

## CHAPTER II

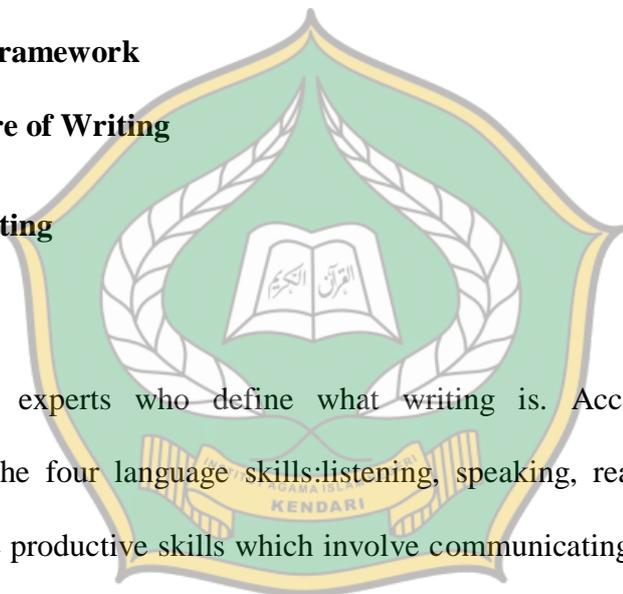
### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter will be presenting two parts of the discussion; there are the theoretical framework and previous studies. Theoretical studies comprise some related theorists of the study while previous studies are presenting similar studies that have been done before.

#### 2.1.Theoretical Framework

##### 2.1.1. The Nature of Writing

###### a. Definition of Writing



There are many experts who define what writing is. According to (Ramli, 2013)writing is one of the four language skills:listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Writing is also one of the productive skills which involve communicating a message in the form of letters and symbols. Communicating means sending certain information to others, so, a message must have a purpose. In other words, writing skills produce a written product that has certain information. (Bacha, 2001) also states that a written product is the product of thinking, drafting, and revising that requires specialized skills on how to generate ideas, how to organize them coherently, how to use discourse markers and rhetorical conventions to put them cohesively into a written text, how to revise text for clearer meaning, how to edit text for appropriate grammar, and how to produce a final product. From the definitions above, it

can be inferred that writing is a productive skill that communicates a message to others by thinking, drafting, and revising the written products.

### **b. Writing Process**

(Ramli, 2013)states that writing process goes through several steps to produce a well-written product. It means that there are some parts to be taken in producing the text. It is more than just putting words together to make sentences. It needs some steps to make sure that what has been written follows the right development of the writing process. Another view also comes from (Bacha, 2001). He states that one way of focusing on different aspects of writing is to look at writing as a process. It means that the writing process contains several sub processes which are imperatively united as an outline for students to begin and finish their writing. The writing process, further, incorporates some stages structurally. According to (Harmer, 2007), the stages of the writing process are planning, drafting, revising, and final drafting. The writing process as a classroom activity that incorporates those four basic writing stages is seen as a recursive process. This means that it has a cycle that integrates among stages. It can be seen as a processing wheel in which it clearly shows the directions that the writers may take during their process in writing. Scheme 1. The wheel process of writing taken from (Harmer, 2007)This process wheel is done recursively. It means that writers may loop backward and move forwards between these various stages. Thus, at the editing stage, the writers may feel the need to go back to a pre-writing phase and think again. They may also edit their writing as they draft it.

### 1) Planning

Planning or pre-writing is an activity in the classroom in which the students may consider their writing goals. It can also arouse students' encouragement to write because it stimulates students' thoughts to get started. It affects students' purposes to write in terms of the language they use, the text they wish to produce, and also the information they choose to include. Besides, in the planning stage, the students also have to consider their audience. It does not only influence how the paragraphs are structured but also the choice of the language whether it is formal or informal language. Another point that is worth considering in this stage is the content structure of the piece. It is how best to order the facts, ideas, or arguments which they have decided to include.

### 2) Drafting

It is a process of writing down ideas, organizing them into a sequence, and providing the reader with a frame for understanding these ideas. The result from this process is a composition or "first draft" of the ideas.

### 3) Revising

It is the stage that refers to the process of reflecting and revising based on an evaluation of the writing. It gets the students to go back over their writing and make changes to its organization, style, grammatical and lexical correctness, and appropriateness. When students have produced their draft, they usually read their works to make sure whether what they have written is appropriate or not.

#### 4) Final Drafting

A final draft is the stage when the students have edited their draft. It might be seen differently from the original plan and the first draft because there might be so many changes in the process of editing. Through the stages of the wheel process, students can move around one part to another part of the wheel. Therefore, when the students have written what they think is the final version of their writing, they may still, go back and re-plan or re-visit earlier stages. In conclusion, it is better to see writing as a process, especially, as a processing wheel which provides the students to work flexibly as they find ways to improve their writing.

#### c. Teaching Writing

##### a. The Role of the Teacher

Teachers have significant roles in the process of teaching and learning. It is also needed in the process of writing. According to (Harmer, 2007), there are three roles of English teachers in teaching writing.

##### 1) Motivator

As a motivator, an English teacher has to be able to motivate the students in writing tasks by creating the right situation for generating ideas, persuading them of the usefulness of the activity, and encouraging them to make as much effort as possible for maximum benefit.

##### 2) Resource

The teacher needs to be ready to provide information and language where necessary to the students. He or she must be available and well prepared to look at the students' signs of progress, offer advice, and suggestions in a constructive and tactful way.

#### 4) Feedback provider

As a feedback provider, an English teacher should give positive and encouraging responses to the students' writing. When offering correction, the teacher should choose what and how much to focus on based on what the students need at this particular stage of their studies, and on the tasks they have undertaken. It can be inferred that helping students become self-sufficient, competent, and confident writers is not an easy task, but it is easier to accomplish by recognizing the key roles as a teacher in the teaching and learning process. The three important roles are the key point of the teachers to succeed in the teaching process especially in teaching writing. The success of teaching writing then depends on how the teachers can play their three functions effectively. Therefore, it is very worth considering for the teachers to combine these significances when they are teaching.

#### **d. Teaching Recount Text in L2 Writing**

Recount text is one of the genres. It is a text which lists and describes past experiences by retelling events in order which happen chronologically. According to (Wijayatiningsih, 2018), the recount is a kind of genre used to retell events for the purpose of informing or entertaining. Recount text can be found in the form of a personal recount, such as biography, factual recount, or imaginative recount. In the recount text, there is no conflict. It applies a series of events as the basic structure. Recount text has several types. (Utami, 2012) identified three types of recount text, namely personal recount, factual recount, and imaginative recount. Personal recount exposes an even in which the writer or the author gets involved or acted in the event, for example, daily funny incidents, entries of a diary, and so on.

Factual recount text is a note of an event, such as a scientific experiment report, police report, newspaper report, history explanation, and so on. And imaginative recount is an unreal event or story like reading text for a language lesson, a story about the life of a slave. It is necessary to find out what aspect that should be considered in writing recount text. (Ramli, 2013) in his book about the indicators of recount text, makes it clear that there are three kinds of indicators of recount text. They are purpose, text organization and content, and language features. The purpose is to retell personal experience, record particulars of an event. Text organization and content of recount text include 1) Orientation, it caters for readers by providing contextual details and provides details of the environment that impact on the way events unfold. 2) Events attempt to interpret events imaginatively, elaborating important events, elaborates aspects of characters that affect events, gives characters credibility by using dialogue or significant actions. 3) Re-orientation, it writes more complex concluding statements with evaluative comments or summary. Language features use a variety of appropriate adjectives and adverbial phrases, maintain consistent past tense, use a variety of action and process verbs, vary conjunction and linking words to indicate time, and vary complete sentences that are increasingly complex and groups of sentences containing related information into paragraphs.

### **2.1.2. Direct Written Corrective Feedback**

#### **A. The Importance of written corrective feedback in L2 writing**

Written Corrective Feedback (WCF), which is also called error correction or grammar correction, refers to the “correction of grammatical errors for the purpose of improving a

student's ability to write accurately" (Truscott, 1996, p. 329). WCF has been regarded as a normal way of improving students' writing accuracy and a necessary part of the writing curriculum (Hendrickson, 1978, 1980; Truscott, 1996). It originated from the field of second language acquisition (SLA). Before 1960, language experts who believe in the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis claim that learners make errors in the second language because they are affected by their first language. In other words, their errors can be avoided if they realize the differences between the two languages. Error correction is needed for this reason (Hendrickson, 1978; Selinker, 1969). Also, the audiolingual approach in 1960s encourages the teaching of a second language by memorizing dialogues, studying all the grammatical rules, and avoiding the making of errors (Hendrickson, 1978). In the late 1960s, SLA scholars found that even first language (L1) students would make a lot of errors during their first language acquisition. Therefore, they believed that students' errors were just a natural part of their language learning process. It means that teachers should tolerate some of students' errors so as to help them become more confident in expressing themselves using the second language. Also, errors are just as a signal which shows students' progress in the language learning process (Corder, 1967; Hendrickson, 1978; Lantolf, 1977).

Feedback may be defined as information supplied to learners concerning some aspect of their performance on a task, by a peer or a teacher, with a view to improving language skills. It includes not only correcting learners, but also assessing them. Both correction and assessment depend on mistakes being made, reasons for mistakes, and class activities. According to Ancker (2000), a mistake is a performance error that is either a random guess or a slip, it is a failure to utilize a word correctly, and an error is a noticeable deviation from the language of a native speaker. J. Edge (1989) suggests dividing mistakes into three types:

slips, can correct them which students cannot correct themselves; language without knowing the right way. In this article, either the most common linguistic. Types of feedback It is thought that that not all student errors should be corrected because errors are normal and unavoidable during the learning process. The nature of teacher feedback differs widely among teachers and classes and depends on such factors as course objectives, assignment objectives, marking criteria, individual student expectations, strengths, weaknesses, and attitude toward writing (Harmer, 2000). Current theories of how people learn languages suggest that habit formation is only one part of the process. There are many reasons for errors to occur: interference from the native language, an incomplete knowledge of the target language, or its complexity (Edge, 1989). Some researchers suggest that feedback to second language writing falls somewhere between two extremes<sup>2</sup>evaluative or formative feedback (McGarrell & Verbeem, 2007).

Feedback on writing is an important part of students' learning process. Traditional feedback usually includes written corrections relating to spelling, grammar, and mechanics and either directly, with the teacher making the necessary changes, or indirect, with the teacher indicating where or what kind of changes are to be made (Jabulani, 2018). Comments on linguistic accuracy, content, and rhetoric also assist students in revising their writing ((Stefanou,2012) and provide opportunities for macrolevel written or oral feedback. Furthermore, the mode (oral, written, and computer-mediated) and source (teacher, peer, and automated) of feedback may differ; thus, some studies have compared the effectiveness of various modes (Chen et al., 2016). In general, a lack of agreement exists among researchers regarding what constitutes effective feedback (Jabulani, 2018). Teachers regardless of their level of training, consistently

find that generating and communicating clear, useful, and timely feedback, and engaging students with it, presents challenges ((Song et al.,2017). (Ferris et al., 2012)(2012) have noted that practitioners large lying or student learning styles and preferences when providing feedback. Other research suggests that multimodality may help by combining graphics, text, and voice ((Chen et al., 2016)).

Written Correction Feedback is an essential aspect of any English language writing course. The goal of feedback is to teach skills that help students improve their writing proficiency to the point where they are cognizant of what is expected of them as writers and are able to produce it with minimal errors and maximum clarity. There are several faults that lie with traditional methods of correcting grammatical errors. The outright correction of surface errors has been found to be inconsistent, unclear and overemphasizes the negative (Fregeau, 1999; Cohen, & Cavalcanti, 1990). Moreover, when this type of feedback is given, students for the most part simply copy the corrections into their subsequent drafts or final copies. The vast majority of students does not record nor study the mistakes noted in the feedback. Having students merely copy teacher corrections into rewrites is a passive action that does not teach students how to recognize or correct errors on their own. Fregeau discovered that the method of teachers indicating the presence or types of errors without correction is also ineffective. Many times the students do not understand why the errors were indicated and simply guess the corrections as they rewrite. Other ineffective aspects of the marking of student errors are that it causes students to focus more on surface errors that on the clarity of their ideas, and it only stresses the negative. Just as with feedback on form, many faults have been found with standard practices of providing feedback on content (Cohen, & Cavalcanti, 1990; Leki, 1990; Fregeau, 1999; Fathman & Walley, 1990). Fathman

and Walley, as well as Fregeau report that teacher feedback on content in the form of teacher comments is often vague, contradictory, unsystematic and inconsistent. This leads to various reactions by students including confusion, frustration and neglect of the comments. Leki reports that when presented with written feedback on content, students react in three main ways. The students may not read the annotations at all, may read them but not understand them, or may understand them but not know how to respond to them. Teacher comments on content are of little use if students do not know what they mean or how to use them productively to improve their skills as writers. Finally, Fathman and Walley note, much like correction of grammar mistakes, comments on content tend to be negative and point out problems more than tell students what they are doing right. Despite these negative aspects, there are effective points to some of the common methods of teacher feedback.

Ideally, feedback should help students determine what they need to do to achieve their learning objectives (Stern & Solomon, 2006). Through feedback, learners must recognize the gap between their present ability and their desired ability (Simpson, 2006). According to (Browne, 2013)&(Van Beuningen et al., 2012)), effective feedback provides cues that are consistent with learning objectives, cover several areas, and are useful in helping learners minimize the gaps between current understanding or performance and their goal. It answers questions about goals to be achieved, student progress toward these goals, and what students need to do to improve. This is called “feed up, feedback and feed-forward” (Van Beuningen et al., 2012)concluded that teachers find it challenging to provide effective feedback in all three of these areas. Provision of feedback that makes a difference does appear to be difficult (Simpson, 2006)&(Arifin et al., 2019) Traditional (written) feedback approaches may require extensive writing and mark-up (Daneshvar & Rahimi,

2014)), and teachers have advised not to overload students with it (Mubarak et al., 2018). When errors are numerous, corrections can become overwhelming for students, and writing them can become tedious for teachers. So, striking a balance between too little and too much-written feedbacks is challenging. Therefore, as Ferris et al. (2011) have urged, other forms of feedback deserve consideration. In general, written feedback may be direct, with a correct version supplied to the student, or indirect, in which case the presence of the error is indicated but not corrected. Within the indirect category, there are several possible subcategories depending on how explicitly the error type and location are indicated.

In terms of the timing of WCF provision, WCF has commonly been provided after students completed the writing (i.e., asynchronously; see Liu & Brown, 2015 for a methodological synthesis of WCF research), and the role of SWCF (i.e., WCF provided while students are working on writing) has received little attention. Two research projects focusing on SWCF were implemented by Shintani (2016) and Shintani and Aubrey (2016). Shintani (2016) conducted a case study which investigated how two L2 learners responded to SWCF or AWCF) using Google Docs. The findings indicated that both direct SWCF and AWCF promoted students' metalinguistic understanding of the target feature (i.e., the hypothetical conditional); however, the SWCF condition encouraged learners to self-correct during writing. In a follow-up study, Shintani and Aubrey (2016) compared the effects of SWCF (providing direct WCF while students were writing on Google Docs) and ASWCF (providing direct WCF immediately after students completed writing) on the accurate use of the hypothetical conditional structure in a new context. The findings showed that there was no significant difference between the two conditions; however, effect sizes suggest that SWCF outperformed the asynchronous condition. Shintani and Aubrey's study extended the way

WCF has been operationalized in the WCF literature by addressing both SWCF and AWCF. Their results suggest benefits of SWCF from the viewpoints of sociocultural theory and skill-learning theory. For instance, the authors claim that when the learners received direct WCF, they may have induced declarative knowledge of the target feature (i.e., the hypothetical conditional structure) and utilized that declarative knowledge as they were engaged in the subsequent writing of their 6 | KIM ET AL. composition, during which their declarative knowledge may have become procedural knowledge. From the sociocultural theory perspective, Shintani and Aubrey pointed out that the SWCF condition resulted in fewer total errors and claimed that providing direct SWCF while students are writing can cause them to shift from an other-regulation process (i.e., acting on teacher feedback) to a self-regulation process (i.e., avoiding errors as a result of WCF provided for previous sentences during writing). Shintani (2016) and Shintani and Aubrey (2016) offer important insights into the role of synchronous and asynchronous direct WCF in the learning of a grammatical feature. The findings reveal that since students were provided with direct WCF while still working on writing in the SWCF condition, they were able to immediately put to use the metalinguistic information provided by the teacher. As a first step of this line of research, these studies incorporated only direct WCF (i.e., offering the correct form). Thus, the ways in which indirect and direct WCF differ in terms of learning outcomes in an SWCF condition have not been investigated.

As reviewed above, the degree of effectiveness of direct and indirect WCF has been found to differ, and the question of which condition is better for promoting writing quality and language development is still debatable. Therefore, the effects of both direct and indirect SWCF need to be examined. This is the main purpose of the current study. In terms of

writing genre and writing tasks, previous WCF studies have used a variety of writing tasks, including argumentative writing, journal writing, and picture description (see Liu & Brown, 2015 for a review). These studies predominantly implemented individual writing; however, considering a growing interest in collaborative writing research, WCF research warrants the investigation of collaborative writing tasks. For instance, Wigglesworth and Storch (2012) pointed out a lack of investigation into collaborative writing and collaborative processes of WCF in the current WCF literature and called for more investigation into this line of research.

Written corrective feedback in product oriented ESL composition classes, such as those where the teacher only reads a final draft of paper or essay, tend to reflect a summative assessment approach and is often used as a way to justify a grade. This type of feedback has been described as an ineffective and futile exercise (Knoblauch & Brannon, 1981). Connors & Lunsford (1993) and Straub (1996) also argue that a summative assessment approach in product oriented ESL composition classes can lead teachers to become careless and insensitive with their comments. This type of feedback also tends to result in short, overly directive comments that run the risk of undermining students' writing styles (Connors & Lunsford, 1993). Moreover, Truscott (1996) has argued that not only is corrective feedback of this nature (done once, on a final draft) ineffective and that it does nothing to reduce the amount or frequency of errors in subsequent student writing, it can also negatively impact students' ability to write for communicative purposes. So strongly does he feel about the ineffectiveness of this practice, he argues that corrective feedback should be abandoned all together (Truscott, 1996; 2007). Because of the vast amount of time and energy spent on the feedback process, pinpointing the most effective methods is essential for all instructors.

Teachers should not have to worry that all of their effort has gone to waste, or worse, that their feedback strategies have been counter-productive. Indeed, there are cases where even carefully considered feedback has resulted in revisions that have made students' work weaker (Hyland & Hyland, 2001).

In terms of feedback for accuracy, some studies have shown the beneficial effects of feedback to improve the accuracy of revised texts ((Ferris et al., 2012)(Jabulani, 2018) recent meta-analysis offers a clear picture of extant empirical work in the domain: WCF (direct and indirect, focused and unfocused) can lead to improved accuracy, although the observed effects are low to moderate. However, as rightly noted by Truscott (2007), writers' incorporations of teacher corrections when revising a text (equivalent to uptake, as defined before) cannot be equated with the autonomous production of correct L2 forms in new texts (or retention, as defined before), which would be indicative of the effectiveness of WCF for acquisition.

### **B. An overview of the issue in students L2 writing**

Writing is commonly seen as the most challenging skill for L2 learners to master compared to speaking, reading, or listening. This is mostly because complex skills are involved in writing. In that, to produce a good piece of writing, L2 writers need to concern with the planning and organizing, or the macro skills, as well as the accuracy of spelling, grammar, punctuation, and diction, or the micro-skills (Kisnanto, 2016). In advanced academic levels such in the university, students' L2 writing is expected to be well-organized as well as free from the lower surface inaccuracies, reflecting both the macro and micro-skills mastery. In reality, however, problems related to grammatical and

lexical errors are still frequently found in their writing, which may leave instructors and other audiences with confusions and frustrations in processing their work. It should be noted that since accuracy can measure student's progress in language acquisition (Shintani & Ellis, 2013), a lack of accuracy in the students' L2 writing, especially grammar, may lead to the harsh judgment of the students' whole literacy abilities and hamper their overall progressions (Morra & Asís, 2009).

Corrective feedback is a long-standing educational practice that can arguably be linked to almost everything we learn (Evans, Hartshorn, McCollum, & Wolfersberger, 2010; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). According to Russell and Spada (2006), in language learning "the term corrective feedback [refers] to any feedback provided to a learner, from any source, that contains evidence of learner error of language form" (p. 134). The value of such feedback in second language (L2) writing has been debated in the literature for several decades. Theorists have attempted to answer many questions related to written corrective feedback (WCF) in L2 writing. For instance: Is it helpful or harmful to students? (Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2007; Truscott, 1996, 2007; Zamel 1985); Should it be given to students at all proficiency levels, or only at beginning levels? (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009a; Kepner, 1991); Should WCF be given to students explicitly or implicitly? (Bitchener, Cameron, & Young, 2005; Hyland & Hyland, 2002; Lalande, 1984); Should it be given directly or indirectly? (Ferris, 1997, 2001, 2006; Ferris, & Roberts, 2001; Ellis, 1998; Lee, 2004; Sheen, Wright, & Moldawa, 2009); Should all written errors be marked or only select errors? (Bitchener et al., 2005; Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008; Lee, 1997, 2004; Sheen, 2007); Should error correction be provided simply because students want or expect it? (Lee, 2004; Leki, 1991). While the literature on the use of WCF in L2 writing is extensive (e.g. Bitchener, 2008, Ferris, 2003;

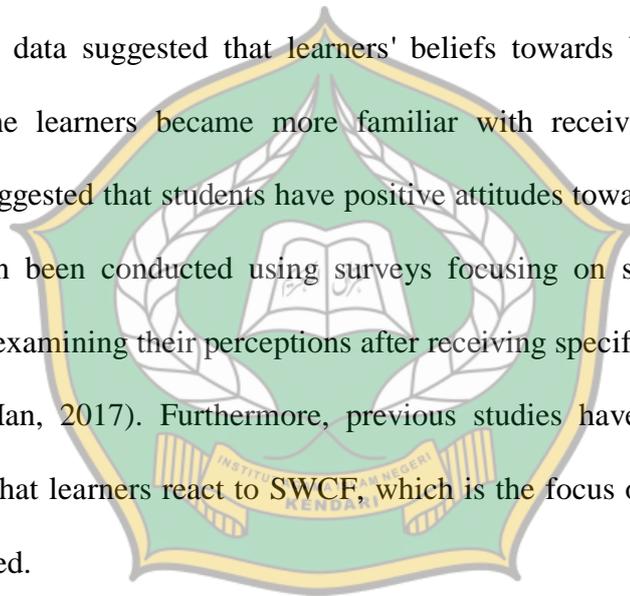
Storch, 2010), one important question remains unanswered: What are the current WCF beliefs, theories, and practices espoused by writing teachers in the classroom? Unfortunately, practitioner perspectives have been fundamentally absent in the published literature. Kumaravadivelu (1994) argued that in a “postmethod condition” it is impossible for any one theory or stance on language teaching –indeed, even theories on the pedagogical role of WCF– to account for everything language teachers encounter in their classrooms day to day (p. 30). They must be free to make autonomous choices and develop, in essence, their own approach to language teaching, or what Kumaravadivelu refers to as the development of their own “principled pragmatism” (p. 30). This pragmatism is informed by teachers’ own learning experiences, the influences of their professional training, their own observations of what works and what does not work for their students, and even their own intuition. Kumaravadivelu is not alone in his support of teacher autonomy.

When examining SWCF, learners' perceptions of such feedback methods cannot be ignored. Since the feedback is provided while students are writing, this could distract learners from their thinking processes or raise anxiety levels. Such affective factors could immediately impact students' writing performance. Therefore, it is pertinent to examine learners' attitudes toward such a pedagogical approach. Within the research domain of WCF, learners' perceptions of the helpfulness of WCF has often been examined using surveys in various instructional contexts, including students in secondary schools in Hong Kong and English as a second language (ESL) learners in the United States (Grami, 2005; Lee, 2004, 2008; Leki, 2006). These studies have shown that learners expect to receive WCF and that they have positive perceptions of the helpfulness of WCF (Schulz, 2001). Amrhein and Nassaji (2010) conducted a survey study with 33 adult ESL students and 31 ESL teachers at

two private English institutions in Canada. They compared teachers' and students' perceptions of WCF, particularly focusing on the participants' preferences for the amount and types of WCF, along with other characteristics of feedback. The study found that students preferred to receive WCF on as many errors as possible, and particularly emphasized the importance of grammatical errors. While teachers were more selective and focused more on the accurate communication of meaning, students showed preferences for larger amounts of error correction on all error types. In a Chinese English as a Foreign Language context, Chen, KIM ET AL. Nassaji, and Liu (2016) examined 64 Chinese students' perceptions of the effectiveness of WCF using a survey. The findings indicated that overall students showed positive attitudes towards WCF, particularly for WCF episodes that focused on both the content and grammar of their writing, which was not in line with Amrhein and Nassaji (2010). They claim that the contextual factors need to be considered in WCF research. conducted a survey study with 33 adult ESL students and 31 ESL teachers at two private English institutions in Canada. They compared teachers' and students' perceptions of WCF, particularly focusing on the participants' preferences for the amount and types of WCF, along with other characteristics of feedback. The study found that students preferred to receive WCF on as many errors as possible, and particularly emphasized the importance of grammatical errors. While teachers were more selective and focused more on the accurate communication of meaning, students showed preferences for larger amounts of error correction on all error types. In a Chinese English as a Foreign Language context, Chen, Nassaji, and Liu (2016) examined 64 Chinese students' perceptions of the effectiveness of WCF using a survey. The findings indicated that overall students showed positive attitudes towards WCF, particularly for WCF episodes that focused on both the content and grammar

of their writing, which was not in line with Amrhein and Nassaji (2010). They claim that the contextual factors need to be considered in WCF research. Researchers have also examined the relationship between learners' beliefs about and their engagement with WCF. In her multi-case study, Han (2017) investigated how learners' beliefs mediate L2 learners' engagement with WCF and to what extent learners' experience with WCF mediates their beliefs over time. She revealed that, in general, learners' beliefs about WCF impacted their engagement with WCF both directly and indirectly. For instance, learners' emotional reactions to WCF, their use of external resources, and revision behaviors were impacted by their beliefs.

The longitudinal data suggested that learners' beliefs towards WCF changed in a positive direction as the learners became more familiar with receiving WCF. Overall, previous research has suggested that students have positive attitudes towards WCF; however, these studies have often been conducted using surveys focusing on students' feelings in general, not necessarily examining their perceptions after receiving specific feedback types in specific contexts (cf. Han, 2017). Furthermore, previous studies have mainly addressed AWCF; thus, the ways that learners react to SWCF, which is the focus of the current study, have yet to be investigated.



So, as teachers we much decide how to deal with student expectations and the apparent results of mediocre (if not harmful, as Truscott would argue) Other research has shown that student background plays a role in grammar constitutes useful feedback vary considerably according to the educational context Lefkowitz, 1996: 295). Even though students do request feedback, their application of this feedback is not always apparent or discernible. As often noted, extensive research is needed to create a course of action; yet, more current studies are shedding some directional light. Loewen, et al. (2009), probe into the grammar instruction and correction. Polling 724 students from varying L2 foreign language courses, they discovered that participants generated two distinct categories for grammatical instruction and grammatical correction (Loewen, et al., 2009: 101). Students were inclined to view grammar correction favorably. One aspect of this study is that it disclosed a distinction between the EFL student and the L2 student. For instance, EFL students were more interested in fluency and comprehension, whereas L2 students studying varying target languages appeared to favor more grammatical instruction and correction. This study suggests that this may be related to previous grammatical instruction in other L2 classes and also reveals that correction and expectation are closely linked.

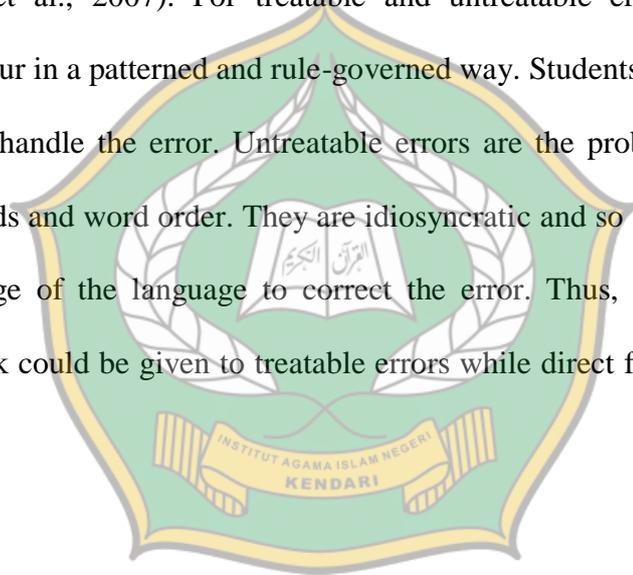
### **C. How Does Direct write Corrective Feedback in improving students writing**

Direct feedback is one method that can be used by educators to explicitly annotate errors that exist in L2 composition, and as alluded to earlier, direct feedback helps students become aware of more difficult aspects of the language, such as, untreatable errors. (Elam, n.d.), there are many studies, which show that direct correction can alleviate grammar and

lexical mistakes over time. In other words, lower-level L2 writers can profit from the use of direct feedback, for example, “EFL students who have received formal grammar instruction, . . . might benefit from rule reminders or codes that will jog their memories” ((Morra & Asís, 2009)&(Chen et al., 2016), Furthermore,(Ferris et al., 2012) also advocates using direct correction for untreatable errors, because it leads writers to more revisions in subsequent drafts. Nonetheless, educators who give too much direct feedback tend to appropriate learners’ essays with their ideas and give too much negative correction ((Ferris et al., 2012)), which can have a demotivating effect on learners’ self-confidence (Truscott, 1996, (Van Beuningen et al., 2012)). “[Teachers] can be impersonal, critical and autocratic . . . [but] controlling this representation of self can be crucial to maintaining interaction with students and providing feedback that will be taken seriously” ((Hyland, 2006)). Consequently, when instructors are giving error correction, they must be careful how and what they are concentrating on, as the ultimate goal of L2 writing is to build an ongoing dialog with the students. Albeit, if the goal of the educator is to promote learner autonomy and self-directed learning, teachers need to focus on errors that are “global or serious . . . frequent . . . and stigmatizing (more typical of L2 writers than of other students),” (Ferris & Hedgcock, (Ramli, 2013) slowly weaning learners off of direct correction with the use of less explicit methods.

Direct WCF is defined as that “provides some form of explicit correction of linguistic form or structure above or near the linguistic error. It may consist of the crossing out of an unnecessary Using Written Corrective Feedback to Improve Writing Accuracy of Junior

Secondary Students word/phase/morpheme, the insertion of a missing word/phrase/morpheme, and the provision of the correct form or structure”. Indirect WCF refers to that “indicates that in some way an error has been made but it does not provide a correction” (Bitchener&Knoch, 2010, p. 209). According to Ellis et al. (2008), focused WCF refers to “(the selection of) specific errors to be corrected and ignores other errors” (p. 356). The extent to which it is focused is dependent upon the number of errors selected. Unfocused WCF refers to the extensive correction of all the errors in students’ written work. It responds to multiple errors and is believed to be a common practice in foreign language writing classrooms (Furneaux et al., 2007). For treatable and untreatable errors, Ferris (1999) explained that errors occur in a patterned and rule-governed way. Students can use a grammar book or set of rules to handle the error. Untreatable errors are the problems with missing words, unnecessary words and word order. They are idiosyncratic and so students need to use their acquired knowledge of the language to correct the error. Thus, according to Ferris (2006), indirect feedback could be given to treatable errors while direct feedback can handle untreatable errors.



#### **D. Source of feedback**

In writing activity feedback can come from many sources, (Rezaei, 2011)) states that feedback techniques including peer response, teacher-student conferences, audiotaped commentary, email comments, and comments written on students' drafts. Feedback from the teacher is known as the teacher’s feedback and feedback which is given by friends or peers are known as peer feedback. Here is the explanation about the source of feedback:

### a. Teacher's Feedback

Teacher's feedback is the information from the teachers for their students about the contents of written work they have produced. It is very necessary for the students. A teacher can indicate the place and type of error correction from the written word. Feedback consists of comments written by teachers on drafts.

As Ferris (1997) and O'Flaherty (2016) illustrate, a wide range of factors can contribute to the success or failure of teacher feedback. Classroom contexts such as class size and grade level; instructional contexts such as product or process oriented writing classes; even the kind of writing itself, whether it be journals, essays or tests, have to be considered when trying to determine the efficacy of teacher feedback (Hedcock&Lefkowitz, 1994; Leki, 1991; Lee, 2005). Other research has pointed to the type of feedback being provided as having an important role in shaping student perception. Local or global feedback (Hedcock&Lefkowitz, 1994, Zamel, 1985), peer or self-evaluation (Ferris &Hedcock, 2005), and direct or indirect error feedback (Saito, 1994) have all been shown to contribute significantly to students' perceptions of teacher feedback practices. Perhaps the most difficult factors to consider when evaluating the success of feedback are individual learner traits such as linguistic and educational backgrounds, cultural differences, proficiency with the target language and even motivations for taking a class (Ferris &Hedcock, 2005; Lee, 2008). Oladejo (1993) even points to the amount of exposure to the target language (unrelated to L2 proficiency) as effecting students' attitudes and utilization of teacher commentary. As Ferris and Hedcock (2005) state, "We cannot simply look at teachers' written comments or transcripts of their oral feedback as well as students' revisions and conclude that we know everything we need to know about a particular teacher, student, or class" (p. 189). Because

much of the previous research into written corrective feedback has been done in a decontextualized manner, a case study approach was preferred over collecting larger pools of data. In this way, it was possible to provide a much deeper understanding and level of detail to connect the learning context with attitudes towards written corrective feedback. This richer description can also help form best practices when expending the time, effort and resources it takes to adequately provide feedback in composition classes.

#### b. Peer Feedback

Peer feedback usually used in writing activity. This is an activity in learning when the student reviews another student's written work and provides feedback. Peer editing generally refers to commenting on a paper's organization, tone, format, grammar, punctuation, and so on. Writing activity can improve students' critical analysis skills. In the other hand, corrective feedback can give in many ways, (Ciftci & Kocoglu, 2012)states that knowledge of result, objective measures, self-monitoring, snap judgment, video playback.

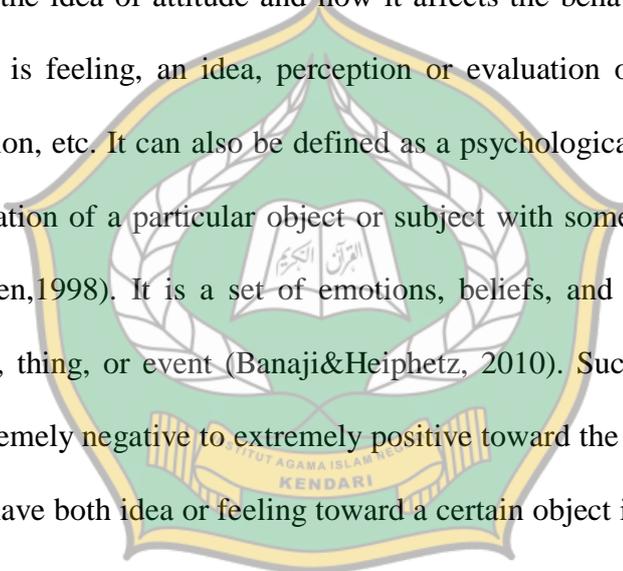
#### **2.1.3 The understanding of cognitive attitude**

Human attitude refers to the thoughts, beliefs, feelings, and behavior of a person toward a certain subject, person, object, or institution or event (Chuo, 2007)). It is a tendency to evaluate things according to their own perception, ideas, or feelings. Thus, one can have a favorable or unfavorable opinion or feel toward a certain subject, object, person, group, institution, events, etc. It becomes an individual disposition to react in a favorable or unfavorable way toward a certain subject, object, institution, or event (Ajzeen, 1989). The question is where does one get or learn those attitudes? Attitude is a result of upbringing or

culture which later influences the behavior of the person toward a certain subject or object, person, institution or event, etc.

The question is where does one get or learn those attitudes? Attitude is a result of upbringing or culture which later influence the behavior of the person toward certain subject or object, person, institution or event, etc. According to Ajzen (1993), attitude is a result of exposure or experience such as watching television or other kinds of exposure. Watching television orients someone to form an opinion toward certain thing. But Abun (2018) went deeper into the formation of attitude, that attitude is formed by the culture. He contends that attitude is formed by the culture where one is raised. His opinion is based on what Donald (2002), Hofstede as cited by Brown (1995). Donald argued that culture is playing important role in our brain functioning and even the brain structure. This view is in line with what Hofstede in Brown (1995) as he argued that culture is the collective programming of the human mind that can distinguish one human group from another. This opinion was also strengthened by the opinion of Amstrong (1996) that ethical perception of people is very much influenced by the culture. In this case ethical judgment of one person is depending on the culture where is brought up. Ajzen (1993) contends that there can be a lot of definition about attitude depending on the orientation of certain psychologist but despite of those differences, they have common agreement. They agreed that though attitudes are latent or invisible but it can be evaluated (Bem, 1970, Edwards, 1957, Fishbein&Ajzen, 1975). Attitude can be measured through the reaction or responses of the person toward the object of the attitude which may be favorable or unfavorable toward the object, persons, institution, events or situations. According to Allport, (1954), Hilgard, (1980), Rosenberg &Hovland, (1960), Ajzen, (1993) that there are three categories of responses or reactions toward the

object of the attitude and they are cognitive, affective and behavioural responses. Cognitive component of attitude refers to the thought, perception or ideas of the person toward the object of the attitude. Affective component is about emotional reaction or feeling of the person toward the object of the attitude such as like or dislike. While behavioral or conative component of attitudes is related to behavioral reaction toward the object of the attitude. After one knows the subject, object, institution, or event is emotional and behavioural reaction toward them and then what he/she is going to do or not to do. These may include plans, intentions and commitments to a planned behavior. The Influence of attitude toward Behavior We go back to the idea of attitude and how it affects the behavior. Attitude as we have pointed out earlier is feeling, an idea, perception or evaluation of a certain subject, object, person or institution, etc. It can also be defined as a psychological tendency which is expressed through evaluation of a particular object or subject with some degree of favor or disfavor (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998). It is a set of emotions, beliefs, and behaviors toward a particular object, person, thing, or event (Banaji & Heiphetz, 2010). Such emotion or belief can be ranging from extremely negative to extremely positive toward the object of attitude. It is possible that one can have both idea or feeling toward a certain object in the sense that one can have negative and positive idea or feeling toward the same object or subject (Wood, 2000). It is an individual disposition of mind and a response or reaction toward the object of the attitude which influence individual action. This definition is in line with Jung's definition of attitude, that attitude is a "readiness of the psyche to act or react in a certain way (Main, 2014). However, such attitude is not coming out of the blue but it is formed from past and present experience (Allport, 1935). Since it is formed through learning or experience, thus



attitude is not static but dynamic in the sense that attitude can change. Exposure to the object of attitude affects how a person forms his or her attitude toward such object.

An attitude, when conceptualized as an evaluative judgement, can vary in two important ways. First, attitudes can differ in valence, or direction. Some attitudes that a person possesses are positive (like our attitudes towards the Welsh rugby team), others are negative (like our attitudes towards liver), and yet others are neutral (like our attitudes towards eating fried foods). Second, attitudes can differ in strength. For example, while one person might feel very strongly about the Euro, a second person might feel much less strongly about the same topic. You will learn more about different aspects of attitude strength later in this chapter. Until now, we have used different examples when describing our own attitudes. This leads to an important question – can anything be the object of an attitude? Basically, any stimulus that can be evaluated along a dimension of favourability can be conceptualized as an attitude object. As noted by Eagly and Chaiken (1993), some attitude objects are abstract concepts (e.g., ‘liberalism’), others are concrete (e.g., a computer). Furthermore, one’s own self (e.g., self-esteem) and other individuals (e.g., a particular politician) can serve as attitude objects, as can social policy issues (e.g., capital punishment) and social groups (e.g., people from Canada).

(Ajzen, 2014)states that there are three categories of responses or reactions toward the object of the attitude and they are cognitive, affective, and behavioral responses. The cognitive component of an attitude refers to the thought, perception, or ideas of the person toward the object of the attitude.

Regardless of the specific characterization selected, evaluation is viewed as a unidimensional continuum with a positive and a negative pole. The consistency of evaluative responses reflects a level of central tendency rather than complete homogeneity of responses. That is, an individual with a moderately pro attitude will emit moderately positive evaluative responses on the average, but also will occasionally emit extremely pro responses, neutral responses, and, perhaps, even extremely anti responses. Although this variability in evaluative responses is acknowledged, a great deal of current theorizing and research has been generated by the assumption that people strive to maintain evaluative homogeneity among the attitudinal responses they emit. This is the underlying assumption of the cognitive consistency theories of attitude ( McGuire, 1966). Rosenberg and Hovland( 1960) as well as others before them (Allport, 1935; Harding, Kutner, Proshansky, and Chein, 1954; Katz and Stotland, 1959) have identified three classes of evaluative response. Evaluative responses can be classified into one or a combination of the affective, behavioral, or cognitive components of attitude. Sympathetic nervous responses and verbal statements of affect are in the affective component; overt actions and verbal statements concerning behavior are in the behavioral component; and perceptual responses and verbal statements of beliefs are in the cognitive component. This distinction has been useful in the past mostly as a classification system to facilitate comparison of research findings (e.g., Harding et al., 1954); it has more recently taken on theoretical importance in the work of Rosenberg and Hovland( 1960) and Insko and Schopler (1967). The purpose of the present investigation is to assess the theoretical value of maintaining this tripartite classification of evaluative responses. Past research had as its primary objective the demonstration of consistency between the components (Harding et al., 1954; Rosenberg, Hovland, McGuire, Abelson, and Brehm, 1960) and generally found a high

degree of correspondence between responses of the three components. Indeed, consistency is such a dominant feature that several investigators have suggested that responses from any of the three components would serve equally well as an index of attitude (Harding et al., 1954; Fishbein, 1966).

Students' attitude is one of the main factors that determine their success in language learning. Attitudes towards the target language, its speakers, and the learning context may all play some part in explaining their success or failure ((van Harreveld et al., 2015). Numerous researches have been conducted on the role of attitude in second language acquisition, spurred by the knowledge that negative attitudes can be changed. Factors like better teaching strategies, classroom, and social environment can help reduce negative attitudes. Attitude has cognitive, affective, and conative components; it involves beliefs, emotional reactions, and behavioral tendencies related to the object of the attitudes (Kwon & Vogt, 2010). It refers to an individual's inclinations, prejudices, ideas, fears, and convictions concerning any topic. It has an evaluative aspect, a disposition, and a tendency to react positively or negatively to something. It is, in short, the way someone thinks or behaves.

Attitudes are related to the motives of studying a language that can be divided into two main categories; integrative and instrumental motives. Integrative motives refer to situations where a person learns a second language in order to participate in the target language group's cultural activities. Instrumental motives refer to practical purposes of learning a language such as in order to get a better job or to pass examinations. Students with positive attitudes will spend more effort to learn by using strategies such as asking questions, volunteering information, and answering questions. Fortunately, attitudes do not remain static; they can be changed through the learning process such as by using appropriate materials and teaching

techniques. Attitudes also improve as a result of language learning as learners who learn well will acquire positive attitudes (Choy, 2002).

The cognitive component of attitudes refers to beliefs, thoughts and attributes we associate with a particular object. In many cases, a person's attitude might be based primarily upon a consideration of the positive and negative attributes about the attitude object. For example, when one of us recently bought a new car, he devoted considerable attention to factors such as different vehicles' safety records, petrol mileage, resale value and repair costs. In this example, attitudes towards the different cars were formed via a conscious consideration of the positive and negative characteristics of each car. Cognitions have an impact on many types of attitudes. Within the study of intergroup attitudes (see Chapters 3 and 14, this volume), stereotypes are usually considered as beliefs about the attributes possessed by a particular social group. Further, many studies have revealed that possessing negative stereotypes about a group of people is associated with having a prejudicial attitude towards the group (e.g., Esses, Haddock & Zanna, 1993; Kawakami, Dion & Dovidio, 1998). Cognitions, in the form of beliefs, are a key part of one approach to attitudes, which argues that attitudes are derived from more elementary cognitions about the attitude object. Specifically, Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) expectancy-value approach describes an attitude towards an object as the sum of 'expectancy  $\times$  value' products. Expectancies are beliefs or subjective probabilities that the object possesses a certain attribute; these beliefs may range from 0 to 1 in strength. Values, or evaluations, are ratings of the attributes, normally from -3 to +3. An attitude object will be evaluated positively if it is seen as leading to, or associated with, positive things and avoiding negative things. Only salient beliefs count towards the overall attitudes; these are beliefs that a person considers most relevant. We can illustrate the

model by computing a person's attitude towards the game of golf. This person might think that golf is (1) a valuable form of exercise, (2) a good way to see friends and (3) frustrating. Each of these beliefs will have both an expectancy and a value. For example, exercise might have a high expectancy (.9) and positive evaluation (+3); seeing friends might be perceived as having a lower expected outcome (.7) that is somewhat positive (+2); while frustration is (thankfully!) somewhat infrequent (.3) but very negative (-3). The individual's overall attitude towards golf is computed by summing the belief–evaluation products (e.g.,  $2.7 + 1.4 - .9 = 3.2$ ).

## 2.2 Previous Related Studies

Many studies on WCF have been conducted since (Elam, n.d.) work. Several L2 writing studies (Stefanou, 2012) have all reported the positive effects of WCF. Further, the more recent SLA studies on WCF (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009), (Shintani & Ellis, 2013a) have also presented reliable and convincing evidence that as (Ferris et al., 2012) puts it, “under the right conditions, (written CF) can facilitate L2 development and help students improve the accuracy of writing.

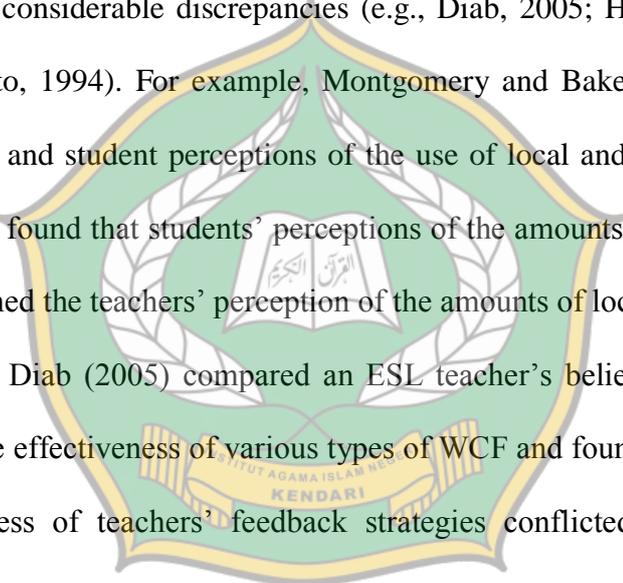
The literature on L2 learning has continuously shown varying positions regarding the effectiveness of corrective feedback on errors. As early as the 1970s, research has questioned the value of error correction (in ESL learning in general and in ESL writing), and a rift was created in the field of second- or foreign-language teaching as to whether error correction is useful. With respect to error correction in writing (WCF), some early research found it to be ineffective for the most part (e.g., Hendrickson, 1977, 1980; Hillocks, 1982; Lalande, 1982; Robb et al., 1986; Semke, 1984), while several other studies found that different types of

error correction in L2 writing can be useful (e.g., Cathcart & Olsen, 1976; Dulay & Burt, 1977; Kennedy, 1973; Krashen, 1977; Krashen & Selinger, 1975). Other research, however, has provided ample evidence in support of written error correction. To this end, the effects of different types of WCF (e.g., error identification, direct error correction, indirect error correction, comments on errors with no correction, metalinguistic feedback, comments on content) have been examined in various research (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Chandler, 2003; Clark & Ouellette, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; Bitchener, Young & Cameron, 2005; Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008; Ferris, 1997; Hartshorn, 2008; Sheen, 2007; Sachs & Polio, 2007). However, despite the support for WCF in general, the different types and amounts of WCF that work best are still unclear, and research findings in support of the use of different types of WCF (e.g., RCLA Amrhein & Nassaji 96) demonstrate varied results. For example, Sheen (2007) found that WCF on structural errors that targeted a single linguistic feature improved learners' accuracy. On the other hand, Sheppard (1992) found that the use of holistic WCF on meaning was more useful than surface-level WCF on form in increasing students' awareness of sentence boundaries. Research has also demonstrated varying findings even within studies (e.g., Bitchener, Young & Cameron, 2005; Clark & Ouellette, 2008; Hartshorn, 2008). For example, Clark and Ouellette's (2008) study showed that WCF helped learners somewhat, but was not sufficient to help them correct their errors. They found that WCF helped learners notice that errors existed, but did not help them to identify the boundaries and nature of the errors. In addition, while Hartshorn (2008) found that WCF helped improve overall structural accuracy, Bitchener, Young, and Cameron (2005) found that a combination of WCF and conference feedback improved accuracy levels in some structures, but found no overall effect on accuracy improvement. With increasing

research evidence both for and against the effectiveness of WCF, researchers have looked for ways to explain why different amounts and types of WCF might be ineffective. Research has suggested that one major problem is the perspective from which WCF is provided. For example, when teachers correct errors, they often change students' language according to what they think learners want to or should say, but there is at times a mismatch between the idea that a student wants to express and that which a teacher assumes is correct (Ferris, 1995; Gass & Selinker, 1994; Zamel, 1985). At the root of this problem lies a misunderstanding between students and teachers. Research has also provided evidence that students often do not understand the meaning of much of the WCF on their papers and also do not know what they are expected to do with the WCF. Ferris (1995) and Hyland (1998), for example, found that students had problems understanding the WCF provided to them and that often students' use of feedback did not completely match the teacher's intentions. The effectiveness of WCF has also been suggested to hinge upon students' preferences for it. In other words, students' opinions and preferences for certain types and amounts of WCF affect their use of it for learning. For example, if a student prefers or believes that one type of WCF is more useful, then he or she may be more likely to pay more attention to the correction and use it for learning than if he or she does not believe in its effects (McCargar, 1993; Schulz, 2001). Adding to the complexity, research investigating students' preferences for WCF has found that students' preferences for WCF vary. Some studies have found that students appreciate receiving large amounts of different types of WCF irrespective of the types of errors on which it is focused (e.g., Cathcart & Olsen, 1976; Ferris, 1995; Lee, 2005; Radecki & Swales, 1988). Other studies have found evidence demonstrating that students prefer WCF in the form of comments on content and ideas rather than on grammatical, structural and surface

errors (Semke, 1984; Zamel, 1985; Woroniecka, 1998). Yet, some studies have found that students prefer WCF in the form of comments on content and ideas as well as explicit WCF on their grammatical, structural, and surface errors (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Leki, 1991; Ziv, 1984). Lee (2005) found that students preferred comprehensive WCF rather than selective WCF, and that students approved of overt correction as well as indirect WCF such as coding.

CJAL \* RCLA Amrhein & Nassaji 97 Another important question has been whether students' expectations and preferences are met by the actual WCF that teachers provide. While some research has shown agreements between students and teachers in a number of areas, others have found considerable discrepancies (e.g., Diab, 2005; Hyland, 1998, 2003; Jeon & Kang, 2005; Saito, 1994). For example, Montgomery and Baker (2007) compared teachers' selfassessments and student perceptions of the use of local and global WCF in an intensive ESL course and found that students' perceptions of the amounts of local and global WCF they received matched the teachers' perception of the amounts of local and global WCF they provided. However, Diab (2005) compared an ESL teacher's beliefs with two of her students' beliefs about the effectiveness of various types of WCF and found that the students' views on the effectiveness of teachers' feedback strategies conflicted with that of the teacher's



Most of the studies on WCF ((Zheng & Yu, 2018)) In the case of direct CF the teacher gives the correct form to the students, and it is desirable for low-level-of-proficiency students who are unable to self-correct and do not know what the correct form might be. However, it requires minimal processing on the part of the learners, and thus, it may not contribute to longterm learning (Shintani & Ellis, 2013b). A recent study by (Kadarisman, 2016)) suggests that direct CF can be effective in promoting the acquisition of only specific grammatical

features. the chance of learning taking place as evidenced in new writing. In the case of ME, rewriting requires learners to apply the information provided to identify and correct their errors.

Many studies have investigated whether revision leads to increased writing accuracy. (Chandler, 2003) investigated the effect of direct WCF plus revision. One group revised immediately after correction while another group revised weeks after receiving the feedback. Chandler reported the learners who revised after each piece of writing improved inaccuracy from the first to the fifth assignment but there was no improvement in the other group. (Jabulani, 2018) examined the effects of what they called “dynamic corrective feedback”.

In sum, previous WCF researchers have mainly focused on AWCF while the different types of SWCF (i.e., direct vs. indirect) provided in class have not been examined widely. Furthermore, the ways in which the provision of SWCF during collaborative writing impacts the amount of uptake and subsequent language learning deserves more attention, as collaborative writing tasks are being increasingly implemented in classrooms (Storch, 2013). In terms of learner populations in WCF research, previous collaborative writing and processing of feedback research has focused mainly on advanced L2 learners, and more research is needed with beginner-level learners whose primary concern focuses on accuracy (Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012).

Another methodological concern raised by Wigglesworth and Storch is the need to distinguish between improved accuracy and language learning (i.e., learning of new linguistic features) through collaborative writing. Previous research has focused on the improvement of writing accuracy by examining either revised texts (i.e., uptake) or new texts. In order to 8 |

KIM ET AL. investigate the potential role of collaborative writing in learning new linguistic features with the provision of different types of SWCF, classroom-based research using a pretest-posttest research design is much needed. Additionally, since receiving SWCF could interfere with students' collaborative writing processes, the way students feel about SWCF should be examined.

