

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Writing in English

Different languages use different writing systems. Different languages also use different writing styles of organization. English writing is different from Javanese or Spanish style of writing. English organization, for example, is simple. English uses a straight line from beginning to end as described below:

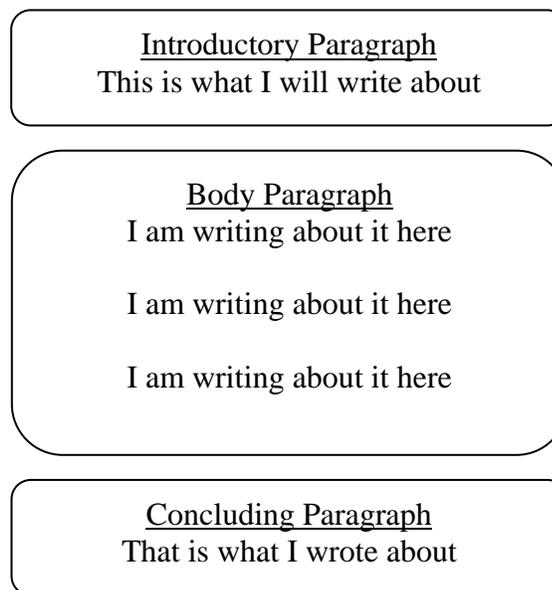


Diagram: English Organization

The diagram shows us that when English speakers read an article, they expect the article to have a beginning, middle, and an end. The beginning should say what the article is going to be about, the middle should talk about the topic of the article, and the end should say what the article was about.¹

However, it is important to understand that one style of writing is not better than another, just as one language is not better than another is. The styles are just different. To be a successful writer in any language, people need to learn the

¹*Ibid.*, p. XV.

writing style in addition to words and grammar rules. In other word, they need to know the criteria of good writing, which will be described below.

1. Criteria of Good Writing

There are many criteria of good writing mentioned by the experts worldwide. The consideration of how good writing is, however, not completely different from one to other experts. There are always remaining common elements of good composition. There are two considerations the researcher prefers to mention in the study.

Aristotle maintains that a good writing should have unity, coherence, and focus of attention. He continues that coherence among sentences or paragraphs is not simply build by putting transitional conjunctions such as *moreover*, *furthermore*, *nevertheless*, *in addition*, etc., and using them frequently.² Langan joins Aristotle in providing four bases to evaluate writing, namely unity, support, coherence, and sentence skill. More specifically, *unity* is understood as advancing a single point and stick to that point, while *support* involves using specific evidence to support the point. *Coherence*, on the other hand, requires organizing and connecting the specific evidence, and lastly, *sentence skill* refers to clear and error-free sentences. To achieve error-free sentences, these following elements should be taken into consideration, including:

a. Grammar

b. Mechanics

1. Manuscript form/ format (papers look attractive, neat and easy to read)
2. Capital letters
3. Numbers and abbreviations Punctuation
4. Apostrophe

²Rudolf Flesch, *Tips Menulis Dalam Bahasa Inggris*, Transl. Rahajeng Desy, (Yogyakarta: Dolphin Books, 2006), 1st Ed., p. 46.

5. Quotation marks
 6. Comma
 7. Other punctuation marks
- c. Word use
1. Improving spelling
 2. Vocabulary development
 3. Commonly confused words
 4. Effective word choice
 5. Sentence variety³

Here, the researcher considers that all mentioned criteria are clear and thorough. Therefore, bearing in mind some criteria of good writing, to some extent, is the important factor that helps teachers more in giving feedback on the students' works.

2. Steps of Writing Process

Teaching writing is often considered as more complicated than teaching other language skills. It is not simply encouraging students to take a pen in hand and expect words to flow perfectly onto paper. Moreover, it employs strategies to manage the composing process. Teaching writing requires the teacher to involve various activities such as generating ideas, drafting, editing, etc. in writing process. Below is a consideration involved in teaching writing.

Richards suggests that most of the writing tasks can be completed by a sequence of activities that focus on the writing process as follows:

1. *Pre-writing phase*. It includes discussion of the topic, model of compositions, brainstorming on the topic, etc. to generate students' ideas and collect information related to the topic.

³J. Langan, *College Writing Skills with Readings* (New York: The McGraw – Hill Companies Inc., 1997), 4th Ed., p. 95.

2. *Free writing*. Students use their ideas, information, and notes to plan their compositions. During this phase, students write freely on the topic. The focus here is organizing ideas – not perfecting grammar and spelling.
3. *Drafting*. Students now write a first complete draft in sentence and paragraph form, but again without worrying about grammar, punctuation, and spelling.
4. *Revising*. This is in pair or group feedback sessions. Here students ask questions for clarification or suggestions. After this, they work alone to reorganize, revise, and rewrite their draft.
5. *Editing*. Students check their second draft for accuracy. This time, they concentrate on checking that their ideas are clearly organized and have included enough details. When content and organization seem fine, students then focus on grammar, punctuation, and spelling.
6. *Final phase*. Students write a clean third (final) draft to hand it for comments. They may submit their writing to the teacher or put up on classroom bulletin.⁴

Not different from Richards' explanation, Broadman and Frydenberg suggest six steps of writing process in teaching writing skills.

1. *Analyzing the assignment* to make sure that the writer understands the assignment. It can be done by asking questions using: what, why, where, how long, when, and how,
2. *Brainstorming* means to write down ideas of all kinds – good or bad – on a piece of paper. It can be done by using: mind map, columns, and free writing,
3. *Organizing ideas* includes write the topic sentence, eliminate irrelevant ideas, and make an outline and add relevant ideas,
4. *Writing the first draft*,

⁴Jack C. Richards, *et. al.*, *New Interchange: English for International Communication* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1998), 3rd Ed., p. X.

5. *Rewriting the first draft*, and
6. *Writing the final draft* (or next draft)⁵

To teach English writing well means to strive hard to complete the above-mentioned activities and encourage the students to make good writing works as well.

3. Approaches to Teaching Writing

Hyland mentions that fundamentally, writing is learned, rather than taught, and the teacher's best methods are flexibility and support. This means responding to the specific instructional context, particularly the age, first language and experience of the students, and their writing purpose, and providing extensive encouragement in the form of meaningful contexts, peer involvement, prior text, useful feedback and guidance in the writing process.⁶

There are two approaches to teaching writing the writer wants to state. Silva, as quoted by Hyland, offers a *Process Approach* to teaching writing. Looking at the classroom context, this approach calls for providing a positive, encouraging, and collaborative workshop environment within which students, with ample time and minimal interference, can work through their composing process. The teacher's role is to help students develop viable strategies for getting started (finding topics, generating ideas and information, focusing, and planning structure and procedure), for drafting (encouraging multiple draft), for revising (adding, deleting, modifying, and rearranging ideas); and for editing (attending to vocabularies, sentence structure, grammar and mechanics).⁷

⁵C. A. Boardman and Jia F., Op. Cit., p. 31 – 40.

⁶K. Hyland, *Teaching and Researching Writing*, (London: Pearson Education Ltd., 2002), p. 78.

⁷*Ibid.*, p. 89.

On the other hand, Board prefers to use *Genre-Based Approach* stating that the main consideration for people in using language is to achieve a variety of social purpose, such as to entertain, to explain how something works, to provide information, to argue a position, to explore the inner world of the imagination, etc. Thus, they need to express and develop ideas on a range of topics. In this case, the teacher need to help the students see how they can go about discovering how genres differ from one another, how the same genre may vary, as well as what the particular expectations of the writing they are engaged in might actually be.⁸

According to the writer, the approach to teaching writing should involve both. Since the genre approach to teaching writing focuses on teaching particular genres that students need control of in order to succeed in particular settings, this might include a focus on language and discourse features of the texts, as well as the context in which the text is produced.

B. The Role of the Teacher in the Classroom

The personal quality of individual teachers is vital. It affects on how life in the classroom is organized and managed. There is no doubt that the teacher is critical in the formation of positive attitudes towards learning, towards the subject being learned and, frequently, towards aspects of theme being studied. The three main personal qualities of individual teachers involve classroom management, interpersonal skills, and proficiency in the target language.

The most important factor concerning personal quality of individual teachers is managing the classroom. Several experts propose some characteristics of a good teacher in classroom. Alderson in Oliveira, for example, points out that a teacher should know certain things and at the same time, they have to do others

⁸*Ibid.*, p. 97

in order to be able to carry out their task.⁹ Following this statement, foreign language teachers should:

1. Understand the process of foreign language learning, able to facilitate learning and encourage good learning strategies;
2. Understand the meaning of errors, their causes and how to treat them;
3. Understand the linguistic process;
4. Analyze learners need and establish and develop relevant aims;
5. Find ways to promote classroom interaction, and to promote it in large and heterogeneous classes;
6. Be familiar with different methods and approaches, know how to analyze and implement them;
7. Analyze materials critically and make them adequate for their own circumstances;
8. Manage the classroom; and
9. Evaluate students and activities.

At the same time, a foreign language teacher should be able to practice some principle of have-to-do activities that include:

1. Preparing: planning, designing, selecting, adapting, and producing materials, activities, and tests;
2. Organizing: creating favorable conditions, developing a supportive and interesting atmosphere, facilitating activities/ interaction and administering;
3. Presenting: explaining exemplifying, paraphrasing and adapting language to learners;
4. Monitoring: observing, advising, evaluating students performance, selecting, providing feedback, adjusting activities, negotiating, differentiating and diagnosis; and

⁹V. S. D. Oliveira, "Managing Change in Education: A Teacher Development Project for Primary and Secondary School Teachers" in Barbara, L and Mike Scott (eds.), *Reflections on Language Learning*, (Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters, 1994), p. 42.

5. Reflecting.¹⁰

The second important factor that the teacher should have is interpersonal skills. Interpersonal skills refer to the writing teacher ability to provide understanding for school members and school communities. Commins argues that interpersonal skills are important not only in the classroom but also within the school and wider community. The success of the program then will depend on the writing teacher capacity to:

1. Represent the value of language learning to other staff members, parents, and skeptics,
2. Liaise with class teachers to plan writing class activities which integrate with other aspects of curriculum,
3. Be flexible and adaptable to varying needs and requirements of particular schools and classes.¹¹

It is reasonable expectation since writing teaching and learning may bring about skepticism or even active opposition from teachers and some parents.¹²

Finally, a good teacher has to have proficiency in the target language. Proficiency is the outcome of language learning. It is the ability to use language appropriately, in term of its function, context or content and accuracy. It is a goal to which teaching and learning are directed. Proficiency is defined in term of mastery of semantic, discourse and sociolinguistic features of the target language. That is to say, not only cognitive and academic language skills are important, but also the ability to communicate the knowledge and values acquired as part of school learning. In this context, Commins argues that writing

¹⁰H.G.Widdowson, *Teaching Language as Communication*, (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1987), p. 57.

¹¹L. Commins, "LOTE Minimum Skills Package" in Board, *Teaching of Language Other Than English (LOTE): Implication for Teacher Education and Teacher Registration*. (Toowong, 1992), p. 42.

¹²J. Atanasovska, "LOTE in the Life of the Community" in Nicholas, H. (ed.), *Language Other Than English and the Mainstream in Government and Catholic Schools*, (Victoria, Bundoora: La Trobe University, School of Education, 1993), p. 7.

teachers will be most effective when they are proficient in the target language to a level that enables them to promote purposeful and active language use in the classroom. The active language use is used to interact with native speakers they encounter in the course of their teaching-related activities, and through this proficiency to establish their credibility amongst learners, parents, and teaching community.¹³

All of the principles mentioned above are important for language teachers in order to achieve the aims of language teaching in four macro-skills generally, and in writing skills more specifically.

C. Learners of Writing Class

Learner is one of the important components contributing to the success or failure of instructional objectives. Therefore, in order to teach effectively, teachers need to learn as much as they can about their students, since some of teaching procedures vary depending upon students in classes. Some factors affecting learners in second or foreign language learning which cannot be ignored include age, aptitude, aspirations and needs, motivation, native language, socio-economic status, previous language experiences, personality, and intelligence.¹⁴ Brown, for instance, argues that effective language learners:

1. Find their own way, taking charge of their learning,
2. Organize information about language,
3. Are creative, developing a “feel” for the language by experimenting with its grammar and words,
4. Make their own opportunities for practice in using the language inside and outside the classroom,

¹³L. Commins, *Op. Cit.*, p. 43.

¹⁴M. Finocchiaro, *The Foreign Language Learner: A Guide for Teachers*, (New York: Regents, 1973), p. 20.

5. Learn to live with uncertainty by not getting flustered and by continuing to talk and listen without understanding every word,
6. Use mnemonics and other memory strategies to recall what has been learned,
7. Make errors work for them and not against them,
8. Use linguistic knowledge, including knowledge of their first language, in learning a second language,
9. Use contextual cues to help them in comprehension,
10. Learn to make intelligent guesses,
11. Learn chunks of language as wholes and formalized routines to help them perform “beyond their competence”,
12. Learn certain tricks that help to keep conversations going, and
13. Learn certain production strategies to fill in gaps in their own competence.¹⁵

However, the teacher should pay more attention when the students they are facing are adult learners. Teaching adult learners is considered by many to be the most challenging. Harmer explains that since the students at this age are never entirely problem-free learners, and have a number of characteristics that can sometimes make learning and teaching problematic, the teacher should recognize their needs to minimize the bad effects. The characteristics are:

1. They can be critical of teaching methods. Their previous learning experiences may have predisposed them to one particular methodological style that makes them uncomfortable with unfamiliar teaching patterns.
2. They may have experienced failure or criticism at school that makes them anxious and under-confident about learning a language.
3. Many older adults worry that their intellectual power may be diminishing with age - they are concerned to keep their creative powers alive.¹⁶

¹⁵H. D. Brown, *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*, (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents, 1994), p. 191.

¹⁶J. Harmer, *The Practice of English Language Teaching, Op. Cit.*, p. 40.

Nevertheless, styles of adult learners are obviously different. The methodologist Tony Wright, as stated by Harmer, describes four different learner styles within a group.

1. *The enthusiast* looks to the teacher as a point of reference and is concerned with the goals of the learning group,
2. *The oracular* focuses on the teacher but is more oriented towards the satisfaction of personal goals,
3. *The participator* tends to concentrate on group goals and group solidarity, and
4. *The rebel* is mainly concerned with the satisfaction of his or her own goals.¹⁷

Faced with the description of different learner styles, it may seem that the teacher's task is overwhelmingly complex. The teacher has to start with the recognition of students as individuals as well as being members of a group. Some students may be better writers than others may.

For the writer, therefore, a good teacher of adults should take all of these factors into account. He is aware that his students will often be prepared to stick with an activity for longer than younger learners as well as encouraging his students to use their own life experience in the learning process. Besides that, he needs also to recognize which students need more personal attention than others, and which need different kinds of explanations and practice of language.¹⁸

D. Feedback in the Class of Writing

Feedback is widely seen in education as the crucial factor for both encouraging and consolidating learning. Kepner defines feedback in general as any procedures used to inform a learner whether an instructional response is right or wrong. Dealing with the term "feedback," there are some terms related and

¹⁷*Ibid.*, p. 42.

¹⁸*Ibid.*, p. 48.

sometimes used for substitution as “comments”, “respond”, or “correction”. These terms, according to Kepner can be used interchangeably.¹⁹

However, we need to be careful when mentioning these terms on students’ papers. Actually there still some minor points among them which should be bore in mind that *feedback* is the information a teacher or another learner gives to learners on how well they are doing, either to help the learner improve specific points, or to help plan their learning. In the other hand, *response* brings the teacher option of personalizing his/her comments. Responding to students’ work, in Harmer’s point of view, is about reacting to their ideas and to how they put them across. By responding, it means discussing the students’ writing rather than judging it, while *correcting* is the stage at which we indicate when something is not right.²⁰ *Comments*, according to Sommers, are considered to create the motive for doing something in different in the next draft.²¹

For these reasons, it is better to use these different terms according to what teachers would like to focus on.

1. Feedback During Writing Process

In general, there is a general agreement that providing feedback timely can have great impact on students’ improvement, and feedback will be more effective when it is delivered at intermediate stages of writing process.²² Providing early feedback at intermediate stages provides a model for critical review of work in progress that the student can gradually learn to implement

¹⁹C. G. Kepner, “An Experiment in the Relationship of Types of Written Feedback to the Development of Second-Language Writing Skills”, *The Modern Language Journal*, 75, 305-315, 1991, p. 141., retrieved from <http://www.ecls.ncl.ac.uk/publish/Volume2/ Grami/grami.htm>

²⁰J. Harmer, *How to Teach Writing*, (England: Pearson Education Ltd, 2004), p. 112.

²¹N. Sommers, *Op. Cit.*, p. 232.

²²M. L. Ryoo, “The Effect of Teacher Feedback on EFL Student's Writing in a Korea University Class”, *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 1, (1), 2004, p. 127.

independently of the tutor. Meanwhile, corrections on composition made during the writing process seem to be helpful in improving students' writing.²³

The ways of giving feedback during writing process are easy to follow. First, the teacher starts with discussing the topic and model of composition. In this sense, he needs to make sure that the students understand the topic being discussed by asking them some related questions using what, why, where, when, etc. Second, the teacher allows the students to use their ideas, information, and notes to plan their compositions. Here, the students write freely about the topic. The focus in this phase is organizing ideas. Third, when the students are planning and organizing his ideas, the teacher can comment on the unity and coherence of ideas. In this regard, the teacher should give feedback many times between drafts, not just one time when students submit their final draft. Finally, the teacher can make in pair or group feedback sessions. Here, he gives the students a chance to find the difficulties of the task within the group then ask for clarification from the teacher before they submit the task.

Furthermore, if the teacher tries to make comments and corrections on the final version of the student paper, the teacher would be exhausted and the student would be discouraged. One alternative can be giving feedback *through* the process of writing. That is, while the student is planning and organizing his ideas, the teacher can comment on the unity and coherence of ideas. Alternatively, while the student is writing his draft, the teacher can proofread for word order, subject-verb agreement, spelling mistakes. This gradual checking can minimize the exhaustive red marks on the student paper.

²³I. Leki, "Coaching from the Margins: Issues in Written Response" in B. Kroll (Ed.), *Second Language Writing: Research Insights for the Classroom*, (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1990), p. 64.

Another advantage of such correction is that the student sees these comments when the writing experience is still fresh in his mind.²⁴

2. Feedback to Writing Product

Instead of giving feedback at intermediate stages of writing process, feedback can also be delivered at the end of writing process i.e. to the product of writing. In this sense, the students have already written a clear final draft to hand it for comments. Later, they submit their writing to the teacher.

A teacher should be careful when dealing with product of their writing. First, the most important aspect while giving feedback to writing product is adopting a positive attitude to student writing. Phyllis Frus stated that only by giving comments to students' writing will never suffice their needs, however, for the students frequently do not understand or choose to ignore their instructor's remarks, even when those are substantive and point out specific passages that trouble comprehension.²⁵ Second, while marking mechanically, we may not realize that we are showing the student only his mistakes – negative points. If the student receives only negative feedback, he may easily be discouraged from trying to form complex structures and using new vocabulary. However, feedback sessions can be a beneficial experience for the student if the teacher shows the strong points as well.

Another important point to consider while giving feedback, according to Zeliha Gulcat and Oya Ozagac, is the amount of correction on the product. In academic writing, the product is expected to have:

1. A wide range of vocabulary
2. Correct grammar

²⁴The source is written by Zeliha Gulcat and Oya Ozagac September, 2004. Retrieved June 30, 2010 from [http://www.buowl.boun.edu.tr/teachers/CORRECTING AND GIVING FEEDBACK TO WRITING.htm](http://www.buowl.boun.edu.tr/teachers/CORRECTING_AND_GIVING_FEEDBACK_TO_WRITING.htm)

²⁵Phyllis Frus, "Pedagogical Theory and Practice: Responding to Student Writing", *Sweetland Newsletter*, II, 2, March, 1999, p. 1.

3. Meaningful punctuation
4. Accurate spelling
5. Varied sentence structures
6. Unity and coherence in ideas
7. Well-supported and explained major points.

Another strategy is to use some kind of “code.” This list of symbols that show typical mistakes can be found in writing guides such as:

Code	Explanation	Example Sentences
WF	Wrong Form	The <u>strong</u> of Rambo amazed his enemies. (WF)
WT	Wrong tense	I <u>see</u> him yesterday. (WF)
Sp	Spelling	He <u>seperates</u> his belongings. (Sp)

For such a code to be useful for the students, they should be familiar with it beforehand. If the teacher thinks photocopying would not be enough, he could post an enlarged version on the wall of the class as well. Seeing the common mistakes on the wall may also reduce the number of student mistakes.²⁶

Providing constructive feedback to the student, using a special code for proofreading, and editing a student paper through planning and drafting stages are some suggested ways for correcting and giving feedback to student writing.

3. Feedback on Form and Feedback on Content

First, it is better to know feedback on form and feedback on content as well. According to Grami, feedback on form, which is also known as “grammar feedback” and “surface-level feedback” is the type of feedback that

²⁶Zeliha Gulcat and Oya Ozagac, *Op. Cit.*,

concentrates on matters as spelling, grammar, punctuation, etc. On the other hand, feedback on content usually refers to issues like organization, choice of vocabularies, rhetoric use of the language, cohesion and coherence, and other more abstract and notional matters of writing.²⁷

However, it is important to notice that the dichotomy between content and form is largely artificial. For instance, consistent errors in verb tense and aspect inflection (form) can cause confusion for the reader about the period and immediacy of the action (content). Inaccurate lexical choices (form) can cause major problems in the overall comprehensibility of a text, causing the reader to be unsure of what the writer intended to express (content).

Harmer maintains that that it is not appropriate to focus on only lexical and grammatical mistakes; instead, ideas and ways to present them should be looked on when reacting to students' work.²⁸ Newmark argues, as stated by Ellis, that systematic attention to grammatical form of utterances is neither necessary condition nor a sufficient one for successful language learning.²⁹ In addition, Ferris and Hedgcock also suggest that it is neither necessary nor desirable for a teacher to respond to every problem on every draft of a student writing. The teacher should focus only on patterns of errors that are serious, frequent patterns of errors made by individual students. This option is thought to facilitate progress toward the development of successful self-editing strategies. However, survey reports indicate that students prefer all of their errors to be identified so that they do not miss anything.³⁰

Finally, it is better to pay attention on both content and form of students' work as both are considered important in developing writing skill of students,

²⁷Grami, M.A. (2005). The effect of teachers' written feedback on ESL students' perception: A study at a Saudi ESL university-level context. The source is retrieved on June 30, 2010 from <http://www.ecls.ncl.ac.uk/publish/Volume2/Grami/grami.htm>

²⁸J. Harmer, *How to Teach Writing*, *Op. Cit.*, p. 112.

²⁹R. Ellis, *Instructed Second Language Acquisition: Learning in the Classroom*, (Oxford: Basil Blackwell Ltd., 1990), p. 36.

³⁰D. R. Ferris and John S. Hedgcock, *Op. Cit.*, 2nd Ed., p. 266.

and equalizing treatment to them. The preference depends on the background of students, the needs of students, and the feature of each assignment.³¹ According to Ellis, a number of proposals are made for the teacher regarding that errors ought to be corrected:

1. Distinguish mistakes and errors and treat differently,
2. Correct global, not local errors,
3. Correct errors that affect the overall comprehensibility,
4. Correct stigmatized errors, and
5. Correct errors relating to the learner's next stage of development.³²

E. Kinds of Feedback

1. Written feedback and Oral Feedback

There are two considerations the researcher tends to mention concerning written feedback. According Hyland and Hyland's point of views, written feedback may be considered as either ignoring students' own voice or putting teachers' own requirements on them, or as forcing them to meet expectations needed to gain success in writing.³³ Sommers, on the other hand, provides another explanation as written comments should be considered as a means to help students write effectively rather than a way for teachers to satisfy themselves that they have done their jobs.³⁴

From the consideration, it seems obvious that the quality of the feedback provided by the teacher is one of the most important factors in enhancing students' writing. Thorough written feedback from the teacher can create a motive for revising. In addition, teacher written comments not only indicate

³¹A.D. Cohen & Cavalcanti, M.C., "Feedback on compositions: Teacher and student verbal reports" in B. Kroll (Ed.), *Second Language Writing: Research Insights for the Classroom*, (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1990), p. 173.

³²R. Ellis, *Op. Cit.*, p. 54-55.

³³F. Hyland & K. Hyland, *Feedback in the Second Language Writing*, (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2006), p. 2.

³⁴N. Sommers, *Op. Cit.*, p. 239.

the strengths and weaknesses of the students' writing but they may also assist students in monitoring their own progress and identifying specific language areas to develop further. Teacher written feedback, in reality, can promote students' self-study skills.

Looking back at the previous criteria of good writing, the researcher generalizes that good feedback should have comments on all aspects of student texts, including content, rhetorical structure, grammar, and mechanics. Moreover, teacher written feedback should be clear and concrete to help students with revision. Good feedback means that all language and content mistakes should be identified and corrected.

Related to the oral feedback, Lightbown and Spada mention six different feedbacks that may be provided in the classroom.

1. *Explicit* correction refers to the explicit provision of the correct form. As the teacher provides a correct form, he clearly indicates that what the student had said was incorrect (for example, 'Oh, you mean...', or 'You should write or say...').
2. *Recasts* involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's sentence, minus the error. Recasts are generally implicit in that they are not introduced by 'You mean', 'Use this word', or 'You should say.'
3. *Clarification requests* indicate to students either that the teacher has misunderstood their sentence or utterance. A clarification request includes phrases such as 'Pardon me...' It also includes a repetition of the error as in 'What do you mean by...?' For example:

T: How often do you wash the dishes?
 S: Fourteen.
 T: Excuse me. (Clarification request)
 S: Fourteen.
 T: Fourteen what? (Clarification request)
 S: Fourteen for a week.

T: Fourteen times a week? (Recast)

S: Yes. Dinner and supper

4. *Metalinguistic feedback* contains comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the students' utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form. Metalinguistic comments generally indicate that there is an error somewhere (for example, 'Can you find your error?'). In addition, metalinguistic information generally provides either some grammatical metalanguage that refers to the nature of the error (for example, 'it is masculine') or a word definition in the case of lexical errors.
5. *Elicitation* refers to at least three techniques that the teacher uses directly to elicit the correct form from the students.
 - a. Elicit completion of the sentence, such as 'It is a...
 - b. Use question, such as 'How do we say X in English?'
 - c. Ask the students to reformulate the sentence.
6. *Repetition* refers to the teacher's repetition to the students' error. For example:

S: He is in the bathroom.

T: Bathroom? Bedroom. He is in the bedroom.³⁵

2. Direct Feedback and Indirect Feedback

Another important concern in feedback is whether the teacher should provide direct or indirect feedback. With direct object, the teacher simply provides a target-like form for the student writing or a suggested correction if more than one is possible. Indirect feedback, on the other hand, provides students with an indication that an error has been made, but requires the students to self-correct.

³⁵P. M. Lightbown and N. Spada, *How Language are Learned*, (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1999), 2nd Ed., p. 104-105.

Most experts agree that indirect feedback clearly has the most potential for helping students to continue developing their EFL proficiency. Students themselves, when asked about error feedback preferences, seem to realize that they will learn more from indirect feedback. However, it does not mean that direct feedback is not beneficial at all. In fact, it still has its place in responding process in case of complicated errors in students' writing. They suggest that direct feedback can play a productive role among lower-level students who are unable to self-editing or in the case of idiomatic lexical errors.³⁶

According to the writer, although direct feedback can have immediate advantage as the students make fewer mistakes in re-drafting, it does not improve students' writing accuracy in different papers. It does not promote an autonomous learning because when it is provided to the students, they will not do much more than copying the correction given by the teacher in the new draft. On the other hand, indirect feedback can enhance students' self-edit ability, as it requires students' involvement. It means when the teacher only points out, underlines, or codes the mistakes without providing direct correction, it enables the students to explore the problems and find the ways to solve them as well. In other words, involving the students to correction process will lead to better language acquisition.

F. The Function of Teacher Feedback to Students' Writing

Providing the right kind of feedback by the teacher to students' writing can make a significant difference in their writing achievement. First, teacher feedback represents the single largest investment of teacher time and energy, much more than time spent preparing for conducting classroom sessions. He does not have to explain the material from the beginning up to the end. He just needs

³⁶D. R. Ferris and John S. Hedgcock, *Op. Cit.*, 2nd Ed., p. 269.

to show where have made errors and provide specific and related suggestions to their writing. It also provides the opportunity for instruction to be tailored to the needs of individual students through face-to-face dialogue and written commentary at various points.³⁷

Furthermore, the feedback provided by the teacher is one of the most important factors in enhancing students' writing. It can highlight the academic conventions within which students are expected to write, to be able to produce writing with minimal errors and maximum clarity, and it can suggest ways for students to improve their future writing. In addition, feedback from the teacher can create a motive for revising; without these comments, students will revise their work in a consistently, narrow, and predictable way.³⁸ Finally yet importantly, teacher feedback does not only indicate the strengths and weaknesses of the students' writing but it may also assist students in monitoring their own progress and identifying specific language areas to develop further.

However, teachers should notice that feedback aids learning but students need a lot of encouragement to use the feedback in order to reflect on their work. Feedback will be useful only if the students can do something with the given feedback.³⁹ What we have to do, in conclusion, is to take the advantages of this kind of feedback and find ways to deal with the problems raised.

G. Previous Research

Regarding teacher feedback to students' writing, the researcher obtains reference from Nguyen Thi Huyen Trang, a student of English Department of Vietnam National University, entitled "Relationship between Teacher Written Feedback and Progress of the freshmen in Writing (An Investigation among the First-Year Students at Ed, CFL, and VNU)". The study was carried out aiming to

³⁷D. R. Ferris and J. S. Hedgcock, *Op. Cit.*, p. 185.

³⁸N. Sommers, *Op. Cit.*, p. 233.

³⁹J. Harmer, *How to Teach Writing, Op. Cit.*, p. 109.

find out the current ways of giving teacher written feedback, the progress made by students in writing after receiving teacher written feedback and the factors involving in this improvement, the difficulties of teachers and students during the process, and their preferences and suggestions on the matter. To fulfill the abovementioned objectives, the combination of both qualitative and quantitative methodology was utilized. The data from questionnaires with 10 teachers and 50 first-year students from English Department-College of Foreign Languages-Hanoi National University, semi-structured interviews with 3 teachers and 4 first-year students, and together with the analysis of 32 writing samples of these students were then synthesized and analyzed. The results of the study, in summary, were quite positive in finding that the teachers have done their work relatively effective. The improvement of the students, more or less, could be seeable. However, both the teachers and students have encountered a number of difficulties during the implementation of the process.

The second reference is from Zaimna, a student of IAIN Walisongo Semarang, entitled “The Effective of Immediate Correction Technique to Fix Students Pronunciation of Fricative Consonants (An Experimental Research at the Eighth Grade Students of MTs al-Khoiriyah Semarang)”. The research was carried out to find out the effectiveness of immediate correction technique in fixing the students’ pronunciation of fricative consonants. Here, two tests were conducted; pre-test and post test. Thus, tryout was given to analyze validity and reliability. The result of the research shows a significant difference between those who were taught using immediate correction and those who were not. However, the researcher admitted that he could not conduct the research optimally because of the limited time. Finally, he believed that if the research was conducted more optimally, the students’ achievement would probably be gained more optimally.