takes time.

Brad: Sure. Okay, next question please.

Noi: Uh number 6, sorry number 7.

Brad: 7. How have stronger students responded to using this method?

Noi: The stronger like uh… (pause) they pay attention what I'm going to teach today and how they can help their friends. They like ah… actual background that...they know or not, this one is correct… but when they, they know more like a … (indecipherable) so… so, l think it's a good for them.

Brad: Hmmm (under).

Noi: … and then it helps one.

Brad: Hhh, hmm. Okay, that's good. Ah, is that all for number 7?

Noi: Yes, over … (some momentary breaks in transmission throughout affect some answers.)

Brad: Okay, next question please.

Noi: 16.

Brad: Question 16.

Noi: Uh, huh (under).

Brad: In your opinion how do students now view the issue of error correction?

Noi: Now they (indecipherable)… now they stick to fire. It depends what l give them that it is correct or not… and like a battle… like a… who gonna find the other one first… or something like that…

Brad: Hh, hmm (under)

Noi: …, but some are still not pay attention… but l, l always put them… so the slower ones or the weaker one can find the answer and so be proud… and so they gonna be like always like to do… like a fighting or who can answer, so l think that is good way nah, for your method.

Brad: Okay.

Noi: That's all for the answer on sixteen question(s).

Brad: Okay, next question please.

Noi: 19.

Brad: Question 19. Will you continue to use this method in the future?

Noi: Of course use this one but l have to adapt. Like if l have the stronger (?), you know stronger students, l can go faster, but if l have weaker students more than stronger l have to be slower and slower and wait up for them, but l am sure that l use this method.

Brad: Sure. Okay. Uhm, which leads a little bit more… okay … how else will you adapt the er, method? That's a new question.

Noi: Okay, (pause). Uh, (pause). Do you want to interview students?

Brad: No, no. I'm just interviewing you.

Noi: Okay, okay.

Brad: How will you adapt the method, in the future?

Noi: Uhuh, l will adapt, you know because we are (have) Thai students… so we have to teach at least to Thai, slower and slower and go back Thai to English, and then… l…it is easy to do method of yours. Because if a

foreigner or a student they can't survive… there so, more quickly than my students. So, because Thai isn't a native… native speak… native language of our country right?

Brad: Yes.

Noi: So they have to try slower but, finally they are going to try.

Brad: Okay.

Noi: They're going to find the correct one, Which one is correct, which one is not correct. But it takes time.

Brad: Sure. Okay, next question please.

Noi: Er… 27.

Brad: Question 27. Are there any other things that you have noticed in your class about using this method?

Noi: Hmm, hmm.

Brad: Okay, what are they?

Noi: Your method, l have to… l have to like uh… teach them the lesson first, and then l have to use a card or anything or like ah, you know the structure by use the … the chart to know the grammar first.

Brad: Hmm, hmm (under).

Noi: Before l used your method, and change the… tense, something like that.

Brad: Hmm, Hmm (under).

Noi: So this is… l use a picture card before… used your method. Because we are (have) Thai students we have to attend more to let (help) them understand each sentence. What is it? Something like that.

Brad: Mmm, Okay.

Caeroon: Hmm, hmm.

Brad: Is… is that all for 27?

Noi: Yes, that is over for answer this question.

Brad: Okay. And… and next question please.

Noi: Next question l choose... (pause) 20.

Brad: Question 20. Okay.

Noi: Yes.

Brad: Which method do you believe students prefer to use? Please explain why. This means either the traditional or the Do It Your SELF method.

Noi: Uh, for the traditional it's good for (?) grammar… the, the old one. But when they know how to use the sentence already they prefer to use your method to find that they can check up, that grammar, that their knowledge cover it or not.

Brad: Hmm, hmm (under).

Noi: So they… so l think the original used like a basic grammar first is good but when they understand already your is good so… they prefer both.

Brad: Okay, so …

Noi: … but, they, they love… love your method more.

Brad: So you are using two methods.

Noi: Yes.

Brad: Cool!

Noi: l told you already we are Thai you know…

Brad: Sure, sure.

Noi: Step by step, we cannot start a quick step like a foreigner, so we need the background first. They will know everything already, the lesson (?)… just your method. So quick, faster than if l always use the old method it takes time but we will adapt together it's good.

Brad: Okay, so this new method is saving you some class time. (Pause for answer) Is it?

(We've lost connection… break in transmission at 9'45''.) (Transmission resumed at 10'48''.)

Noi: Hello can you hear me?

Brad: Okay, we're back.

C: Ah, l chose number 18.

Brad: 18. Question 18. Do you prefer to use traditional error correction methods or the DIY SELF method? (Please explain reasons for your preference.)

Noi: Hmm, I prefer this, Do It Style maybe… because it can reduce my time.

Brad: Okay.

Noi: That's all. With… with the old one, when they, the person give me everything l have to check. I have to go home late, something like that.

Brad Yes.

Noi: But if use DIY SELF they gonna help each other, they will know (transmission unclear here, signal breaking up) … my time to plan a new lesson plan for tomorrow, next hour… so I prefer DIY SELF more.

Brad: Ah, okay. Good.

Noi: That's all for the 18 answer.

Brad: Yeah. Now question 20, you were telling us, you were using both methods. Which is, very interesting to me.

Noi: Yes. But it takes time for them. Its gonna confuse at first, when we use this one first … and then when they know everything we gonna use, I'm finally gonna use DIY SELF.

Brad: Okay, so it takes a little while to teach them, but then they get better. (Using the method.)

Noi: Yes.

Brad: Okay.

Noi: First… because like a semester of open. I have to explain everything and let them understand step by step and then change. They will know all this way. It takes time right? So, l finally …

Brad: Sure. (under)

Noi: … they will know everything l will use DIY SELF. Because when l teach, l teach three years (class levels), you know?

Brad: Yes.

Noi: l may want to start everything … and then when they grow up … like a … two or three l use this one. (technical problems here again, as the transmission was breaking up).

Brad: Okay. Ah, next question please.

Noi: Ah, eight, number 8.

Brad: Question 8. Has this method led to more interaction among students in the classroom? (transmission lost 13'15'' resumed at 15'42'').

Brad: Okay we're recording again.

Noi: Yes.

Brad: Now, the last question was question eight. Has this method led to more interaction among students in the classroom?

Noi: In the… (transmission unclear).

Brad: Ah, it's breaking up again. Sorry, can you repeat that please? (pause) Oh, we've lost connection (at 16'20) again. Hello.

Noi: Hi. (transmission resumed at 17'.)

Brad: Yes, hello.

Noi: Hello. Sawadee khar.

Brad: Sawadee khap.

Noi: Next question, what?

Brad: Question 8.

Noi: The question about the… (indecipherable).

Brad; No, no, no. We didn't get an answer for number 8 because it cut out. Can you tell me your answer for number 8 please?

Noi: Okay.

Brad: Hello. (pause) Hello. No, cut out again. (transmission lost at 17'40").

Noi: Ask question 30. (transmission resumed at 18'05")

Brad: Yes, Number 8. (over)

Noi: (under)… today, enthuse.. enthusiastic to do this. They're good in reaction about this method.

Brad: Okay, fine. Next question, number 30, yes?

Noi: The last one… l guess. (# 30 on list).

Brad: Okay, ah were you …(over)

Noi: I think it is very necess, necessary…

Brad: Number 30…

Noi: (under) you read it.

Brad: Were you able to save time by using this method in class?

Noi: Of course. You save lots of time. You can finish and left the lesson faster and l can… do anything that l wish.

Brad: Hmm, hmm.

Noi: I do cards, cards… for, or anything.

Brad: Okay.

Noi: That is very good but…

Brad: Alright. Any more questions for, from you?

Noi: l don't have any. Do you have any questions for me?

Brad: Yes, ah, I'm interested in number 23. Do you have any stories…

Noi: 23?

B: Yes. Do you have any stories that illustrate students are able to successfully use the method? Any stories about the students using this method. (Question 23)

Noi: Oh, oh okay. Oh, just… just, so l didn't bother. The… about the comparative right? At first l have to teach them grammar, and then l let them to find out, find out which one is… because l will inform them about comparative and superlative… and when they know, at first they know the grammar first, and then they find each one…

Brad: Hmm, hmm (under).

Noi: …so l like switching and let them check which one correct, which one not correct.

Brad: Okay.

Noi: And then at first, the stronger ones quickly to find the answers, but the weaker ones they gonna confused, because the (7 seconds indecipherable, due to momentary breaks in signal) … they check correct for them…they say that 'Why you check this one, I'm sure that I'm correct.'

Brad: Hmm, hmm.

Noi: 'No, you have to check again. And this l told you already if correct l check correct, already… so they can the stronger one, and the stronger one 'You have to do like this or, like get understand.' That they mix, mix up the grammar, they can't remember commonly what they said. That's, that's the story that, I loved it.

Brad: Okay.

Noi: For me, it takes time to let them try to understand.

Brad: Okay. A couple more questions.

Noi: Yes… another.

Brad: Okay. Question 24. Have students made…

Noi: 24 okay.

Brad: Have students made any particular comments about using this method? lf so, please share their comments.

Noi: Their comments, ah like a, they said that at first they're confused, and when they like activities they have to do the work. Doing with and other things they like and continue the class… I don't know how to continue… l have to rely on them for something like that.

Brad: Okay.

Noi: … take off the (indecipherable), have a problem, continue to do the best.

Brad: Okay. We lost a little bit there, l think it broke up again. Um, number 27. Are there any other things that you have noticed in your class about using this method?

Noi: Again please Brad.

Brad: Yeah. Are there any other things…

Noi: 27, right?

Brad: Yeah, 27. Are there any other things that you have noticed in your class about using this method?

Noi: (under) Okay. (pause) They love to… to help each…

Brad: Ah, okay, it's breaking up, l can't hear you.

Noi: They love to…

Brad: Can you say that again please?

Noi: The other thing that… the other thing that l know about this method is, they know, they know how to help each other… they know how to take, how to like learn for themselves…

Brad: Hmm, hmm (under).

Noi: Another way to learning, it's not this (utterance indecipherable, signal breaking up again).

Brad: Okay.

Noi: So, l learnt that, and then l learned about the forming (?) of them. How, how they can find the…

Brad: How they can find the… the what? Uh, we have lost connection again. (Connection lost again.)

Noi: Okay, l think l can learn they help each other, the friendships, the learning, they funny, how to find the best answer, something like that.

Brad: Okay. Last question from me. Number 28.

Noi: Yes. 28, okay.

Brad: Is there anything you would do to improve this method?

Noi: Ah, l learn but for my students, l have to go see their background because they have the different knowledge and background. If they are good in English they are fast learner, if not they have to take time so I have to often check it.

Brad: Oh, we've lost it again.

Connection to Skype could not be re-established. Researcher did not attempt to contact the teacher once more, since the final answer had been given.

(Interview concluded at 24'40".)

Appendix 5. Figure 4.2: Table of Teacher Beliefs

　　　　Both teachers were able to select questions that better reflected the experiences of their classes and

students. The intervention was run differently in the two classes, and this was reflected in the questions the

teachers chose to respond to. Each teacher response was classified into one of the three criteria below to

facilitate the identification of the emergent themes discussed in Chapter 5, Results.

(30) = Numbers refer of the interview question for each answer.

Part 1: Suki.

Advantages	Importance	Remaining Issues
Students excited with experiencing a new way of learning. (1) Students definitely more confident (especially those who helped others). (1) Able to extrapolate and use the method in other subjects and in other ways, e.g. speaking. (27) Concentration improved, students became more alert. (27) Other skills improved. (27) Students are more alert. (27) Saved time correcting work and homework. (30) Saves time and relieves teacher monotony. (30) Happy students able to experience the method. (26) Comfort confidence levels. Better results, experiences. (23) New student relationships being formed. (B & S) (New question #1) Error counts have decreased. (14)	First time for the teacher to try something new in class. (1) Students feel less intimidated, overcome psychological stress. (6) Students involved in finding errors in speech. (27) Teacher able to observe student progress more. (22) Teacher getting the error correction practice which was unnecessary, not the students who need it. (30) Weaker students more comfortable psychologically, even though no faster or more successful. (26) No longer marks set homework students have taken over this role. (23) Students know what to do with their homework, and are able to do as directed. (23) Has adapted approach to other class subjects and skills to make more use of self and peer correction. (23) Students more comfortable and	Timing issues, how long to spend on self and peer correction. Teacher got carried away sometimes. (22) Good students happy to help at the beginning, but wanted to go out and play during their free time. (22) Same students were the first to finish and be the helpers. (26) Direct feedback from students was not sought. (24) Not such a noticeable improvement in the speed of error detection. (New question #2) Stronger students more likely to ask for help, but slower students are still weak. (10) Students felt some shame and were running out of space for corrections (14)

Students definitely have more confidence in their writing. (4) Method used in the intervention was more successful, easier, quicker and less intimidating than the traditional error correction method. (8) Will continue to use more self and peer correction and apply it in other ways in the future. (19)	confident in class. (21) Results not observable but was pleased that students were getting the experience of working together. (21) Intended to elicit and act on suggestions from students for their mutual benefit. (24) Change of classroom dynamics associated with different seating arrangements. (New Q) Students realize they make errors unconsciously. (16) Amount of interaction depended on class activity. (8) Weaker students have more choices for where to get assistance. (11) Error counts declined. (11) Improvement in students' writing fluency was not noticeable. (15)	

Part 2: Noi.

Advantages	Importance	Disadvantages
It takes time but when they know how they can help each other quickly. (3) Stronger students pay attention and able to help their friends. (7) Students compete to be the first to find errors. (16) Easier to adapt this method to teaching Thai students. (New question) Students finally will try. (New question)	Students able to help each other. (3) Teacher had to find stronger students to help weaker ones. (6) A slow process, it takes time, but it is good for slow student to get better. (6) Teacher builds confidence of weaker students. (16) Will continue to use this method in the future. (19) Teacher will adjust speed of class	Weaker students don't want to do anything. Have to be pushed. (6) Some students still do not pay attention. (16) Using both old and new methods confuses students at first. (20) Weaker students still remain confused. (23) Students were confused when the new method was introduced. (24)

Students prefer to use the new method on known structures. (20) Students like/love this new method more. (20) Faster than if only the old method was used they (teacher and students) adapt together. (20) Prefers to use the new method , because it can reduce time, allow time for lesson planning for tomorrow. (18) Students help each other. (18) Students enthusiastic about using this method. Reacted well to the method. (8) Saved lots of time using the new method, that allowed time to be spent on other activities. (30) Weaker students checking their work again for errors after talking with stronger students. (23) Students love to help each other. (27) Students develop friendships, have fun, as they learn how to find the best answer. (27)	according to the level of students. (19) Lesson taught first, then used structure cards/chart. (27) Using two error correction methods in the class. Step by step approach taken. (20) With the old method the teacher has to do all the checking, go home late. (18) Two methods used, old one first, then the new method. (20) Use of this method has led to more interaction among students in the classroom. (8) Teaches the grammar first, then lets students find the answers, switches between methods. (23) Increased interaction between weaker and stronger students in the peer correction stage. (23) They know how to help each other. They know how to learn for themselves. (27)	

Appendix 6A: Transcription of Student Interviews, Case Study 1, Baotou.

(All names used are pseudonyms)

Student # 1, Sally.
Question 1: Tell one story of how you got help from another student in class.
Answer: l once asked my desk mate to help me spell an English word, she was willing to help, l was able to complete the sentence.

Question 2: Tell one story of how you helped another student.
Answer: Our classmate Andrew struggled many times to find his own error. He came to me, l helped him to find out and correct the error. l was quite excited.

Student # 2, Barry.
Question 1: Tell one story of how you helped another student.
Answer: In today's math class David was supported and helped by a group of us including me, to answer a math question successfully.

Question 7: Who has helped you the most in correcting your work?
Answer: Most classmates have helped me with various writing assignments at school.

Student # 3, Tony.
Question 4: Are you more confident writing in class now?
Answer: Yes, my skills were improved with their help.

Question 5: How do you feel about asking for help now?
Answer: This can not only enrich friendship between friends but also helped me to memorize key points well.

Student #4, Phyllis.
Question 4: Are you more confident writing in class now?
Answer: Yes, because l was not so threatened since my work is marked by my classmates.

Question 5: How do you feel about asking for help now?
Answer: l am more self disciplined in finding my own mistakes, as well as memorizing and mastering what I've learned.

Student # 5, Samantha.
Question 3: What do other students say about this method?
Answer: Finding and correcting errors by ourselves can help us to remember things. Marking others' papers not only helped people but also helped us with our study.

Question 7: Who has helped you the most in correcting your work?
Answer: Stewart helped me the most.

Student # 6, Jonathon.
Question 3: What do other students say about this method?
Answer: Other students think it can save time.

Question 7: Who has helped you the most in correcting your work?
Answer: Yangwei has helped me the most.

Appendix 6B: Transcription of Student Interviews, Case Study 2, Bangkok
(All names used are pseudonyms)

Student 1. Sandy Video 9
DIY is good for me and my friends, to help each other to learn to correct the sentence.

Student 2. Stan. Video 10
l think this peer is very good, l love it, l happy to learning and our friendship are so good.

Student 3. Keith Video 11
Now my English is good because of this the (?) l like to help others.

Student 4. Pam Video 12
I think it is good to practice English with my friends.

Student 5. Tom Video 13
I think it is good to practice English with my friends.

Student 6. Kenneth Video 14
l think it good to me, to understanding with more.

Appendix 7. Details of Suki's class.

Taken from an email.

OK Brad, I understand the question and here is my answer.

Our entire school perhaps all aspects (professors, schools and teachers) involved in education here in China has undergoing a way of teaching, which is task-based and peer-support cooperative learning in large classes.

I understand the philosophy behind the method where students should be given the opportunity to go to any random student for help, thus the true sense of peer support in any learning environment. However, in most primary schools in China there are about 45 to 75 students in one class. I have 55 in mine and the biggest class size is 65 in our school in Baotou. Within such big numbers we have divided students into small groups of 4. According to their sitting arrangements, usually lines and rows, it's the 4 students sitting next to each other as the core group. Sometimes they are encouraged to mix with their neighbouring group to form a bigger group of 8 or 16 depending on the task.

The reason to appoint students into groups is basically because teachers are looking for efficiency and effectiveness within a short time and a small physical space when working with large numbers. How do we dream of having the same classroom but half the students! The fact is both teachers and students are restricted in a small space with so many people. It is physically impossible for a student to go to any helper he desires since there is no room to run around. The solution is to work with the ones near you.

Therefore we divided them into groups as described above where there is a pre-decided leader. Yes, the leader may be the strongest one academically however we also look at his overall abilities in helping others. And more importantly, we encourage others to also excel at the same time. We hope that non-leaders don't feel that they can never be leaders. This depends on a teacher's way of teaching and how a good teacher can make everyone feel that they can also be as great.

Such grouping is utilized for all subjects and all teachers. You may see a Maths teacher and an English teacher giving students a task and automatically asking them to work in groups. Groups don't stay the same after they moved seats. Therefore, to work in groups means to work with the ones who are sitting next to you. As I explained earlier, they are mixed with others too when working in bigger groups. So we do see better communication and variety sometimes. Such dynamic and structure is seen very effective so far.

Appendix 8 Future Stages of the DIY Self Correction Technique

The explicit model of correction is more direct than the implicit model, and would save more class correction time overall, as there would be less room for negotiation. Table 5.5.3 summarizes the different possible features of the DIY Self Correction Technique, as they could be applied in future research models.

Stages	Features of Stages
1. Self correction	Able to find and do independently. Given 2 chances to notice and self-correct. Most preferable method for student language acquisition, as students find answers themselves. Correction process takes less time than other models.
2. Implicit peer correction	Error codes are not needed. More competent peers show where the error is, but not what is wrong. Still a need to notice what the error is, 2 to 3 clarifying questions allowed. Negotiation over errors would take more class time. Shared meaning found.
3. Explicit peer correction	Directed to errors and given correct answers, by more competent peers. Error negotiation possible, as justification sought. Derived meaning imposed. Would save correction time over implicit model.