CAMBRIDGE

Where your world grows
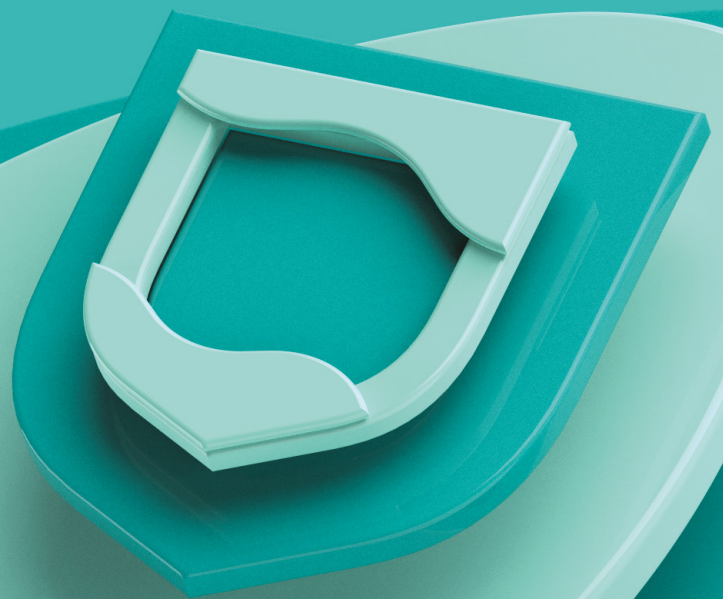
Giving feedback to language learners

Part of the **Cambridge papers in English language learning** series.
Updated January 2024

Contents

The importance of feedback

In a very widely-cited educational article, feedback was described as 'one of the most powerful influences on learning' (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 81). This influence can be both positive and negative, and this paper investigates what research can tell us about how feedback may be shaped to be more positive. Feedback is information that a learner receives about their language learning and most commonly refers to information about their language production (speaking and writing), although it can also concern reading and listening, study skills, attitudes, effort and so on. This paper focuses on feedback on speaking and writing, with most attention given to the latter,[1] and all the research discussed here concerns adult or teenage learners. Whilst some of this is relevant to learners of all ages, feedback with younger learners at less advanced stages of cognitive, social and emotional growth needs to be approached rather differently.[2]

Feedback can be both summative (an evaluation, typically given by a score, of a student's work or at the end of a period of study) and formative (information that is intended to help the learner in some way, given continuously during learning) (Lee, 2017, p. 11). This distinction is often captured in the terms 'assessment of learning (AoL)' and 'assessment for learning (AfL)'. In practice, feedback is almost always to some extent judgmental and it is often intended to serve both purposes, but how feedback is given will depend on the relative importance that is given to these broad purposes. This paper is concerned particularly with formative feedback: 'feed forward' might be a better term, as this kind of feedback provides information about what the learner can or should do next.

The most common form of feedback in language classes is probably error correction (corrective feedback), where the objective is usually to facilitate improvements in a learner's accuracy; but feedback in this paper is understood more broadly. Its three fundamental and interrelated purposes are:

- improving the fluency, accuracy or complexity of learners' speaking and writing,

- motivating learners, and

- developing learner autonomy.

In the light of these objectives, summative feedback in the form of scores is often problematic. It is known that comments and prompts lead to more learning gains than providing scores (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 92), and that comments and prompts are more likely to contribute to learning when they are not accompanied by scores (Lee, 2017, p. 20). If, as is sometimes the case with written work, it is necessary for a teacher to combine the formative and summative functions of feedback, the possibility of withholding or delaying the reporting of scores should be considered. This increases the likelihood of learners' paying attention to qualitative comments and of promoting a focus on future learning.

---

1   A more detailed discussion of feedback on spoken language can be found in another paper in this series: 'Giving feedback on speaking' (Kerr, 2017a).
2   McKay (2006) provides a good overview of the reasons why assessment of young learners (including the giving of feedback) is a 'special case'.

Comments and prompts lead to more learning gains than providing scores, and are more likely to contribute to learning when they are not accompanied by scores.

Characteristics of effective feedback

In practice, there are often a number of differences between feedback on speaking and on writing. The former is often less direct, more immediate and more public than the latter, but it is possible to describe a set of characteristics of effective feedback that are common to both.

1. Effective feedback is about learning tasks.

Hattie and Timperley (2007, pp. 90–91) distinguish feedback about the individual learner, feedback about the learner's performance on a particular task and feedback about the way that a learner has approached a task. Of these, the first is least likely to contribute to the realization of the goals of feedback. Conversely, the third, if it suggests ways that a similar task can be more successfully tackled on a subsequent occasion, offers the greatest potential. In classrooms, teachers often combine these three kinds of feedback, but this runs the risk of diluting the power of feedback on task and approaches to task (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 91).

2. Effective feedback is specific and related to learning goals.

Successful learning is most likely to take place when learners have clear and specific learning goals. Feedback which provides information about how to achieve these goals (for example, for a particular task) is more effective than general feedback.

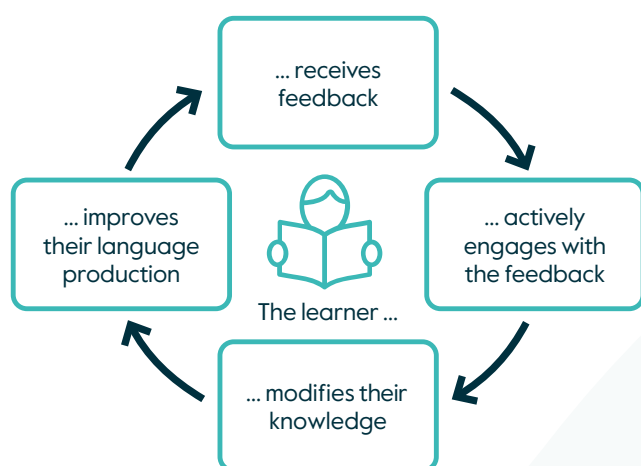**3. Effective feedback is appropriately challenging.**

Effective feedback targets areas where improvement is possible. This is most likely to be the case when a learner has partial understanding or control of an aspect of their learning, rather than a complete lack

of understanding or control. As a result, effective feedback typically focuses on things that the learner has studied recently or has previously received feedback on. It is more concerned with what a learner might be able to do better than it is with what a learner needs to get right.

4. Effective feedback entails the active involvement of the learner.

One key role of effective feedback is to nudge learners towards greater autonomy. Feedback from a teacher is not the last event in this process (Hyland, 1990, p. 285): to be effective, it needs to prompt a learner to modify their knowledge, language production or learning strategies. Active involvement on the part of the learner is therefore necessary and this is likely, over time, to entail a change in the teacher's role, as they become less 'centre-stage'.

The learner …

… receives feedback

… actively engages with the feedback

… modifies their knowledge

… improves their language production

5. Effective feedback is a combination of the positive and the negative.

Although feedback is often seen first and foremost as the drawing of attention to errors, it has been found in general educational contexts that feedback on correct responses is more effective than feedback on incorrect responses (Hattie, 2009, p. 175). It is all too easy in the course of a lesson to focus on errors and miss positive contributions (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 124), but learners need to know when they are doing something well. What is more, when feedback is public (for example, during or after a speaking activity), confirming that a student has produced accurate and appropriate language in a particular instance (such as their having avoided a very common mistake) is

likely to benefit both the individual student and others in the class, who will have their attention drawn to the language item in question (Ur, 2012, p. 91).

More generally, it can be said that feedback is most effective when it is given in the context of a supportive, non-threatening learning environment. Teachers have to balance different linguistic and interpersonal objectives when deciding what kind of feedback to give, how to give it and who to give it to (Hyland & Hyland, 2019a, p. 5), so they invariably adopt some sort of stance towards their students. The giving of feedback can be a sensitive moment. Knowing that students will respond to it in different ways (and some will feel threatened), many teachers seek to soften feedback by focusing, in part, on the positive (Rinvolucri, 1994, p. 288).

> It is all too easy in the course of a lesson to focus on errors and miss positive contributions, but learners need to know when they are doing something well.

Praise is one way in which teachers attempt to build a supportive learning environment and to mitigate the dangers of critical comments, but it needs to be approached with caution. Most, but certainly not all, learners like to be praised, publicly or privately (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 97), but praise may be discounted as 'mere dressing' (Hyland & Hyland, 2019b, p. 181). General praise (such as 'Good work!') may lead to short-term bursts of motivation, but is more effective in the long-term when it focuses on the process of a learner's work (for example, their use of strategies or improvement in a specific area) rather than on the end product (Mercer & Ryan, 2013, p. 30).

Teachers may also try to limit the potential damage of negativity by using what is known as the 'feedback sandwich', where positive feedback is presented first, followed by more critical comments, before being rounded off with more positive feedback. Although popular as a feedback strategy, there is little evidence that it is effective.

The manner of feedback delivery will also play an important role. Many teachers instinctively feel that

it is best to tone down the force of critical comments by using vague language or avoiding personal pronouns and imperatives (Hyland & Hyland, 2019b, p. 168). Desirable as this may be, the danger is that the feedback may be misunderstood. Non-verbal behaviour (facial expressions, eye movements, body postures) may also be used by teachers to soften the directness of feedback, but it is difficult to make clear recommendations in this area, given both the lack of research (Nakatsukasa & Loewen, 2017, p. 169) and the number of individual and cultural variables.

There are, however, two areas where researchers are unambivalent. In normal school classroom contexts, rewards (in the form of stickers or badges, for example) correlate negatively with both task performance and enhanced motivation, and should not, perhaps, be thought of as feedback at all (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 84). Likewise, authoritarian feedback, which is negative in content and manner and which discourages discussion, will do little to motivate learners; nor will it help them develop their language proficiency.

Beyond these general guidelines, advice to teachers is usually less clear-cut. The rest of this paper will consider the more detailed questions that need to be considered. These include[3]:

1. What sort of feedback is most beneficial to learners: corrective or non-corrective?

2. Which aspects of a learner's performance will most benefit from feedback?

3. Who should learners receive their feedback from: teachers or peers?

4. How should feedback be given: directly or indirectly? Orally or in writing?

5. When will learners most benefit from being given feedback?

---

3 These questions have been adapted from a list prepared by James Hendrickson (1978) over forty years ago. Hendrickson's focus was on correction, but in this paper the focus has been broadened to include non-corrective feedback.

Corrective feedback

The most common type of feedback given by most teachers in most classrooms is corrective feedback, which focuses on learners' errors (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 91). It has been argued, most notably by Krashen (1982, 1985) and Truscott (1996, 1999), that corrective feedback can be harmful to language acquisition, that it leads to no demonstrable gains in grammatical accuracy and that it can impact negatively on learners' feelings. Teachers, it has been suggested, should consider dropping such feedback altogether.

However, a considerable body of research (at least eighteen meta-analyses to date) now indicates that corrective feedback on both speaking and writing can indeed promote language learning, but will not *necessarily* do so. This finding, in itself, is not terribly helpful. What is needed is clearer guidance about which kinds of errors should be focused on, which feedback techniques are most effective, when the feedback should be given and who should give it.

The focus of corrective feedback

There is evidence that many teachers tend to focus on grammatical issues when giving feedback on their students' performance (Lyster et al., 2013, p. 22), but grammar is not the only aspect of a learner's language production that may benefit from feedback.

In feedback on speaking, learners may benefit more, for example, from feedback on their use of speaking strategies (such as checking understanding, buying time or self-correction) than they will from correction of their grammatical errors. Research also suggests that feedback on vocabulary and pronunciation

issues may be more helpful than grammar correction, not only because these areas lead more often than grammar to breakdowns in communication, but also because they may lead to greater learning gains (Lyster et al., 2013, p. 22).

Similarly, in discussions about feedback on writing, it is common to differentiate feedback on the content and organization of the writing from feedback on the language forms that have been used. It is generally agreed that feedback on content is at least as important as feedback on form / accuracy. One meta-analysis (Biber et al., 2011, p. 47) found that there were greater gains in grammatical accuracy when feedback focused on both content and accuracy, than when it focused on accuracy alone. Teachers who focus predominantly on grammatical accuracy in their feedback are well advised to reconsider.

> Learners may benefit more from feedback on their use of speaking strategies, such as checking understanding, buying time or self-correction, than from correction of their grammatical errors.

Examples of the range of areas that I, as a teacher, considered when deciding on feedback for a speaking and a writing task can be found overleaf (Figure 1). These were decided during lesson-planning and, in the lesson, the students were notified that feedback would only be given on these points.

A role play (CEFR level: B1)	
Fluency and interactive communication	Does the speaker speak fluently and coherently without too much hesitation or repetition?
	Does the speaker maintain the conversation through appropriate turn-taking (initiating and responding to utterances) and the use of a variety of speaking strategies?
	Does the speaker make use of a range of discourse markers?
Pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar	How intelligible is the speaker (i.e. do problems with sounds, stress or intonation cause problems with comprehension?)?
	Does the speaker have a wide enough range of vocabulary to express their ideas?
	Does the speaker use grammar accurately enough to be comprehensible?

Writing a narrative (CEFR level: B1)	
Content and communicative achievement	Is the story interesting?
	Does the story hold the reader's attention?
Organization	Is the story organized in a clear, readable way?
	Is the sequence of events in the story easy to follow?
	Does the story have a clear beginning, middle and end?
Language	Does the writing contain a good range of appropriate vocabulary to tell the story?
	Does the writer use appropriate past tenses and linking words to help the reader follow the story?
	Do errors of grammar, vocabulary, punctuation or spelling make it difficult to understand the story?

Figure 1. Examples of the range of areas for which feedback could be given on a typical speaking or writing task

Both common sense and research suggest that corrective feedback will only be effective if it suits a learner's level of language development (Sheen, 2011, p. 11), and therefore, their readiness for the feedback. In spoken language, this means that mistakes caused by time pressure or competing attentional resources are likely to be most appropriate as targets for feedback. In both speaking and writing, forms that a learner has not yet begun to acquire may be better ignored for the time being. Since different students in a class will be at different levels of language development, a degree of personalization in feedback will be necessary. However, judging a learner's readiness for a particular kind of feedback will remain an art, not a science.

> Some learners may expect the teacher to correct all the errors in their written work, but comprehensive error correction has little to recommend it.

It is common practice to categorize errors as a way of deciding which corrections will be most beneficial. Useful categories include the following:

- 'Global errors', i.e. those which interfere with comprehension, rather than 'local errors', which do not affect intelligibility,

- Errors that are made frequently by the student(s), rather than infrequent error types,

- 'Stigmatizing errors', i.e. those which may offend the target reader or interlocutor,

- Errors that are specific to the kind of spoken interaction that students are engaged in, or to the genre of text they are writing (such as degrees of formality),

- Errors that can, after some prompting, be self-corrected by the student, and

- Errors that are related to areas of language which have recently been studied in class.

It cannot be said that any one of these categories is a stronger candidate for correction than the others. All of them may be justifiably used. With written work, some learners may expect the teacher to correct all their errors, but comprehensive error correction has little to recommend it. It is extremely time-consuming for teachers, and the returns in terms of learning gains may be very limited. It may encourage students to over-prioritize grammatical accuracy, at the expense of other aspects of their writing, and it may be confusing and discouraging. In practice, especially with feedback on spoken language, teachers will need to operate some sort of selection policy, because, without it, the feedback would be overwhelming. For corrective feedback on both speaking and writing, less is often more (Lee, 2017; 2019).

Techniques for corrective feedback

The choice of feedback techniques available to teachers is wide, but may be broadly categorized by the degree of directness.

In feedback on both spoken and written language, there appears to be a strong preference for indirect feedback on the part of language teaching methodologists and many teachers. There are two main reasons for this. Firstly, it is thought that indirect feedback may induce less anxiety in learners, especially in the case of feedback on spoken language. Secondly, it is believed that indirect feedback is more likely to lead to learning because it requires learners to do more of the work themselves: they are required to take a more active role in their own learning, and this should help memorization and automatization.

In feedback on writing, correction codes are popular with many teachers (see Figure 3). An interesting variation on correction codes has been offered by Valenzuela (2005), who suggests a colour system where good work as well as errors can be highlighted.

	Techniques for feedback on spoken language	Techniques for feedback on written language
Indirect ↓ **Direct**	· The teacher says that they do not understand the learner's utterance. · The teacher uses rising intonation to repeat the phrase and stresses the error it contains. · The teacher repeats the beginning of the phrase which contained the error, but stops before the error in order to elicit the correction. · The teacher gives a short clue to the way an error needs to be corrected (e.g. 'Past tense?' or 'Article?') · The teacher provides the corrected form and stresses the correction. · The teacher gives a short explanation of why an error needs to be corrected and provides the correct form.	· A mark in the margin indicates that there is an error in a particular line of text. · An error is underlined, but no further information is given. · A mark in the margin, accompanied by an error code (such as 'Sp' for spelling, or 'WO' for word order), indicates that there is an error of a particular kind in a particular line of text. · An error is underlined, accompanied by an error code. · An error is underlined, accompanied by a brief explanation of why a correction is needed. · A correction is provided. · A correction is provided, accompanied by a brief explanation of why the correction is needed.

Figure 2. Examples of more or less direct techniques for giving corrective feedback on speaking or writing tasks

G grammar	T tense	Ø not necessary
MW missing word	WC word choice	/ start a new sentence
P punctuation	WO word order	∧ something is missing
Sp spelling	WW wrong word	??? very unclear

Figure 3. An example of a correction code for giving feedback on written work

A majority of learners, however, both adults and those in secondary education, seem to prefer more direct, explicit feedback (Lyster et al., 2013, p. 7; Zhang & Rahimi, 2014, p. 433; Li & Vuono, 2019, p. 104). It is possible that they like the idea of direct correction more than the reality of it: for example, when direct correction is too negative and too public, they might in fact prefer something more indirect.

In some cases, direct feedback is the only realistic possibility (Ferris, 2002). For example, there may be occasions when a teacher wishes to correct an error because it interferes with communication, but it is unlikely that the learner will be able to self-correct after prompting. Direct feedback may also, at times, be preferable to indirect feedback because there is less risk of learners misunderstanding the teacher's signal. For these reasons, it is likely that direct feedback will feature more often in classes of lower-level students than with more advanced learners.

Researchers are divided on the issue. Some, like Ellis et al. (2006), have found direct correction to be more effective than indirect correction. Others, like Li (2010), have found direct correction to be more effective in the short-term, but less so in the long-term. Still others, like Lyster & Saito (2010), have found little difference between the two. It is unlikely that researchers will ever be able to state that one kind of feedback is always better than another. In the absence of a verdict, practical considerations, specific to particular classroom moments, will inevitably influence the teacher's approach.

> A majority of learners seem to prefer more direct, explicit feedback to more indirect approaches, but research is divided on the issue. It is unlikely that researchers will ever be able to state that one kind of feedback is always better than another.

The timing, audience and channel of corrective feedback

The questions of when, to whom (to individuals or to groups) and how (spoken, written or digital) feedback should be given are closely interrelated.

In feedback on spoken language, teachers may choose to wait until the end of an activity or to correct errors immediately. The former is often recommended by methodologists[4] for several practical reasons:

- it does not interrupt the flow of communication,

- it is less likely to cause anxiety (since feedback can be directed towards the whole class rather than one individual),

- it makes it possible to focus the attention of the whole class on an error and its correction,

- it allows teachers to be more selective in their choice of errors to focus on, and

- it is easier to combine positive, non-corrective feedback with the error correction.

---

4   A distinction is often drawn between 'methodologists', such as Harmer (2015) or Ur (2012), who focus on offering practical, classroom-based advice to teachers, and 'researchers', whose work is often more academic.

Such feedback can be given via audio or video recordings, as can transcriptions of speech that have been made with speech-to-text software. With smaller classes, individualized feedback sheets may be provided.

Researchers, in contrast to methodologists, have shown more interest in immediate feedback than in delayed feedback and have suggested that it may lead to more learning gains (Doughty, 2001). Some research has shown that learners generally prefer immediate feedback (Zhang & Rahimi, 2014, p. 433), but other studies have painted a picture that is less clear. In short, there is no clear consensus about whether immediate or delayed feedback is better (Ellis & Shintani, 2013, p. 276). Given the difficulties in separating out the various issues that are involved, it is unlikely that there will ever be a consensus.

As for feedback on written language, this can take place during or after the writing itself. In the former case, teachers may go around the class correcting as students write, but this raises two significant problems. The first is practical: how feasible is it to allocate equal attention to students in a large class? The second concerns the impact on the writing: will the feedback break a learner's flow or concentration, and might it deprive the learner of the opportunity to self-correct? This is not to say that on-the-spot correction of writing has no value, but it may be better left to occasions when the feedback is requested by the learner or when the learner is off-task.

Feedback on written language most often takes place after the writing, but teachers are still faced with a large number of options. Written feedback is probably the most frequently used approach and has the advantage of providing a permanent record, but oral feedback allows for more dialogue and negotiation. Teachers can begin with less direct feedback, encouraging learners to self-correct, before moving on, if necessary, to more direct comments (Nassaji, 2017, p. 120). Many learners prefer feedback when there is an opportunity to discuss it, and the more actively they take part in such discussions, the more likely they are to benefit from it.

As with delayed feedback on spoken tasks, teachers may choose to give feedback to the whole class (especially if there are common problems); or they may choose to give illustrative feedback. Nation (2009, p. 141) suggests that one way of doing this is by selecting the work of two or three students (with their permission, and, possibly, without naming the students concerned), projecting it on to the board and going through it orally with the whole class, using a combination of direct and indirect comments.

Individualized oral feedback may be possible in some contexts, but it is extremely time-consuming. One approach that is widely used in higher education settings is known as 'conferencing', where feedback is given on a portfolio containing several pieces of a student's work. Conferences are usually popular with both teachers and students, but still require a lot of time. In order for them to be time-effective, they require careful planning[5] and a range of interaction skills from both the teacher and the student (Hyland & Hyland, 2019a, p. 6).

---

5   Valuable practical advice about the planning and management of conferences can be found in Chapter 8 ('Portfolios in Classroom L2 Writing Assessment') of Lee (2017).

Peer feedback

Peer feedback, where one learner gives feedback to another, is often recommended by both methodologists and researchers (Burkert & Wally, 2013). The reasons given in support of peer feedback include the following:

- It can benefit both the receiver and the giver of feedback, although it remains unclear who will benefit more (Storch & Aldossary, 2019, p. 124).

- It requires the givers of feedback to listen to or read attentively the language of their peers, and, in the process, may provide opportunities for them to make improvements in their own speaking and writing (Alshuraidah & Storch, 2019, pp. 166–167).

- It can facilitate a move away from a teacher-centred classroom, and promote independent learning (and the skill of self-correction) as well as critical thinking (Hyland & Hyland, 2019a, p. 7).

- The target reader is an important consideration in any piece of writing (it is often specified in formal assessment tasks). Peer feedback may be especially helpful in developing the idea of what audience the writer is writing for (Nation, 2009, p. 139).

- Many learners are very receptive to peer feedback (Biber et al., 2011, p. 54).

- It can reduce a teacher's workload.

Peer feedback is likely to be most effective when it is integrated into classroom practice as a normal and regular activity, rather than as a one-off (Lee, 2017, p. 95). It should be noted that, despite these possible advantages, there is no evidence that clearly demonstrates the superiority of peer feedback over teacher feedback in all contexts.

Attractive as it sounds, peer feedback is not without its problems and may not always be possible. The most common problem concerns learners' attitudes towards peer feedback: some learners are not receptive to feedback from their peers, preferring feedback from their teachers (Maas, 2017), and some learners may be reluctant to offer peer feedback for fear of giving offence. Peer feedback has to be managed carefully to ensure that learners, either those receiving or those giving the feedback, are not put in an uncomfortable position. Other problems with peer feedback surround the quality of feedback that peers are able to give. However, some research suggests that these problems might be addressed by training students on giving effective peer feedback (Lam, 2010).

> Peer feedback is likely to be most effective when it is integrated into classroom practice as a normal and regular activity, rather than as a one-off.

In addition, learners have a tendency to focus on grammatical accuracy, rather than on the communicative success (or otherwise) of their peers' speaking or writing. This raises issues concerning the language level and the grouping of the learners involved in peer feedback, but it is also probable that peer feedback is of greater value when it focuses on the content and organization of what has been expressed.

Both methodologists and researchers conclude that learners in all contexts will benefit from being given feedback by peers. The following suggestions may be helpful:

- Try to make sure that all learners are both givers and receivers of feedback.

- Make sure that learners are aware of what the focus of peer feedback should be. Checklists, written guidelines or adapted versions of the evaluation forms in the section 'The focus of corrective feedback' (pp. 6–7, above) will play a useful role.

- Encourage learners to give more global feedback (i.e. comments on the overall communicative impact) before more specific comments. If a speaking or writing task is going to be repeated in some way, the focus of peer feedback can shift from more global to more specific in the second or third iteration of the task.

- Decide whether the feedback should be given orally or in writing, in English or in the learners' own language (if the latter is likely to be clearer).

- Provide a model yourself (perhaps using a piece of writing or a recording of a speaking task from another class) of how the peer feedback should proceed.

- Explain the reasons for doing peer feedback activities.

- Encourage learners to talk about how they feel about peer feedback and how they would like to do things differently on a subsequent occasion.

- Consider using teacher feedback after there have been opportunities for peer feedback and for learners to incorporate the ideas from peer feedback into subsequent iterations of the task.

In delayed feedback on speaking activities, it is common for teachers to invite all the students in a class to suggest improvements on an error from an anonymized utterance. When working with recordings or transcriptions of speech, it is possible for peer feedback to be more extensive and more independent of the teacher's promptings, in a very similar way to peer feedback on written work. This can be done with learners working in pairs or in small groups. Both require suitable matches of the attitudes, personalities and interactive skills of the participants. An appropriate match of language proficiency level will also be desirable if the focus of feedback is on accuracy. Groups may offer a wider and more interesting range of feedback (Burkert & Wally, 2013, p. 75), but pairs are often more manageable, especially with younger learners, as long as both learners get along (Lee, 2017, p. 94).

Collaborative writing

Collaborative writing[6] , where two or more learners work together to produce a jointly composed text, necessarily entails considerable amounts of peer feedback (Alshuraidah & Storch, 2019, p. 166). This may take place in the classroom or with online sharing tools, such as Google Docs and wikis, which are two of the most popular for this purpose, especially in EAP contexts. Because the learners share responsibility for shaping and prioritizing their ideas, and because the dividing line between writing and editing becomes blurred, a greater quantity of more constructive feedback may be offered than in feedback on individually produced texts and the participants are likely to be more motivated by and responsive to it (Tigchelaar & Polio, 2017, p. 108). Researchers have found that collaborative writing leads to more accurate texts than those produced by individuals

and that the process of discussing the organization of ideas and issues of language use is likely to be beneficial to language learning more generally. As a follow-up to a collaborative writing task, learners may exchange their work with another pair or group of students to offer and receive further feedback.

> Researchers have found that collaborative writing leads to more accurate texts than those produced by individuals.

Learner-directed feedback

It was suggested above that peer feedback may be a valuable stepping-stone on the way towards more independent learning. On the path towards this goal, feedback will need to accommodate individual expectations and this means that some sort of dialogue about the kind of feedback that is desired will be appropriate (Hyland, 2003, p. 180). Nancy Campbell and Jennifer Schumm Fauster (2013) have proposed a system where students prepare a set of questions to guide the feedback from their teachers on a piece of academic writing. Students are given suggestions, ranging from broad questions about the organization of their text or reader-friendliness to more detailed questions about word choice, sentence structure or layout.

Although their suggestions and further discussion of these ideas (such as by Maas, 2017) concern teacher feedback on academic writing, the approach may also be used with more advanced learners as a way of structuring peer feedback on spoken as well as written language.

---

6   For more detailed information about collaborative writing, see Storch, N. (2013). *Collaborative Writing in L2 Classrooms*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Responses to feedback

Feedback of whatever kind is, of course, of little or no value unless learners learn from it. Some learners, some of the time, pay more attention to feedback than others (see 'Individual differences,' below). Learning from feedback cannot be forced: the teacher's task is to try to create the right conditions for learning to take place.

Direct, explicit feedback in which the teacher provides a corrected reformulation of an error often requires the learner to repeat the correction, especially in feedback on speaking. Since this may be no more than simple parroting, there is little guarantee that benefits will accrue. More indirect feedback, which requires learners to self-correct, would seem to offer more potential for learning (but see the discussion above in the section 'Techniques for corrective feedback'). In feedback during or immediately after speaking activities, there is very little delay between the teacher's prompt and the self-correction. An alternative to asking a learner to self-correct is a repetition of the task (with a different role, a different partner, or after additional planning time)[7].

> Learning from feedback cannot be forced: the teacher's task is to try to create the right conditions for learning to take place.

Learners often respond positively to task repetition with speaking activities. But with written work, many students, however much they value a teacher's corrections, are often reluctant to engage in second or further iterations of their work. Nevertheless, most researchers and methodologists agree that redrafting, or what is known as 'process writing'[8], should form a key part of classroom practice (McGarrel, & Verbeem, 2007, p. 228). Seen as the most effective way of improving learners' writing skills (Sheen, 2011, p. 35), it needs considerable amounts of time and takes students through a sequence of planning (brainstorming, evaluating and organizing ideas), quick first drafts (leaving gaps or using the first language if necessary) and subsequent drafts moving towards a final product. The focus at first, for both the learners and for the teacher in giving feedback, is on content and fluency, and only moves towards questions of grammatical accuracy in the later stages.
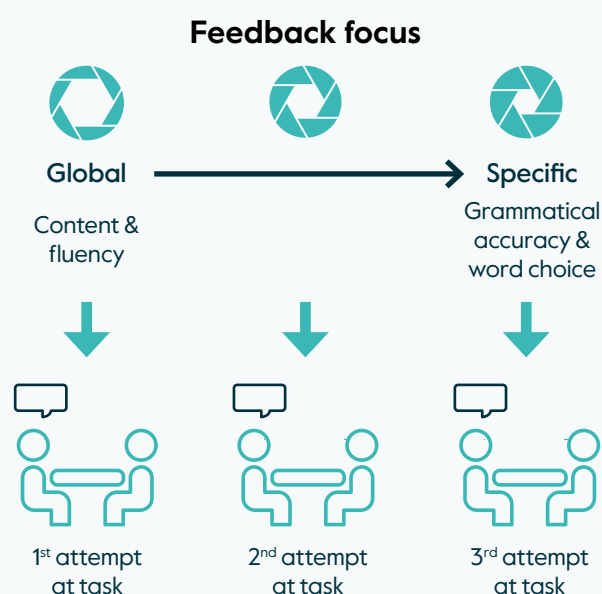

Feedback focus

Global — Specific

Content & fluency — Grammatical accuracy & word choice

1st attempt at task | 2nd attempt at task | 3rd attempt at task

Figure 4. The changing focus of feedback in repetitions of a task

---

7   For a fuller discussion of repetition of spoken tasks, see Kerr, P. (2017b). *How much time should we give to speaking practice?* Part of the Cambridge papers in English language learning series. [pdf] Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
8   For a good description of process writing, see White, R. V. & Arndt, V. (1991). *Process Writing*. London: Longman.

The feedback on process writing is, therefore, mostly indirect, taking the form of personalized, non-judgmental questions that are designed to help the writer better express their meanings. One of the key objectives of this formative, dialogic strategy is to motivate learners to undertake revisions to their earlier drafts (McGarrel & Verbeem, 2007, p. 229). As such, process writing represents a very significant departure from more traditional approaches to writing instruction where a single draft is evaluated with a grade, accompanied by more detailed feedback comments. As with collaborative writing, which can be combined with process writing, it will lead to greatest learning gains if it becomes a regular feature of classroom practice. Used most frequently with more advanced learners in both face-to-face and online contexts, it also lends itself readily to secondary school contexts, where further motivation may be generated by posting the final product on a blog, wiki or school magazine.

From the examples above, it becomes clear that attempts to promote engagement with feedback may entail fairly major changes to course planning and lesson structure. Feedback thus becomes a fundamental and integrated part of instruction, rather than just one feature of it.

Feedback and technology

In the last twenty years, we have seen a huge rise in the numbers of learners following English courses partly (blended) or fully online.[9] At the same time, there has been a massive increase in the number of tools that are available to facilitate the provision of feedback on learners' spoken and written English. Any attempt to give recommendations for specific tools is likely to be out of date within a matter of months, so this review will limit itself to more general considerations with only occasional reference to particular products.

The first affordance of digital technology in the area of feedback is the ease with which language can be recorded. Texting and emailing, voice and video messaging, along with automatic transcription of speech on smartphones and laptops, are becoming or have become part of everyday life. These recordings enormously extend the range of feedback possibilities, especially when compared to the short-lived nature of spoken classroom speech. A broad distinction may be drawn between feedback that is mediated by technology (such as written feedback from a teacher on an electronic document) and feedback that is automated through technology (such as a spellcheck).

> Once they are accustomed to it, it appears that most students prefer multimedia feedback to purely written comments.

The online equivalent of immediate classroom feedback on spoken language is possible with most platforms (such as Skype, Zoom or MS Teams) where spoken interaction and text comments may be combined. Digital technologies, however, are most often used for asynchronous (or delayed) feedback with both spoken and written English. These may be in the form of text, audio (with or without video), or a combination of the two. When introducing online feedback to learners, it is probably a good idea to begin with text-based feedback before moving onto audio, which, if given in English, may be harder to understand (Olesova & Richardson, 2017, p. 89).

Most text-based feedback is delivered by means of a word processor, such as Microsoft Word or Google Docs, where textual annotations (underlining, highlighting), comment boxes, footnotes, tracked changes and the possibility of comparing two documents are possible. In addition, hyperlinks to useful resources (dictionaries, grammar references or model answers) can easily be included. Audio feedback, using either the sound-recording tool on a mobile phone or laptop, or a more specialized audio recorder like Vocaroo or Audacity, allows for more extensive feedback, since three to four times more feedback can be spoken than written in the same amount of time. When accompanied by written notes, greater clarity can also be achieved. It also allows teachers to provide more easily a mixture of direct and indirect comments, appear more personalized and help to build rapport. Once they are accustomed to it, it appears that most students prefer this kind of feedback to purely written comments (Stannard, 2017, p. 181).

---

9   For more discussion and examples of such courses, see Anny King's (2016) paper in this series: *Blended Language Learning*.

Combining text-based and audio feedback through screen-capture software (such as Screencast-O-Matic or Snagit) offers even greater potential. This allows a video-capture of a teacher's screen as they go through and annotate a student's work whilst recording comments at the same time. It is, as Stannard (2017) observes, comparable to having a teacher sitting in the room next to the student, but with the additional advantage of allowing the student to play back the screen-capture multiple times, offering opportunities for extensive listening and reading practice. The danger of audio- and screen-capture software is that teachers may be encouraged to overload the feedback. As noted earlier, less is often more. Decisions taken beforehand about what type of feedback to focus on may help to prevent overload.

With all the options for technologically mediated feedback (whether it is teacher- or peer-led), givers of feedback will benefit from training, in terms of both the focus of their feedback and its delivery (tone of voice, speed and clarity, and the ordering of ideas). In addition, training may be needed for the practical side of the technology and to avoid distractions while using it.

Finally, the rapid development of AI (in particular generative AI) adds an important new dimension to how we can use digital tools to provide feedback to our students. However, the AI landscape changes fast, and it is not yet clear the exact role it will play, how effective it will be at doing that, and what the safeguarding and ethical considerations will be. It is highly likely that human intervention and

interpretation will always be necessary to make the most effective use of AI-generated feedback: any feedback that is automatically generated will not have the contextualization and personalization that feedback from a teacher who knows their students is able to give. Nonetheless, AI-generated feedback may still transform how teachers generate and deliver feedback, and how students receive, process and implement feedback.

Automated feedback

Recent years have also seen rapid advances in technologies for providing automated feedback. Using a combination of computational linguistics and artificial intelligence, Automated Writing Evaluation (AWE) systems scan a text (either a written text or a transcription of spoken language) in order to find possible errors. Most of these systems have not been designed for English language learners and are not really suitable for them, but one example of an automated feedback tool that has been developed for this purpose is Write & Improve. Learners copy and paste a text they have written into a box and receive a grade (using the Common European Framework of Reference[10]) for their work, along with suggestions for improvement. After making revisions, the text can be resubmitted as often as desired. Under development from the same team is Speak & Improve, where learners communicate with a speech robot and receive feedback on their language.

Automatic Writing Evaluation systems are best used in combination with teacher and peer feedback.

AWE systems are not foolproof and will sometimes suggest modifications to correct language that is already appropriate or miss some errors, but their accuracy is improving, particularly with the rapid development of AI. These systems typically use a probability score to calculate the likelihood of an error and offer indirect, semi-directive feedback. They are more effective at picking up lower-level errors than they are at identifying problems with content, organization or style (Stevenson & Phakiti, 2019, p. 134).

Because of these limitations, AWE is best used in combination with teacher and peer feedback, in the context, for example, of a process writing approach. It may free teachers from some of their workload, but, if used as a replacement for other forms of feedback, risks promoting a restricted view of language proficiency focused primarily on grammatical and collocational accuracy. We can expect AWE systems to develop further for the purposes of summative evaluation (in formal examinations, for example), but successful automation of the complex interrelations of formative feedback (intended to promote individual learning) may not be achievable (Ferreira et al., 2007, p. 398). As was mentioned above, it is likely that human intervention and interpretation will always be necessary to make the most effective use of AWE and other forms of AI-generated feedback.

---

10 The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR) is available at **https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages**. An updated version, the CEFR Companion Volume (2017), is available at https://www.coe.int/en/web/education/-/the-cefr-companion-volume-with-new-descriptors-is-now-available-online-.

Individual differences

As we have seen, research findings may help us to move in the direction of an appropriate policy towards feedback but they need to be considered in combination with an understanding of individual differences. Feedback is 'a highly complex psychological and social activity' (Sheen, 2011, p.16) and individual learner differences of the kind listed below will impact on the way that learners respond to it.

Age, level and cognitive differences

Very little research has been carried out into the significance of a learner's age in their response to feedback. Learners' level has been studied more often, but the findings are contradictory. For writing, one meta-analysis found that the accuracy of lower-level learners improved more with feedback, while another found that more advanced learners benefited more.[11] For speaking, the picture is no clearer. Besides age and level, it is likely that cognitive differences, such as language learning aptitude and working memory, will also play a role.

Affective differences

- Equally important are affective differences.

- One of the most important affective differences is the anxiety levels of the learner. Low anxiety will almost certainly help learners to benefit from corrective feedback on their speaking (Zhang & Rahimi, 2014), but may be less significant with their writing, as the feedback is usually delayed.

- Motivation, too, will affect the degree to which a learner attends to feedback, and personal learning goals will play a part here. A learner who needs immediate 'survival English', for example, may well be less interested in accuracy than another who is preparing for an examination.

- Learners will also bring different sets of beliefs and attitudes to feedback. To a certain extent, these will be shaped by previous learning experiences, and it is not uncommon for students in secondary education to be accustomed to having all their errors corrected. The somewhat problematic result of this practice may be that learners come to associate good speaking or writing with good grammar (Hyland, 2019, pp. 270–271). Research (Li & Vuono, 2019) has repeatedly shown that most students expect and want to be corrected (comprehensively, directly and by the teacher) and that they are more interested in grades than they are in formative comments (Lam & Lee, 2010). Paradoxically, of course, they may not be happy with the actual feedback that they receive!

Contexts

A third factor of importance is the context in which feedback is given and received. Schools and colleges, and the classes in them, vary in the extent to which accuracy is prioritized over communicative competence. In addition, social relationships in the

---

11   The research referred to here can be found in Biber et al. (2011) and Kang & Han (2015).

classroom between students and between a student and a teacher are also likely to influence the extent to which feedback (both non-corrective and corrective) leads to learning gains.

Teacher beliefs

Lee (2011) has suggested that feedback strategies will only work if teachers believe they can work. However, it would seem that that mismatches between teachers' beliefs and their feedback approaches are common (Sheen, 2011, p. 49). Researchers have found, for example, that although teachers may believe that the awarding of grades may detract attention away from other comments, they often continue to score students' work. Likewise, although they may have

doubts about the payoff from detailed feedback, they often continue to provide it. In order to minimize these mismatches, teacher education may be helpful, but institutional support and allowing teachers to be more autonomous in their classrooms will also be necessary (Lee, 2011).

All of these factors interact in complex, interrelated and dynamic ways (Bitchener & Storch, 2016, p. 26), meaning that it is very difficult to predict how a particular learner will react to a particular piece of feedback on a particular aspect of their performance. Clearly, the better that teachers and their students know each other, the more likely it is that reaction to feedback will be as hoped for.

Key takeaways from research

After decades of research, applied linguists now generally agree that we are unlikely ever to be able to identify the perfect recipe for giving feedback to language learners (Ellis, 2009, p. 106; Sheen, 2011, p. ix). It is understood that, for feedback to be effective, it must take into account a very wide range of linguistic, individual and contextual variables, meaning that what works for one learner on one occasion may not work for another. It is not uncommon for teachers to spend considerable amounts of time giving feedback on spoken and written language, but still feel they could be doing it better (Hyland & Hyland, 2006, p. 83). Methodologists and teacher trainers often give conflicting advice, so where can teachers turn?

This paper has attempted to provide a partial answer to this question. Firstly, teachers (and their students) will benefit from a deeper understanding of the key issues that underpin decisions about feedback. Secondly, they will benefit from having a wider variety of practical feedback strategies to select from. Ellis (2009, p. 107) recommends that teachers systematically experiment with different feedback options, constantly evaluating their effectiveness and relevance with particular learners. At the very least, this should go some way towards meeting the needs and preferences of individual learners, although there can be no guarantee of a perfect match. Variety also has the added advantage of making feedback more salient, and thus of encouraging learners to notice it.

After decades of research, applied linguists now generally agree that we are unlikely ever to be able to identify the perfect recipe for giving feedback to language learners.

The table (Fig. 5) is intended not as a list of firm guidelines, but as a menu of suggestions for teachers to experiment with.

Perhaps most importantly, feedback needs to be considered as an integral part of the approach to teaching. It is not just 'a decoration on the cake or an additional asset that's worth having' (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 123). It defines and exemplifies a teacher's approach to their work: to teach is to provide feedback (Fanselow, 1987, p. 267). Experiments with feedback strategies are, therefore, one of the most powerful forms of teacher development.

Feedback defines and exemplifies a teacher's approach to their work: to teach is to provide feedback.

Quantity and kind of feedback
· Correct fewer errors and reduce your workload.
· Be more selective in giving feedback.
· Give more positive, and less corrective, feedback.
· Var y the focus of your feedback.
· Announce, in advance, what the focus of feedback will be.
· Experiment with different balances of direct and indirect, delayed and immediate feedback.
· Make feedback specific to different learning tasks (i.e. not always with a focus on grammatical accuracy).
· Take individual learner differences into account and personalize feedback.
· Encourage self-evaluation.
· Encourage peer feedback.
· Include more opportunities for spoken task repetition and redrafting of written work.

Attitudes towards feedback
· Find out about and respond to your learners' preferences.
· Discuss your approach to feedback with your learners.
· Use feedback to build motivation and confidence.
· Give formative feedback first and withhold (or delay) grades on written work.
· Experiment with different channels for feedback (digital, audio).
· Incorporate feedback as a coherent and organic part of your approach to instruction.

Figure 5. Practical options for teachers to experiment with giving feedback.

Recommendations for further reading

There are a number of practical guides to correction for language teachers. Two are especially recommended:

- Bartram, M. and Walton, R. (1991). *Correction*. Hove, Sussex: LTP.

- Edge, J. (1990). *Mistakes and Correction*. London: Longman.

On positive, non-corrective feedback, there is a useful chapter in:

- Scrivener, J. (2012). *Classroom Management Techniques*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 163–166.

More detailed discussion of feedback on speaking may be found here:

- Kerr, P. (2017a). *Giving feedback on speaking.* Part of the Part of the Cambridge papers in English language learning series. [pdf] Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
  Available at **cambridge.org/english-insights**

For feedback on writing, the following is highly recommended:

- Lee, I. (2017). *Classroom Writing Assessment and Feedback in L2 School Contexts*. Singapore: Springer.

Author

Philip Kerr is a teacher trainer and ELT materials writer based in Vienna, Austria. He is the author or co-author of titles in a number of coursebook series, including *Evolve, Studio, Straightforward and Inside Out*. He is also the author of the award-winning *Translation and Own-Language Activities* and two ebooks, *A Short Guide to Adaptive Learning in ELT and How to Write Vocabulary Presentations and Practice*.

Available at cambridge.org/english-insights

To cite this paper:

Kerr, P. (2024). *Giving feedback to language learners*. Part of the Cambridge papers in English language learning series.. [pdf] Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Available at cambridge.org/english-insights

Bibliography

Alshuraidah, A. and Storch, N. (2019). Investigating a collaborative approach to feedback. *ELT Journal*, 73(2), pp. 166–174.

Bartram, M. and Walton, R. (1991). *Correction*. Hove, Sussex: LTP.

Biber, D., Nekrasova, T., and Horn, B. (2011). *The Effectiveness of Feedback for L1-English and L2-Writing Development: A Meta-Analysis, TOEFL iBT RR-11-05*. Princeton: Educational Testing Service. Available at: **https://www.ets.org/Media/Research/pdf/RR-11-05.pdf** [Accessed 30 November 2019]

Bitchener, J. and Storch, N. (2016). *Written Corrective Feedback for L2 Development*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Burkert, A. and Wally, J. (2013). Peer-reviewing in a collaborative teaching and learning environment. In Reitbauer, M., Campbell, N., Mercer, S., Schumm Fauster, J. and Vaupetitsch, R. (Eds.) *Feedback Matters*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang, pp. 69–85.

Campbell, N. and Schumm Fauster, J. (2013). Learner-centred feedback on writing: Feedback as dialogue. In Reitbauer, M., Campbell, N., Mercer, S., Schumm Fauster, J. and Vaupetitsch, R. (Eds.) *Feedback Matters*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang, pp. 55–67.

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Doughty, C. (2001). Cognitive underpinnings of focus on form. In Robinson, P. (Ed.) *Cognition and Second Language Instruction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 206–257.

Edge, J. (1990). *Mistakes and Correction*. London: Longman.

Ellis, R. (2009). A typology of corrective feedback types. *ELT Journal*, 63(2), pp. 97–107.

Ellis, R., Loewen, S. and Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(2), pp. 339–368.

Ellis, R. and Shintani, N. (2013). *Exploring Language Pedagogy through Second Language Acquisition Research*. Abingdon, Oxon.: Routledge.

Fanselow, J. (1987). *Breaking Rules: Generating and Exploring Alternatives in Language Teaching*. New York: Longman.

Ferreira, A., Moore, J. D. and Mellish, C. (2007). A study of feedback strategies in foreign language classrooms and tutorials with implications for intelligent computer-assisted language learning systems. *International Journal of Artificial Intelligence in Education*, 17, pp. 389–422.

Ferris, D. (2002). *Treatment of Error in Second Language Writing Classes*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Harmer, J. (2015). *The Practice of English Language Teaching 5th Edition*. Harlow: Pearson Education.

Hattie, J.A.C. (2009). *Visible Learning*. Abingdon, Oxon.: Routledge.

Hattie, J. and Timperley, H. (2007). The Power of Feedback. *Review of Educational Research*, 77(1), pp. 81–112.

Hendrickson, J. M. (1978). Error correction in foreign language teaching: Recent research and practice. *The Modern Language Journal 62*, pp. 387–398.

Hyland, K. (1990). Providing productive feedback. *ELT Journal*, 44(4), pp. 279–285.

Hyland, K. (2003). *Second Language Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hyland, K. (2019). What messages do students take from teacher feedback? In Hyland, K. and Hyland, F. (Eds.) *Feedback in Second Language Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 265–284.

Hyland, K. and Hyland, F. (2006). Feedback on second language students' writing *Language Teaching*, 39, pp. 83–101.

Hyland K. and Hyland, F. (2019a). Contexts and issues in feedback on L2 writing. In Hyland K. & Hyland, F. (Eds.) *Feedback in Second Language Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 1–22.

Hyland, K. & Hyland, F. (2019b). Interpersonality and teacher-written feedback. In Hyland K. & Hyland, F. (Eds.) *Feedback in Second Language Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 165–183.

Kang, E., and Han, Z. (2015). The efficacy of written corrective feedback in improving L2 written accuracy: A meta analysis. *The Modern Language Journal*, 99(1), pp. 1–18.

Kerr, P. (2017a). *Giving feedback on speaking.* Part of the Cambridge papers in English language learning series. [pdf] Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Available at **http://www.cambridge.org/english-insights** [Accessed 25 February 2020]

Kerr, P. (2017b). *How much time should we give to speaking practice?* Part of the Cambridge papers in English language learning series. [pdf] Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Available at **https://www.cambridge.org/gb/files/8415/7488/4554/CambridgePapersinELT_TimeForSpeaking_2017_ONLINE.pdf [**Accessed 25 February 2020]

King, A. (2016). *Blended language learning*. Part of the Cambridge papers in English language learning series. [pdf] Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Available at **http://www.cambridge.org/english-insights** [Accessed 25 February 2020]

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Krashen, S. (1985). *The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications*. New York: Longman ELT.

Lam, R. (2010). A Peer Review Training Workshop: Coaching Students to Give and Evaluate Peer Feedback. *TESL Journal Canada*, 27(2), pp. 114-127.

Lam, R. and Lee, I. (2010) Balancing the dual functions of portfolio assessment. *English Language Teaching Journal* 64(1), pp. 54–64.

Lee, I. (2011). Feedback Revolution: What Gets in the Way? *ELT Journal*, 65(1), pp. 1–12.

Lee, I. (2017). *Classroom Writing Assessment and Feedback in L2 School Contexts*. Singapore: Springer.

Lee, I. (2019). Teacher written corrective feedback: Less is more. *Language Teaching*, 52(4), pp. 524–536.

Li, S. (2010). The effectiveness of corrective feedback in SLA: a meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, 60(2), pp. 309–365.

Li, S. and Vuono, A. (2019). Twenty-five years of research on oral and written corrective feedback in *System*. *System*, 84, pp. 93–109.

Lyster, R. and Saito, K. (2010). Oral feedback in classroom SLA. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(2), pp. 265–302.

Lyster, R., Saito, K. and Sato, M. (2013). Oral corrective feedback in second language classrooms. *Language Teaching*, 46(1), pp. 1–40.

Maas, C. (2017). Receptivity to learner-driven feedback. *ELT Journal*, 71(2), pp. 127–140.

McGarrel, H. and Verbeem, J. (2007). Motivating revision of drafts through formative feedback. *ELT Journal*, 61(3), pp. 228–236.

McKay, P. (2006). *Assessing Young Language Learners*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mercer, S. and Ryan, S. (2013). Praising to learn: Learning to praise. In Reitbauer, M., Campbell, N., Mercer, S., Schumm Fauster, J. and Vaupetitsch, R. (Eds.) *Feedback Matters*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang, pp. 21–36.

Nakatsukasa, K. and Loewen, S. (2017). Non-verbal feedback. In Nassaji, H. and Kartchava, E. (Eds.) *Corrective Feedback in Second Language Teaching and Learning*. New York, NY: Routledge, pp. 158–173.

Nassaji, H. (2017). Oral feedback in response to written errors. In Nassaji, H. and Kartchava, E. (Eds.) *Corrective Feedback in Second Language Teaching and Learning*. New York, NY: Routledge, pp. 114–128.

Nation, I. S. P. (2009). *Teaching ESL / EFL Reading and Writing*. New York: Routledge.

Olesova, L. and Richardson, J. (2017). The effectiveness of feedback in asynchronous online courses for non-native speakers of English. In Carrier, M., Damerow, R.M. and Bailey, K.M. (Eds.) *Digital Language Learning and Teaching*. New York: Routledge. pp. 79–92.

Rinvolucri, M. (1994). Key concepts in ELT: Feedback. *ELT Journal*, 48(3), pp. 287–288.

Scrivener, J. (2012). *Classroom Management Techniques*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sheen, Y. (2011). *Corrective Feedback, Individual Differences and Second Language Learning*. Dordrecht: Springer.

Stannard, R. (2017). A genuine innovation in the delivery and form of feedback on students' written work. In Carrier, M., Damerow, R.M. and Bailey, K.M. (Eds.) *Digital Language Learning and Teaching*. New York: Routledge, pp. 179–187.

Stevenson, M. and Phakiti, A. (2019). Automated feedback and second language writing. In Hyland, K. and Hyland, F. (Eds.) *Feedback in Second Language Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 125–141.

Storch, N. (2013). *Collaborative Writing in L2 Classrooms*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Storch, N. and Aldossary, K. (2019). Peer Feedback: An activity theory perspective on givers' and receivers' stances. In Sato, M. and Loewen, S. (Eds.) *Evidence-based Second Language Pedagogy*. New York: Routledge, pp. 123–144.

Tigchelaar, M. and Polio, C. (2017). Language-focused peer corrective feedback in second language writing. In Nassaji, H. and Kartchava, E. (Eds.) *Corrective Feedback in Second Language Teaching and Learning*. New York, NY: Routledge, pp. 98–113.

Truscott, J. (1996). The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes. *Language Learning*, 46(2), pp. 327–369.

Truscott, J. (1999). What's wrong with oral grammar correction. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 55(4), pp. 437–456.

Ur, P. (2012). *A Course in English Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Valenzuela, H. (2005). Colourful Correction. *Modern English Teacher* 14(2), pp. 42–44.

White, R. V. & Arndt, V. (1991). *Process Writing*. London: Longman.

Zhang, L. J. and Rahimi, M. (2014). EFL Learners' Anxiety Level and their Beliefs about Corrective Feedback in Oral Communication Classes. *System*, 42, pp. 429–439.

Find other Cambridge papers in English language learning at:

cambridge.org/english-insights

We believe that English can unlock a lifetime of experiences and, together with teachers and our partners, we help people to learn and confidently prove their skills to the world.

Where your world grows

Find out more at

cambridge.org/english-insights