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Written Corrective Feedback Beliefs and Practices in Thai as a Foreign Language Context: A Perspective from Experienced Teachers

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Abstract

Most studies on Written Corrective Feedback (WCF) have focused either on ESL or EFL teachers' beliefs and practices. However, it is still not known how teachers who teach second or foreign languages other than English will provide information on the learners' written language production. To bridge the gap in the literature, this current study reports on an interview study investigating nine university lecturers' beliefs and their actual practices about WCF on an assignment done by the third-year exchange student of Thai as a foreign language (TFL). Quantitative and qualitative data were collected through feedback tasks and semi-structured interviews. The findings indicated that there was alignment between teachers' beliefs of their WCF practice and their actual practice in terms of types of WCF and feedback techniques. However, the amount of feedback provided and the teachers' time constraint, not the level of students' ability as they thought, appeared to be the reasons for these misalignments of TFL teachers' beliefs and practices.

***Keywords*:** written corrective feedback, belief, practice, Thai as a foreign language

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1. Introduction

The question 'Should WCF be given to an individual student?' has been discussed in second language acquisition. In recent decades practitioners and researchers are very controversially studying the benefits of WCF and responses to learners' second language development (e.g., Abalkheel & Brandenburg, 2020; Benson & DeKeyser, 2019; Esmaeeli & Sadeghi, 2020; Ferris, 1999, 2004, 2010; Li & Vuono, 2019; Lim & Renandya, 2020; Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019; Truscott, 1996, 1999; Wang, 2017). The intense arguments for and against WCF notions in second language writing question whether teachers should abandon all forms of corrective feedback or continue making corrections. Such questions are still raging in which research so far has not been able to prove. On the one hand, as Eslami and Derakhshan (2020) argue, the satisfactory outcome of WCF for L2 acquisition has been witnessed by a large number of studies in the last decade. The evidence from Sheen and Ellis's (2011) research found that corrective feedback yielded positive results. Besides, according to a study by Abalkheel and Brandenburg (2020), the investigation of quasi-experimental research studies concerning WCF effects indicated that WCF produced a beneficial effect on learners' written tasks. To be more specific, as Esmaeeli and Sadeghi (2020) pointed out, an error correction can improve the grammatical accuracy of students' L2 writing in the target linguistic form. On the other hand, some scholars suggested that error correction was counterproductive (e.g., Truscott, 1996) since it might hurt students' feelings or distract them from communication. As there are some inconsistencies of findings of WCF provision, this leads to concern regarding teachers' beliefs and practices toward WCF.

Research on teachers' beliefs regarding WCF has shown the following patterns (Li & Vuono, 2019): importance of CF, preferred feedback types, error categories, CF dose, source of CF, and students' responses to CF. In addition to this, WCF researchers have examined the consistent and inconsistent between teachers' self-reported beliefs and their practices. Montgomery and Baker (2007) surveyed the perception of teacher-written feedback and compared it to their actual feedback which coordinated well. On a larger scale, Li and Barnard (2011) analyzed twenty-eight completed questionnaires and interviewed sixteen teachers to elicit their beliefs about feedback. It is true to claim that a high number of studies on WCF in teachers' cognition and role have been carried out over the previous three decades (e.g., Eslami & Derakhshan, 2020; Junqueira & Payant, 2015; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010).

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Although it is the sheer volume of EFL research that have been studied in many various aspects of L2 teaching from a teacher-belief perspective, WCF beliefs and practices in the context of TFL are still neither discovered nor given undivided attention by Thai academics. This, of course, calls attention to teachers' beliefs and practices toward WCF in the TFL context. The information will be crucial to ensure that the advanced in understanding and practices of WCF reflect and meet the needs of practitioners and learners of TFL, which help identify the decisive factors to develop the future educational curriculum in Thailand and other dominant countries (e.g., USA, UK, Australia, China, Japan, South Korea, Singapore, and so on) where TFL is being taught.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Types of WCF and its Benefit

There are some notable advantages gained from WCF. One key benefit is that, as Ellis and Shintani (2014) note, 'CF was found to help learning' (p. 19). In other words, WCF has the potential to boost the L2 written grammatical accuracy of students' writing (Abalkheel & Brandenburg, 2020; Lim & Renandya, 2020). In the literature, three main types of WCF, which yield distinctive results, have been examined: direct, indirect, and metalinguistic (Li & Roshan, 2019). Direct feedback provides learners with the correct target language form. Indirect feedback prompts learners to self-correct their errors. Metalinguistic feedback identifies an error and provides a brief explanation of the error, with or without an example, in the margin or at the end of the text.

Of the three WCF types, direct feedback is best for producing accurate revision in which students prefer since it is the fastest and easiest way for them and teachers (Chandler, 2003; Wang, 2017). This finding is following Shintani et al.'s (2014) study of Japanese student' accuracy in using two English grammatical structure and with Benson and DeKeyser's (2019) research in that ESL learners with greater language analytic ability proved more likely to achieve gains in the direct feedback group than in the metalinguistic group. It also collaborates with another research result (Salimi, 2015), which stated that the effect of direct corrective feedback was more effective than metalinguistic clues and provided EFL learners with more

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opportunities to revise and rewrite their texts. Considering the learners' proficiency levels, the direct feedback exerted influence on improving pre-intermediate students' accuracy as L2 understanding they had was insufficient to self-repair their errors (Esmaeeli & Sadeghi, 2020). Thus, to increase accuracy in students' written texts, teachers should give low-level language learners direct feedback and require them to make revisions.

Indirect feedback is delivered to engage learners in cognitive problem-solving as they attempt to self-edit based upon the feedback that they have received. Park et al. (2016) reported an analysis of an indirect WCF study. They found that learners, in general, were able to self-correct more than a third of their errors. A similar finding of this belongs to Ferris and Robert's (2001) work on how explicit error feedback should be in order to help students self-edit their texts. Drawing on analyses of in-class writing, feedback, and editing cycle, Ferris and Robert provided a questionnaire and a pretest and concluded that the students who received indirect feedback on errors were able to self-correct over half of them. It should be clear that indirect feedback can be helpful for certain treatable errors. The question is, of course, which direct or indirect CF is more effective? The answer, surely, depends on the level of the learner. As Kang and Han (2015) point out, direct feedback have an advantage for beginners, whereas indirect may yield positive results to higher-level learners. According to Esmaeeli and Sadeghi's (2020) findings, which compared the efficacy of direct and indirect WCF on learners' accuracy, upper-intermediate students derived maximum benefit from the indirect WCF.

Metalinguistic feedback has previously been considered a form of indirect feedback, and some researchers have used the two terms interchangeably (Li & Vuono, 2019). Nevertheless, they are fundamentally different. Metalinguistic feedback provides a clue to illustrate the cause and nature of the error. In it, error codes are employed to label the nature of an error. Shintani et al. (2014) argue that this feedback can also be operationalized as a handout to students explaining and exemplifying the usage of the target structure. Although it raises the learners' awareness and helps them correct their errors, concerning teachers' WCF practice, the most frequent feedback employed by teachers appears to be unfocused and comprehensive with a similar ratio of direct and indirect WCF (Li & Vuono, 2019). Teachers, in Lee's (2008b) study, use indirect feedback to locate the error plus provide metalinguistic feedback (error codes). A similar study by Shintani and Ellis (2013) which investigated the effects of direct and metalinguistic feedback on the

indefinite article revealed a significant effect for metalinguistic feedback. It was attributed to the learners' inability to extrapolate the rules governing the usage of the article. Rather, direct feedback did not develop an awareness of the rule but metalinguistic did and was used when revising the original text.

2.2. Teachers' WCF Beliefs and Practices

The interest in teachers' beliefs is that they play a central role in teachers' pedagogical practices. As Borg (2003) argues, teachers' experiences as learners can inform cognitions about teaching and learning which continue to exert an influence on teachers throughout their career. Li and Barbard's (2011) focus group findings confirmed that when giving feedback, the tutors likewise relied upon their own experience as students when receiving feedback on assignments from their lecturers. Although there has been much agreement that teachers' beliefs have an impact on their practices, there is ample evidence in the literature that there can be an inconsistency between lecturers' stated beliefs and the classroom practices, particularly WCF (Al-Bakri, 2016; Alshahrani & Storch, 2014; Junqueira & Payant, 2014; Lee, 2009; Li & Barnard, 2011; Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019; Montgomery & Baker, 2007; Pearson, 2018; Sakrak-Ekin & Balçikanli, 2019). In general, such research has discussed the discrepancies on the following issues .

First, teachers might mistakenly believe they primarily supplied direct feedback while giving more indirect feedback in practice or vice versa. As Al-Bakri (2016) mentioned, teachers in the study did not appear to be aware of their WCF practices. More than half of the total feedback on students' writing was devoted to direct issues, but the stated beliefs indicated that direct correction was rarely provided. It corresponds with Sakrak-Ekin and Balçikanli's (2019) recent experiment, in which 88 percent of the teachers opined that indirect WCF was being employed while assessing the writing tasks. Nonetheless, 1,001 of the total 1,039 WCF practices in the student papers were given directly. This has also been proved in Pearson's (2018) findings that direct error feedback was the most prevalent strategy in writing tasks, compared to two different indirect approaches. The feedback analysis under Lee's (2009) investigation showed that 70 percent of the feedback was direct. It is because, in teachers' beliefs, students were unable to locate and correct errors themselves, teachers took responsibility for helping them.

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Second, participating teachers self-reported that they provided more feedback on content and organization than on grammar and mechanics. These beliefs did not accord with their practices in which were found more local WCF than global across essays. As indicated in Junqueira and Payant's (2014) study, a pre-service teacher believed in giving feedback on organization and content, pointing to the belief that global issues should be the focus of teacher response. However, in the light of the evidence, limited suggestions on content and organization throughout the essays were provided by the teacher candidate, compared to feedback on local issues. According to previous research (Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019; Montgomery & Baker, 2007; Sakrak-Ekin & Balçikanli, 2019), most of the teachers shared their thoughts that they offered more WCF on global aspects. In fact, local issues were much more frequent. Another recent study also suggested that teachers were concerned with surface-level grammatical features (Pearson, 2018). Analysis of teachers' WCF showed around 60 percent of all corrections were grammar-related. In contrast, the resulting interview pointed out that all participants in this research stressed the importance of feedback on features of coherence and cohesion. This means some teachers were not aware of the feedback that they provided.

Third and last, the underlying factors in the misalignment between teacher beliefs and practices were classified into three main themes: time constraints, excess workload, and perceptions of students' characteristics on WCF exert influence over the misalignment. Concerning perceptions of learner needs and capabilities, L2 lecturers perceived learner weakness in writing (Pearson, 2018) and the need to provide rigorous feedback to remedy their students' writings (Montgomery & Baker, 2007). Consequently, instructors gave more corrective feedback on local than global issues throughout the writing process to improve the accuracy of written work. Be that as it may, feedback is time-consuming. As noted by Sakrak-Ekin and Balçikanli (2019), time limitations were considered the factor of the discrepancy in providing WCF. This finding corroborates the notion of Junqueira and Payant (2014), who described that time management issues became a crucial factor in preventing teachers from correcting more mistakes than it should be. In their study, contextual factors regarding teachers' workload appeared to have an impact on the WCF practice. Large class sizes and student numbers (Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019), which increased heavy workload, also caused teachers' beliefs to be incompatible with their WCF performance.

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2.3. Thai Writing

Thai, formerly known as Siamese, is the sole official, national language of people of Thai nationality or any ethnic group who are regarded as citizens of Thailand or Siam in the past. Thai is used throughout the country as the medium for education and mass media. Thai is a tonal language in which the meaning of a syllable is determined by the pitch pronounced (Wiboolyasarin, 2015). It seems true to claim that the L2 learners find the Thai language considerably not easy to learn. Moreover, Thai is written in its unique alphabetic script in which certain vowels appear above or below the line of writing and others precede or follow or both the consonant. Unlike in English, there is no space between words. When spaces are used, they serve as punctuation markers, instead of commas or full stops. For foreign learners, as Smyth (2003) argues, this means that there is the added complication of having to recognize where one word ends and another begins. Also, there are some mismatches between spelling and pronunciation in Thai (Smyth, 2014). For example, tones suggested by the spelling and vowel length in the written form are not reflected in pronunciation.

Thongtaweewattana (2019) investigated errors in Thai writing of 80 non-Thai international students and found four types of errors: 1) spelling, 2) word usage, 3) sentence structure, and 4) spacing. In line with Puttamata (2011), who studied errors in Thai writing of exchange students from the People's Republic of China. The findings showed that there were five areas of writing problems: 1) positions of vowels and tone mark, 2) application of silent mark, 3) word choice, 4) sentence formation, and 5) space and paragraph.

A few studies have offered valuable insight into the Thai writing errors of Thai-major Chinese learners. Saengawoot's (2017) findings revealed that three main types of errors were: 1) spelling errors, 2) word usage errors, and 3) sentence structure errors. In spelling mistakes, five aspects of errors were included: 1) initial consonants, 2) vowels, 3) final consonants, 4) intonation marks, and 5) mark placed over the final consonant of a word (Saengawoot & Li, 2018). An analysis of word usage errors identified six aspects of errors: 1) misordering error, 2) wrong use of words, 3) redundancy, 4) misspelling error, 5) omission error, and 6) wrong use of the adjectival phrase (Chunxiao & Puttamata, 2014). Mosikarat et al. (2019) examined the Thai writing problem of Chinese students' worksheets in both

sentence and paragraph levels. In sentence aspects, there were grammatical errors, mixing the spoken language with written language, and incomplete sentences. For paragraph level, lack of unity, coherence and theme, and incompletion of elements were highlighted.

Similar to Korean students who had prepared for MA studies in Thailand, the errors in Thai language writing investigated by Bumrungsuk (2011) were morphology, grammar, and syntax, especially in terms of word order. In sum, the literature demonstrates that a myriad of errors were focused heavily on grammatical rather than organizational. Understanding these feedback practices is of paramount importance in the teaching and learning process. This is because teachers' WCF perceptions and performances are essential aspects of the instruction and significantly affect the students' writing (Hamouda, 2011; Köksal et al., 2018). So far, however, no earlier study has investigated teachers' opinions and performances concerning WCF in the TFL setting. Therefore, the primary aim of the current study is to explore TFL teachers' stated beliefs and actual WCF practices and identify whether there are marked discrepancies. The research questions guiding the current study are as follows:

1. What techniques of WCF do the TFL teachers apply?
2. What are the beliefs of TFL teachers regarding WCF?
3. How do teachers' WCF beliefs connect with their practices?

3. Methodology

To address the research questions over the issues investigated, a mixed-method was employed to explore the teachers' WCF beliefs and practices. The data was gathered from feedback on a student's writing task (see appendix A) and in-depth interview (see appendix B) of the experienced teachers, described in the following sections.

3.1. Participants

In order to acquire in-depth information, a total of 9 teachers teaching TFL have been selected for the study. In criterion sampling, the chosen participants' experience must meet the particular criteria: (a) hold a postgraduate degree either in Thai, Teaching Thai, or Thai as a Foreign Language; (b) teach in the course of Thai

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writing for non-Thai undergraduate students; (c) have more than five years of teaching experience; (d) be able to make time to provide feedback on the student's task. The participants were used as gatekeepers to the other teachers who shared the same characteristics. The group comprised 5 female (55.56%) and 4 male (44.44%) teachers belonging to Thai nationality. The participants all had been teaching a three-hour writing course at the time of this research. The mean age of the participating teachers was 34 in the range of 32-38 in which their work experience ranged from 7-11 years in service. They are all fully qualified teachers as they possessed an MA/MEd in either Thai, Thai Studies, Teaching Thai, or Teaching TFL. Table 1 shows demographic details for participants.

Table 1
Background Information

Participant's pseudonym	Gender	Age	City/Country	Qualification	Year of experience
Ava	F	36	Guangdong/China	MA Teaching Thai as a foreign language	9
Emma	F	34	Samut Prakan/Thailand	MA Teaching Thai as a foreign language	8
Fay	F	37	Dallas/USA	MEd Teaching Thai	10
Gill	F	34	Bangkok/Thailand	MA Teaching Thai as a foreign language	7
Maggie	F	33	Oita/Japan	MA Teaching Thai as a foreign language	9
Mike	M	33	Seoul/South Korea	MA Teaching Thai as a foreign language	7
Nash	M	38	Dallas/USA	MA Thai Studies	11
Tom	M	33	Guangdong/China	MA Thai Studies	8
Trevor	M	32	Bangkok/Thailand	MA Thai	7

Ethical approval had been granted before conducting the research. Following this, the participants were contacted and briefly described the importance, goal, and methodology of the research. An online consent form was distributed by 123FormBuilder to those who were willing to participate in this study. All participants were requested to read and sign the consent form in which they were reassured that they would be guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality. Moreover, it was acceptable for the lecturers to withdraw from the research at any time and whatever they answered would not be used.

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3.2. Data Collection, Instruments, and Analysis

3.2.1 Student's Writing Sample

A third-year international student of Thai was asked to do a one-page essay on any topic as a homework assignment. This participant had been chosen because he was at an intermediate level who had less difficulty writing in the Thai language but still were not exposed to native-like models of written texts. The uncorrected written assignment, used by permission, was distributed by e-mail to in-service teachers who were required to provide feedback. The aim of giving corrective feedback on students' written sample was to investigate the teachers' actual WCF, which could be compared with their beliefs. A total number of nine 320-word assignments that embraced a list of mistakes and corrections were collected.

Nine feedback tasks were read and fitted into two main categories on which teachers provided WCF. The former was the nature of the WCF's types, and the latter was the strategies of WCF provided. Any intervention made by the teacher on samples through a comment, a symbol, circling, underlining, or correction were considered as one feedback point. The feedback points were also classified according to the type of feedback given such as direct or indirect WCF.

3.2.2 Interview

Many previous studies of teacher beliefs have relied heavily on survey techniques and, while these might enable a cross-sectional elicitation of a large number of self-reported attitudes, which could not be probed in any depth. Hence, a semi-structured interview enables the reported attitudes to be explored in more depth, and with a particular focus on whether the match between the teachers' practices and beliefs concerning WCF. The semi-structured interview of open-ended questions was designed and developed in relevance to WCF literature on teachers' beliefs and practices (Al-Bakri, 2016; Chen et al., 2016; Junqueira & Payant, 2015; Lee, 2008b). The interview schedule was divided into three sections, consisting of 18 question items. Each question was checked at least twice to ensure that it was not abrupt, cluttered with technical jargon, and words likely to interfere with the respondents' understanding.

To test whether the semi-structured interview was comprehensible and appropriate for the target population and that the intended questions were well defined, clearly understood and presented invariably, pilot testing was carried out to address them before the main study was conducted (Mackey & Gass, 2016). A try-

out of the interview on a single volunteer, who is similar to the target sample, was conducted before proceeding with the main investigation. In this pilot study, the volunteer was a work acquaintance of the author. The 60-minute interview was held and recorded by Zoom Cloud Meetings on the author's personal computer. The significant factor which had to be taken into account was the participant's language. Even though the interview questions here were described in English, in the interview the volunteer preferred and was more comfortable with listening and speaking Thai. As such, using participants' native language would yield fruitful results such as avoiding inappropriate L2 interpretation or misunderstanding and encouraging better explanation of respondents.

Based on a mutual agreement between the interviewer and interviewee, a convenient time for conducting one-on-one interviews through Zoom for about an hour was settled. Questions were asked while audiotaping and handwritten notes were recording answers. Subsequently, the interview data were recorded digitally, the recordings were transcribed verbatim as Word documents. A thematic analysis was adopted for this interview data since it was a suitable method to discover, analyse, and report themes and patterns (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 79) within the collected data. The statements that were relevant to the current study were highlighted and labelled. Other parts of the transcripts under different labels were also labelled and classified into themes which were based upon the research questions and the main aim of the study. In the recursive coding process, working hypotheses were also generated. These codes and tentative hypotheses were then compared across cases, and further revised until the categories and themes were saturated. There are three themes of teachers' WCF beliefs. Each of which involves several categories. These themes, categories, and codes of teachers' WCF beliefs in the context of TFL are shown in Table 2.

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Table 2
Themes, Categories, and Codes of Teachers' WCF Beliefs Emerging from the Data

Themes	Categories of beliefs	Codes emerging from the data
WCF	Reason for providing	(a) Existence of mistake (b) Student awareness of mistake
	Benefit	(a) Elimination of mistake (b) Improvement on the revised version
Error correction	Amount of error correction	(a) All correction (b) Partial correction
	Factor behind teacher's decision	(a) Student's proficiency (b) Mistake at an acceptable level (c) Time available
	Feature	Focus on (a) local error for novice students, (b) global error for expert students
Feedback provision	Technique	(a) Circle for a wrong word (b) Strikethrough for redundant information
	Attitude toward red pen	Red marks as (a) being recognizable, (b) being encouraged, (c) being aggressive

4. Results

4.1. Quantitative Data

This section presents data regarding the teachers' practices concerning WCF (RQ1), as revealed through the assignments collected from the nine teachers. The results of investigating what and how TFL teachers delivered feedback on the given task are categorized into two distinct categories: the nature of the WCF's type and the strategies of WCF provided. The two questions are raised with data analysis in the following.

Which type of feedback did TFL teachers provide? Nine participants were required to give feedback on the sample of essay tasks. The content analysis shows that the teacher gave direct WCF on the writings. There was no feedback on global error, i.e., ideas and content, or organization, but the teachers took into account a large amount of input on local issues, such as conjunction, spelling, wrong word, word order, word missing, and so on. Rather, the majority of the WCF were focused on grammatical morphemes, which directed learners' attention to critical morphological markers in the task by providing correct target language forms.

As shown in Figure 1, each error to which participating teachers paid attention were explained.

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1) Most of missing words are verbs, which are one of the most troublesome areas for TFL learners. Since Thai is a verb-oriented language, some of the verbs cannot be omitted. For example, it conveys the sense of spoken language unless there is รู้สึก /rú:-sɨ̀k/ before an adjective functioning as a stative verb.

2) Wrong words are commonly miscellaneous confusing words. In this context, ปัญญา /pan-ya:/ (intellect) refers to the ability to understand and to think reasonably. A proper verb for using when talking about knowledge or skill acquired is 'to have,' not เข้าใจ /khâw-cay/ (to comprehend).

3) There is the mismatch between spelling and pronunciation; some international students often produce the -ng (ง) sound in final consonants, instead of ชอบ /chɔ̂:b/, as ชอง /chɔ̂:ŋ/. Eventually, the spelling is reflected in the incorrect pronunciation.

4) Unnecessary words are added in Thai writing. For these errors, learners use the auxiliary verb จะ /cà/ or 'will' in English, that is a future action, to describe the present, general matter.

5) Word order sometimes shows signs of native language interference. In Thai, a noun is accompanied by one or more modifying words that differ from Chinese in that they are placed in the front. Some may argue that students were confused by the complicated rules or the overlap of word usage.

6) The Thai writing system has no space between words. Space is used to be a punctuation mark. It might seem that the foreign learner had been unaware of fixed rules about how to space. It should be noted that one space is added before the conjunctions, i.e., และ /lɛ́/, or when either phrase, clause, or sentence is finished.

7) There are four types of Thai language conjunctions, categorized by their functions. Each of them is easily confused as it is similar to using. For example, when Thais use the conjunction เพราะ /phrɔ́/ (because), they are focusing on the reason, which ซึ่ง /sɨ̂ŋ/ cannot be used to express cause and reason.

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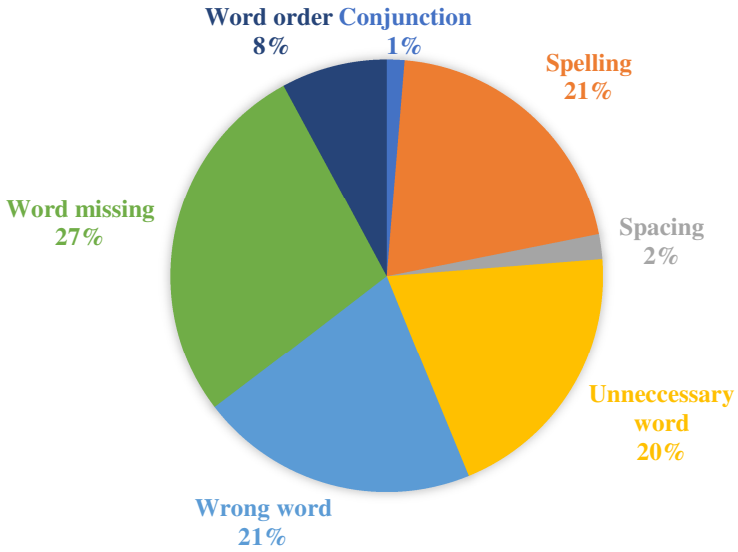
Figure 1

Percentage of Direct Feedback Used on Local Issues



In Figure 2, it illustrates the codes that teachers provided on the given assignment as follows.

1) Error codes were put to show where the mistakes were and what kind they were without any correction, a teacher used the writing error correction code and added them above the errors. The abbreviation 'O' represents omission or a missing word, whereas 'ww' and 'rep' stand for wrong word and repetition, respectively.

2) Circle symbols were drawn to refer to the indication of locations of students' mistakes. This symbol was used to focus the attention of the students on any errors

3) Like a circle, the application of correction codes can be made by underlining the mistakes to give learners information on the mistakes they made. In general, the underlining technique is mainly used in long clauses or sentences.

4) Question marks were typically positioned to the end of the sentence before spacing, or above the troublesome word. In some cases, to emphasize or limit a range, they were accompanied by the circles.

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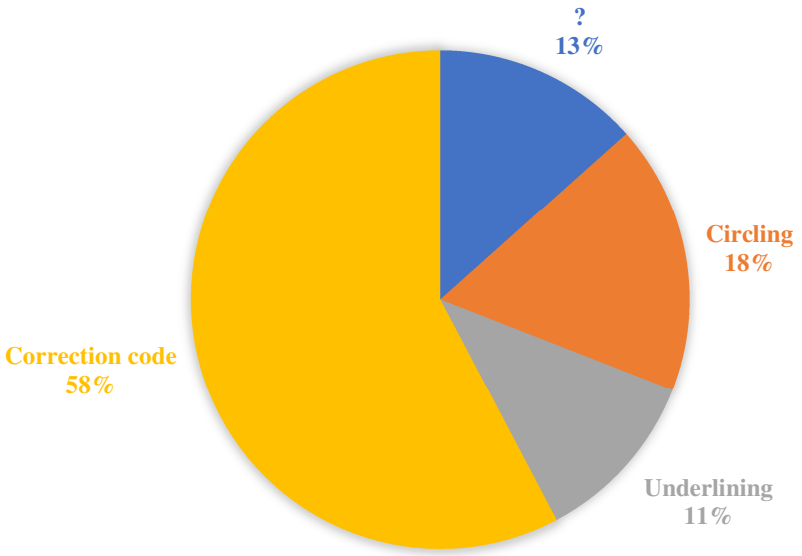
Figure 2

Percentage of Indirect Feedback Used on Local Issues



In short, their feedback tasks were analyzed according to the three categories (direct, indirect, and metalinguistic errors). It was found that, by calculating the quantity of feedback in each type, teachers gave more direct WCF than any other type of feedback (see Figure 3). Looking again at the above Figure 1, the commonly occurred errors that attracted a lot of teachers' attention were the missing words, followed by wrong words, spellings, unnecessary words, word order, and spacing. Conjunctions describing purpose were the least troublesome error. Surprisingly, no metalinguistic explanation was provided. There was a single teacher who corrected the written work using all correction codes to indicate the type of errors; the mistakes were underlined to be noticed and added the codes (i.e., sp, ww, rep, conj, v, O) above the problematic words.

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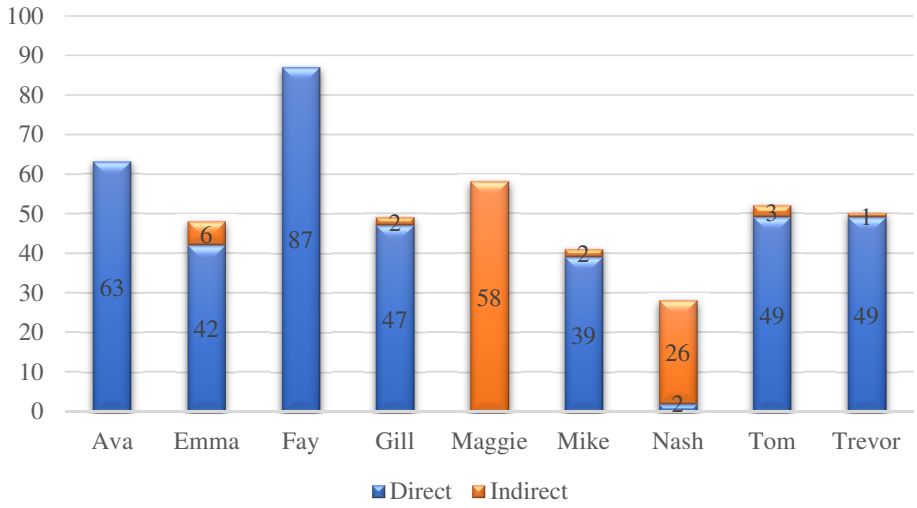
Figure 3

Proportion of Direct/Indirect Feedback Provided by Each Respondent



Considering the second question 'How did TFL teachers provide feedback?,' it was answered by examining the range of techniques and approaches for providing feedback in the task. It can be seen from Figures 4 and 5, which strategies and forms the teachers utilized on written assignments when providing WCF. The data analysis of the sample essay writing tasks indicated the most teachers preferred a red pen for corrections, as depicted in Figure 4. Red marks have been seen in the eight assignments while one lecturer used a pencil to edit students' errors.

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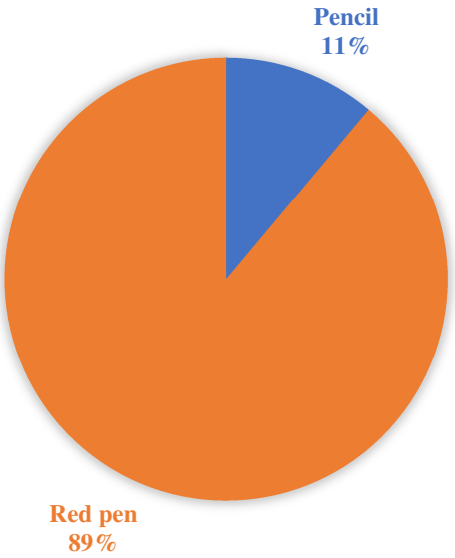
Figure 4
Strategy Used to Provide Feedback



In the light of strategies that appeared in feedback tasks, all participating teachers opted for circling the mistakes. This practice is also supported in their belief, with 100 percent of the techniques dealing with the circle. The vast number of methods relied on strikethrough, circling with the arrow, and underlining (see Figure 5). Conversely, a few teachers employed the techniques of crossing or X marking, circling and crossing, and circling and underlining. It should also be noted that they used at least five different techniques to give WCF. The sole teacher gave evaluative comments at the end of each paragraph, such as 'Good explanations but sometimes use wrong conjunctions,' 'Engrossing but the more you practice, the better you are' or 'Good explanations, captivating.'

It is commonly understood that the strikethrough and X marking technique cross a word/sentence out by drawing a line through – or two lines across – it. It means that there is something wrong with the words or sentences that have been crossed out. Some, if not all, use the strikethrough or X marking to show that there have been unnecessary words, which should be removed to be less ambiguous and more concise, in the sentences. In contrast, the circle with or without other symbols (e.g., arrow, underline, or cross) was attached with the correct forms when teachers provided direct feedback. Like a standalone circle, it appeared likely that the circle

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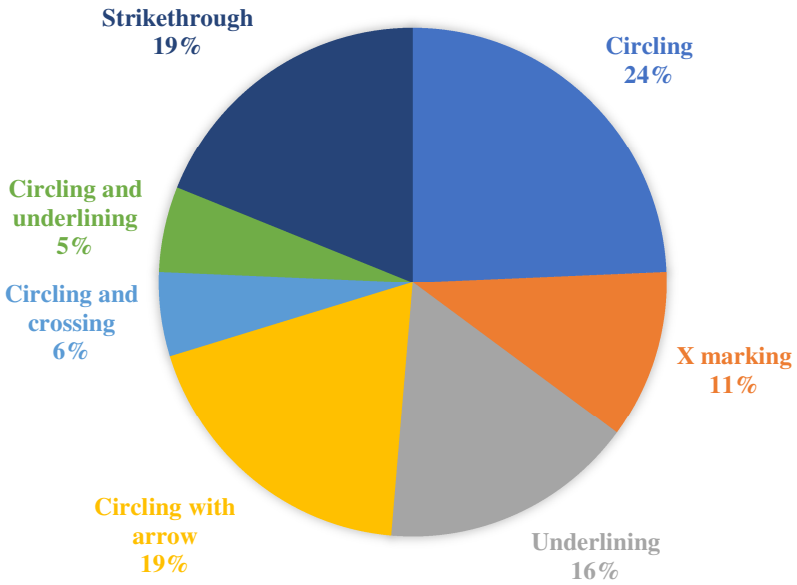
with underline or with the cross had the same effect. These marks signified the existing errors. As mentioned earlier, to illustrate an incorrect sentence, the underlining technique addressed the more explicit mistakes in terms of language style and made corrections look less damaging than other correcting symbols.

Figure 5
Form Used to Provide Feedback



4.2. Qualitative Data

4.2.1. Teacher Perception

RQ2, examining the TFL university lecturers' beliefs regarding WCF, depended on the data analysis based heavily on personal interviews. The interview analysis revealed that participants took favorable attitudes toward error correction, reflecting that it was a beneficial contribution to eliminate some mistakes in the revised version. WCF in the teaching TFL plays a pivotal role in the instructional process. Emma stated, 'It supports learners in recognizing the existence of their mistakes.' Gill argued that 'when seeing the correct forms, students became aware of how they conveyed content accurately. For instance, you knew you got eight points, but you

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did not know why you got such scores or where your mistakes were, it was far better to give feedback than to evaluate the assignments merely.' Fay emphasized that students who acknowledge the errors will 'improve and produce more precise texts.' Besides, one of the most topical issues by the participants within the WCF context was in response to the amount of error correction. A vast majority of university lecturers claimed they corrected every single error in their assignments. Gill believed that 'learners would not be aware of what is right or wrong' and in teaching writing, teachers themselves 'need to edit for clarity.' As students cannot spot any error in their works and would not realize what was wrong, Tom believed that learners preferred to be told explicitly what the right form was and were motivated to learn Thai.

4.2.2. Error Correction

Regardless, four qualified teachers (Trevor, Mike, Nash, and Emma) stated in an analogous way that they had provided partial or incomplete error corrections and ignored other mistakes. There were two reasons behind the decision. The former can explain that 'if any mistake was acceptable, it would be allowed to pass.' The latter 'depended on the levels of students' proficiency.' It meant that teacher left some errors to the learners to self-correct, or the mistakes were at an acceptable level. Compelling evidence from their marked papers showed that there was a perfect match between the beliefs and practices of TFL teachers concerning the amount of correction.

As for the reason why respondents decided to fully or partially provide feedback, there existed differing views and opinion. A majority of instructors hold their firm belief that corrective feedback was a fundamental feature of second language instruction. Emma and Mike placed limitations on time available. They typically provided more or less feedback depending heavily on the duration of time. By contrast, Nash might supply less corrective feedback than general situations because of an amount of time. The decisive factors in the provision of feedback were varied considerably according to sources of teacher beliefs and experiences. Five features to consider before giving each student some feedback on the task were identified: time available, students' personality, level of students' proficiency, degree of students' achievement, and so on. Experienced teachers expressed that they needed to give everyone feedback. The time was not a crucial factor since teachers should

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devote more time to scrutinize the tasks. Nash said, 'if I ran out of time, I would change the feedback method.' Nearly all of the lecturers said that the level of student achievement was also unconsidered.

More than half of the participants argued that different proficiency levels were brought to consider. Top performers' work would obtain less feedback than novices, for example, only circling was drawn as a symbol to delve into answers or edit by themselves. In contrast, beginners' papers were emphasized and spent more time to discuss, edit, and revise. Moreover, the interview result found that a personality had been less noticeable in providing feedback. Fay, Maggie, Emma, and Ava took care of sensitive students by giving '*messages of encouragement*.' Ava said, 'I give less feedback on students' writings than it should be' to those who have been easily preoccupied. Most qualified teachers were very much of the opinion that novice students would like to be focused on local rather than global errors. Trevor opined, 'It should only be directed at grammatical features if the topic was a bit miscellaneous. Fay also emphasized local aspects, considering grammatical errors because learners' abilities were still being reached. These beliefs were aligned with their actual practices; they focused on correcting forms over the content and located errors by applying various techniques.

4.2.3. Feedback Provision

Regarding techniques in providing CF, there were innumerable ways with which the writing tasks were dealt. The majority of university lecturers used a red pen for their comments to be recognizable and easier to remember. Even though there were some negative feelings when seeing too many reds in the first place, the number of red marks steadily declined and encouraged them to learn. Gill expressed, 'I write an evaluative note such as "well done," in the margin in red ink so that they do not experience bright red as a negative impact.' In practice, eight papers were marked with red color in relation to their beliefs. At the same time, Nash used pencils and highlighter pens, as he said 'for me, I am not fond of being edited works in pen. Too many red marks look so aggressive that I will not mark others' tasks with this color.'

Almost all the teachers had used a circle for the wrong words and written the correct form above them. When strikethrough was put against words, phrases, or sentences, in this case, students should realize that something had not been written correctly or that should be removed from the article. These beliefs were consistent with their earlier feedback tasks they marked. A key consideration in using the

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mentioned feedback strategies was a universal symbol that was understandable to everyone.

In conclusion, WCF represented the predominant instructional feature in the writing class. WCF is a part of teaching writing. Should teachers fail to do so, learners will be unable to enhance their skills. Therefore, lecturers spent more time on giving written assignments to examine and find strong points to encourage them. In doing this, even though it was a very time-consuming task and might upset some types of students, teachers, in fact, fully realized its benefits to most students.

4.3. Relationship Between their Beliefs and Practices

When asked whether teachers corrected all the errors, more than half of nine TFL teachers edited every single mistake. Interestingly, the total number of corrections from Trevor, who only gave partial feedback was higher than Gill, who believed that she provided complete error corrections in the interview, which was shown not to be in alignment with their beliefs. The tasks also reveal the teachers' practices on the provision of each type of local feedback. Seven teachers expressed a general preference for providing WCF on local grammatical errors or language expression issues. This finding appears to be in keeping with their self-reports concerning which type of WCF is more focused on writing assignments.

As mentioned previously, four hundred seventy-six feedback points were generated across the nine lecturers, with a mean average number of feedback points totaling fifty-three per 320-word text. Noticeably, there was no trace of incorrect WCF given by the teacher. One of the most extreme examples was the amount of grammar feedback by a teacher; Fay's task has been marked containing a total of eighty-seven comments.

This alignment was also apparent in the interview data, where the majority of the teachers highly emphasized the unacceptable errors which must be edited. For example, Trevor who self-reported that he could not bear to see the mistakes left forty-nine marks on the paper while Fay held strong beliefs that learners want to know their outcomes. Not surprisingly, she marked the highest number of spots. The teachers' interview data indicated that the most favored WCF was direct feedback, which is not surprising given that direct WCF accounted for the highest

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proportion of the feedback points. A majority of lecturers thought that direct WCF is the easiest way for novice students to realize that they were making errors, while Mike suggested that direct WCF improved learners' writing accuracy when considering the feedback given on their papers.

5. Discussion

5.1 What are the Beliefs of TFL Teachers Regarding WCF?

5.1.1. Teacher Perception

This question was answered satisfactorily from the interview data. The results demonstrated that the nine teachers showed favor to WCF and recognized the essence of feedback in the TFL instruction. WCF served a particularly useful purpose, but teachers adopted a different strategy to deal with learners. The findings are supported by other beliefs' studies, where WCF was perceived to be a crucial role in language teaching (Chen et al., 2016; Junqueira & Payant, 2015; Montgomery & Baker, 2007; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010). The beliefs have probably been shaped by teaching experiences. It, of course, is not surprising that given that at the time of the study, the participants have practical experience teaching Thai to foreigners in a range of 7 to 11 years (8 years on average) and possess the first-hand experience of running a writing course. They viewed themselves as TFL authorities and tended to correct a student's error to make him or her aware of what was wrong and what the correct form should have been. As stated by Eslami and Derakhshan (2020), teachers were considered to be the primary roles in the process of delivering WCF in the L2 classes. Therefore, it is also assumed, as Bitchener and Ferris (2012) note, that teachers have the required knowledge to locate where errors appeared, give useful corrective feedback on linguistic errors, and provide it in an explicit and meaningful way.

Nine participants also expressed their opinions that if student writers of Thai received error feedback from teachers, they would improve in accuracy. This result of the study differs from those of previous studies. Shintani and Ellis (2013), for example, reported that direct feedback did not affect the accuracy of a new piece of writing. There is a plausible reason for the difference in the results. As in Shintani and Ellis's (2013) research study, WCF was merely provided on a single piece of writing, and students received only one or two corrections. On the contrary, the interview results indicated that participants had previous experience of correcting

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several pieces of writing, and they discovered that learners, who obtained multiple corrections, showed some improvement in the writing accuracy. Other studies (e.g., Bitchener & Knoch, 2010b; Bitchener et al., 2005; Chandler, 2003; Ellis et al., 2008), which reported a positive effect for feedback on both the accuracy of article usage in revision and new pieces of writing, confirmed this source of respondents' beliefs.

5.1.2. Error Correction

In TFL context, an error often took place as a result of phonological and morphological complexities. It led teachers to focus on local rather than global errors. This finding can be considered consistent with Montgomery and Baker's (2007) insight that instructors gave substantial feedback on local issues (e.g., vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics). This finding is commonly reported in the literature (e.g., Chapin & Terdal, 1990; Ferris, 2006). Such results can be interpreted in at least two ways: (a) teachers are aware of the students' needs for local feedback and (b) providing organizational aspects (i.e., content and idea) or both may be an extremely time-consuming process. In other words, feedback on untreatable errors did not get much attention (Budianto et al., 2017; Lee, 2008b). However, the previous studies also reported that by providing WCF, it should be directed at treatable errors that occurred in a patterned, rule-governed way (Ferris, 1999) or grammatical features (Ellis, 1993).

5.1.3. Feedback Provision

On what factors participating teachers considered when giving feedback, the present study found that the level of student's proficiency was a crucial factor in the provision of WCF. As Esmaeeli and Sadeghi (2020) argued, the proficiency level played a crucial role in identifying which type of WCF was more beneficial. This means that teachers provide different types of WCF strategies in relation to their students' proficiency levels (Wei & Cao, 2020). In teachers' beliefs, TFL learners with low L2 proficiency would probably like to receive feedback. One possible explanation is that low-level students were unable to self-correct their errors, unlike those who reached an advanced degree. It may add support to the benefit of feedback for the weaker learners, as shown in Benson and DeKeyser's (2019) and Bitchener's (2008) studies. As such, it is not surprising that nine feedback tasks of an international student were given more direct feedback than the other two distinct types.

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The teachers believed that they employed a circle when identifying an error and used a strikethrough to cross verbiage out. There is a clear consensus that teachers' belief would be reflective of their practices. This finding is closer to Aseeri's (2019) investigation in Saudi Arabia EFL context, where the teachers preferred to locate errors by underling or circling, and writing the correct version without any chance for students to figure out. There are a substantial number of possible reasons for this explanation. Given that the respondents had focused on direct WCF and believed that students were unable to find their errors, the feasible way to locate and correct mistakes for learners was to circle, underline, or strikethrough those mistakes. It corroborates the earlier study (Lee, 2008b), which has shown that the majority of the teachers gave direct feedback in the belief that students were not able to indicate and edit errors by themselves.

5.2 What Techniques of WCF do the TFL Teachers Apply and How do Teachers' WCF Beliefs connect with their Practices?

5.2.1. Feedback Technique

From feedback task analysis, it has shown a clear pattern: the frequency of direct feedback was substantially higher than indirect and metalinguistic clues, and the average of given feedback was fifty-three marks. In terms of the extent of error correction, an enormous number of first three corrections were missing word, wrong word, and spelling. This finding is also seen in Saengawoot's (2017) research, where three aspects of errors in Thai writing of Chinese students were spelling, word usage, and sentence structure. These are categorized as treatable errors (Ferris, 1999), which are rule-governed and can be easily subjected to a direct form of WCF. It can be said that grammatical accuracy is a significant focus on examining students' writing tasks. It also seems that the most common techniques used by teachers to highlight the errors were circling, circling with the arrow, and strikethrough. Not surprisingly, Aseeri (2019) also found that most faculty members identified their students' errors by underlining or circling, which was found in Bitchener and Knoch's (2010a) study.

The finding shows a set of WCF strategies such as crossing out an unnecessary word, phrase or morpheme, circling or underlining the errors, or using cursors to show omissions in the students' text, inserting a missing word and writing the correct form above or near to the erroneous form. Ur's (2012) argument also

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supports that direct correction is more quickly accessed and more reliable. More importantly, as appeared in the tasks, eight out of nine participants used a red pen for corrections. It does not corroborate Semke's (1984) claim that the papers covered with the inevitable red marks result in looks of disappointment and discouragement on students' faces (p. 195). However, in the current study, teachers believed that it was probably best to use a vibrant color for corrections to make errors clear and visible to the student writers.

5.2.2. Connection Between Teachers' Beliefs and Practices

When considering the areas of alignment between teacher beliefs and actual practices on WCF, this study revealed that most teachers provided more direct feedback than indirect ones as they said they would. The finding is similar to those found in Lee's (2008b) study in Hong Kong, where 70 percent of the lecturers supplied direct feedback to students as they believed the student writers were unable to locate and correct errors by themselves. It is also possible that direct feedback may be the most appropriate and useful way of helping learners (Scrivener, 2005). Likewise, In Nemati et al.'s (2017) investigation, where the Iranian EFL teachers mostly gave unfocused direct WCF. As Ferris (2002) argues, direct feedback can be more beneficial to students in some contexts. It is appropriate for beginners, which helps them avoid confusion and lessens the cognitive load and enables learners to confirm their hypotheses more directly (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2014). The direct feedback helped learners better notice their interlanguage problems and provided more transparent information about the mismatch between the target and non-target forms (e.g., Bitchener & Knoch, 2010a).

Another area of alignment is that the instructors draw more attention to local issues than global feedback. It would seem axiomatic that they provided a considerable amount of the local issues and little comprehensive feedback throughout the task. This finding is indifferent from those found in Mao and Crosthwaite's (2019) Chinese EFL context, where WCF on local aspects received more attention than global errors. Instructors can easily get caught up with local, sentence-level issues rather than global. Grammatical issues can lead to the most effective revisions (Srichanyachon, 2012) since L2 students are eager to obtain the teachers' comments on their mistakes. Giving feedback in this manner corresponds

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to what the teachers believed they did, a finding corroborated by previous research (Lee, 2008b; Montgomery & Baker, 2007). A legitimate reason for this may be an issue of treatable errors. As Ellis (1993) and Ferris (1999) similarly argue that WCF should be directed at errors occurring in a patterned, rule-controlled way, or features that learners have shown that they have persistent problems. As aforementioned, the feedback tasks' analysis revealed that participants who provided extensive direct feedback went along with their belief. It appears likely that direct correction was the most common WCF strategy for local errors just as with the teachers in studies by Ferris (2006), Guénette and Lyster (2013), Lee (2008a), Lee (2009).

However, two areas were identified where the teachers' WCF practices were inconsistent with their beliefs. Firstly, it concerns the number of error correction provided, where the minority of teachers mistakenly believed they had corrected all the mistakes. They repaired a markedly smaller quantity of errors than they said they would. To date, little or no empirical research on the topic of a certain amount of feedback provided has been discussed, especially in L2 writing. Although there is little research directing a question on whether teachers should correct all the errors, it was probable that the lecturers in this study decided for themselves, which were the most critical errors to fix and which could be ignored for the moment.

Secondly, the time constraints for editing students' works appeared to influence this result even though most respondents insisted that their time had never been the determining factor. While teachers believed that direct correction could best assist their students in increasing writing accuracy, the time constraints prevented teachers from identifying all errors and writing the correct forms as required (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). This finding has also been seen in other earlier studies (Chandler, 2003; Leki, 2006; Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019). As appeared in Lee's (2008a) and Lee's (2009) findings, teacher participants lacked time to give more WCF. By the same token, eighteen ESL teachers in Guénette and Lyster's (2013) study mentioned time constraints as a critical factor affecting how they dealt with assignments.

6. Conclusion

A group of qualified teachers in the higher education setting relied mostly on direct correction when providing WCF to leaners. They believed that it was best for producing more accuracy on a revised version and new written assignments and

causing learners to become dependent on the correction process. The majority of the teachers highly emphasized the local aspects of the error corrections to boost the writing skills and language accuracy of novice students. As a result, WCF was more frequent for local than global issues in the written task. In contrast, teachers' beliefs and practices are misaligned in terms of the quantity of feedback provided and the time limitation.

The main findings suggest that the teacher should take responsibility for correcting learners' written errors. Teachers must equip strategies for dealing with issues of WCF. The training programs should emphasize the importance of practicing teachers to edit students' works to become skilful editors who can function beyond the TFL writing class. The novice teacher should be acknowledged that WCF would be useful in helping learners correct their errors in a revised version of their original text and lead to increase accuracy in new pieces of writing. Furthermore, it would be better if the workshops can provide grammatical information and editing practices with various versions to gain more WCF experience for TFL teachers.

On the one hand, TFL teachers are well aware of students' perceptions of WCF and most of them attempt to give useful feedback to their students. On the other hand, teachers may not be fully aware of how much feedback they should provide on the local and global issues nor whether the types of feedback that are needed for learners at different levels of language ability they should be employed in the written assignments. Future research could build on the methodological framework presented here and recruit students as key informants to consider whether teachers' practices are aligned with learners' perceptions and preferences. Again, it is worth investigating that a wide variety of TFL teachers working in other countries, for instance, Vietnam, Hong Kong, Singapore, Australia, France, UK, to examine the influence of students' cultural and linguistic background on WCF.

7. Limitations

Despite the new insight gained from this research, there are certain inherent limitations. The most obvious flaw was the feedback task. In this sense, the task outside their classroom may not be a naturalistic study. All teachers were asked to

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correct only one piece of writing belonging to the intermediate student writer. It would be more evident if requiring participants to provide feedback to two distinct tasks (beginner and intermediate or advanced) and compare the consequences. The discrepancies in the proficiency levels that appeared in the assignments may make it easier to argue what, why, and how teachers provide these types of WCF. Due to the limited number of participants, generalizations beyond the specific setting could not be, and were not, expected.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Student's Writing Sample

Instruction: This writing sample is a one-page essay written by an intermediate learner of Thai attending Thai Writing 2 course. The task was to describe why and how to achieve the ambition. Please provide written feedback on this paper as you would normally do with your students.

๑. ความฝันของผมเป็นนักการทูต ซึ่งผมชอบไปดูทิวทัศน์ ประสบการณ์ ประเพณี อ่านหนังสือต่างชาติ เรียนวัฒนธรรมในที่ต่างประเทพ ผมพยายามเรียนภาษาต่างประเทพ เช่น ภาษาไทย ภาษอังกฤษเป็น ผมอ่านหนังสือ ดูละคร ฟังเพลง พูดและเขียนภาษาไทยและภาษาอังกฤษบ่อย ๆ เช่น ผมพยายาม ฝึกออกเสียงถูต้อง ให้พูดคล่องกับเพื่อนได้ให้ผมซ้ำคำมากมายวันทุก อ่านเข้าเรียนหนังสือ หลังเลิกเรียนบททวนทั้งหมดวิชาเอก ผมคุยกันกับเพื่อนไทยทุกวัน รวมมีเรียนภาษาไทยยังไง เหมาะสมวิธีอย่างไร ฯลฯ ผมไปท่องเที่ยวแผ่นที่ชายฝั่งพทัยากับเพื่อน ๆ อย่างนี้เรียนฝึกภาษาไทยและคุ้น ประเพณีท้องถิ่น สุดท้ายผมชอบเรียนภาษาไทย ก็ชองพูดภาษาไทยด้วยครับ

2.ความฝันของผมเป็นนักดนตรี เพราะผมชอบฟังเพลงต่างประเทพ เพลงองกฤษ เพลงไทย เพลงญี่ปุ่น เป็นต้น เพลงให้ผู้คนกังลังจิตใจ ผู้คนเศร้า ดีใจขึ้น ผู้คนล้มเหลว สู้ๆ ได้ ซึ่งผมชอบฟังเพลงทุกวัน ผมจะ ดูรายการเพลงทางโทรทัศน์ และฟังเล่นเครื่องดนตรีที่เพื่อนตนเองฝึกเล่นกีตาร์ แต่ฝึกผลไม่ดี ผมชองเรียนความรู้ทั้งหมด ไปเรียนให้ผมดีใจ แม้ว่าเรียนไม่ดีก็ไม่เป็นไร เรียนกระบวนการก็ได้ เมืองจีนมีสุภาษิตเรียกว่า เพลงสร้างสรรค์จากในชีวิต เรียนเพลงให้ผมเข้าใจปัญญา มากมาย ทำเรื่องต้องจริงจัง พยายามทำเรื่องที่ผลไม่ดีก็ไม่เป็นไร

3. ความฝันของผมเป็นทหาร เพราะทหารเป็นแบบอย่างอันรุ่งโรจน์ที่สุด พวกเขาปกป้องมาตุภูมิแลประชาชน ทหารต่างประเทศรุกรานไม่ได้ เขามีจิตใจที่เข้มแข็ง อุทิศตนที่ไม่ความเห็นแก่ตัว จึงผมรู้สึกทหารจีนเป็นกลุ่มยิ่งใหย่ ผมอยากกลายเป็นหนึ่งคนในทหารจีน เพราะผมรักมาตุภูมิและประชาชน จึงผมอยากเป็นทหารจีน

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Appendix B

Interview Schedule

WRITTEN CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK QUESTIONS

Part I: Background Questions

Question 1: How long have you been teaching Thai to foreigners?

Question 2: What teacher training did you have?

Question 3: Did the training cover techniques for giving feedback on students' writing?

If yes, what was taught about written corrective feedback?

If no, how did you learn about written corrective feedback?

Part II: WCF Beliefs Questions

Question 4: In your opinion, what is the role of written corrective feedback in language teaching in general and in teaching Thai specifically?

Question 5: By whom should the correction be conducted? (e.g., teacher, student writer, or peer) Why?

Question 6: Should you correct all the mistakes? If not, how do you decide what to correct and what not?

Question 7: What common errors do students of Thai make in their writing in your experience?

Question 8: What factors do you take into account when giving feedback?

☐ time available

☐ students' personality

☐ level of students' proficiency

☐ level of students' achievement

☐ others (please specify……...……)

Moreover, can you give me an example of where this factor was essential/was not?

Question 9: Do you think that students of Thai who receive error correction will improve accuracy over time and produce more exact texts? Can you explain why?

Question 10: What is your approach to giving feedback on students writing in general?

Question 11a-13a will be used when noticing that teachers gave feedback on the error.

*Question 11a: Can you tell me why you decided to provide feedback in this way?

*Question 12a: How do you think students of Thai would understand it?

*Question 13a: What would it help them do?

Question 11b-13b will be used when noticing that teachers did not provide feedback on the error.

*Question 11b: Can you tell me why you did not correct this error?

*Question 12b: Do you think students of Thai will believe this is a correct sentence?

*Question 13b: Do you think students can self-edit their writing?

Question 14: How similar or different is what you did in the task to what normally do? Why?

Question 15: At the level that you usually teach, what do students of Thai want to be highlighted the feedback?

Question 16: How do students of Thai respond to written corrective feedback in your experience? Are they frustrated or pleased to receive corrective feedback?

Part III: Follow-up Questions

Question 17: Do you have further comments, suggestions, and reflections on written corrective feedback?

Question 18: Is there anything else I should be mindful of in particular, or should I consult you before using your information?

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