

**THE ENGLISH WRITING COMPETENCE OF
THE STUDENTS OF INDONESIAN SENIOR HIGH
SCHOOLS**



A Thesis

In a Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for Master's Degree
in Linguistics

Machalla M.A. Megaiab

NIM 13020211409004

**FACULTY OF HUMANITIES
DIPONEGORO UNIVERSITY
SEMARANG CENTRAL JAVA
INDONESIA**

2013

A THESIS
THE ENGLISH WRITING COMPETENCE OF THE STUDENTS
OF INDONESIAN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

(A CASE STUDY OF THE FIRST SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS IN
INDONESIA)

Submitted by:
Machalla M.A Megaiab
NIM:13020211409004

Approved by,
Advisor,

.....
Dr. Suwandi ,M.Pd.
NIP:195208151983031003

Master program in linguistics
Head,

.....
Drs. J. Herudjati Purwoko, M.Sc., Ph.D
NIP.195303271981031006

A THESIS
THE ENGLISH WRITING COMPETENCE OF THE STUDENTS
OF INDONESIAN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL
(A CASE STUDY OF THE FIRST SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS IN
INDONESIA)

Submitted by:

Machalla M.A Megaiab
NIM:13020211409004

VALIDATION

Approved by
Strata II Journal Examination Committee
Master's Degree in Linguistics
Post graduate Program Diponegoro University
On Tuesday, march26, 2013

Chairman

Dr. Suwandi ,M.Pd

NIP: 195208151983031003

First Member

Drs. J. Herudjati Purwoko, M.Sc., Ph.D
NIP.195303271981031006

Second Member

Dr. Nurhayati, M. Hum.

NIP. 196610041990012001

Third member

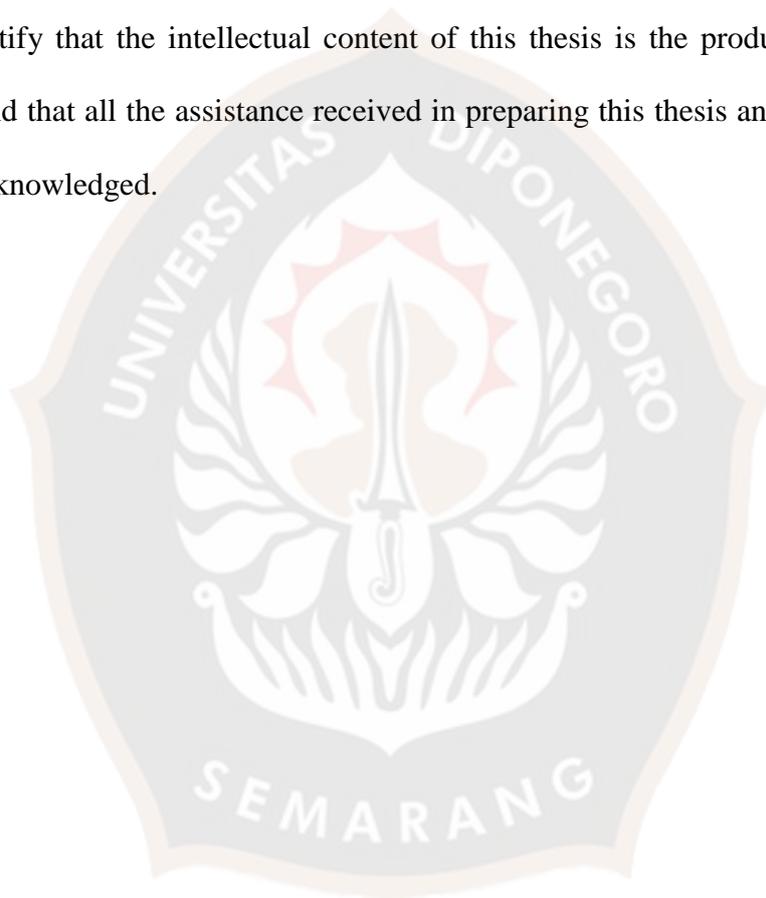
Drs. Suharno, M. Ed.

NIP: 195205081983031001

Statement of Originality

This is to certify that to the best of my knowledge, the content of this thesis is my own work. This thesis has not been submitted for any degree or other purposes.

I certify that the intellectual content of this thesis is the product of my own work and that all the assistance received in preparing this thesis and sources have been acknowledged.



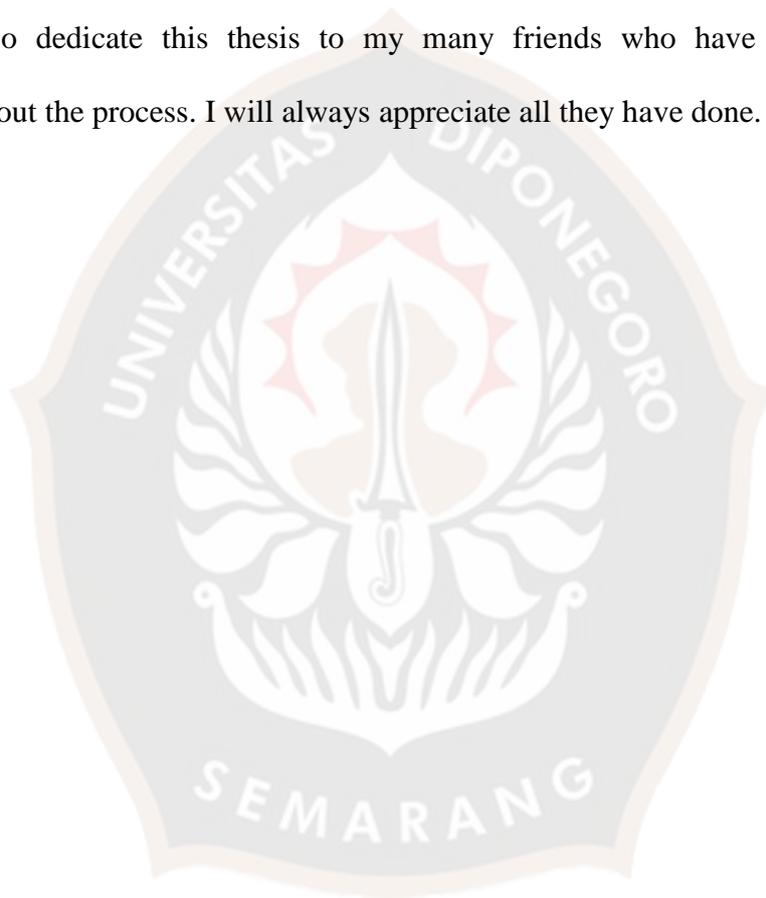
Semarang, 26, March 2013

Machalla M.A. Megaiab

Dedication

I dedicate my thesis to my family. A special feeling of gratitude to my loving parents, whose words of encouragement and push for tenacity ring in my ears. My brothers and sisters have never left my side and are very special.

I also dedicate this thesis to my many friends who have supported me throughout the process. I will always appreciate all they have done.



Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my supervisor Dr. Suwandi ,M.Pd for his support and advice during the production of this thesis. I would also like to thank the participants of SMA1 and SMA3, for taking part and enabling me to produce this piece of work.



TABLE OF CONTENT

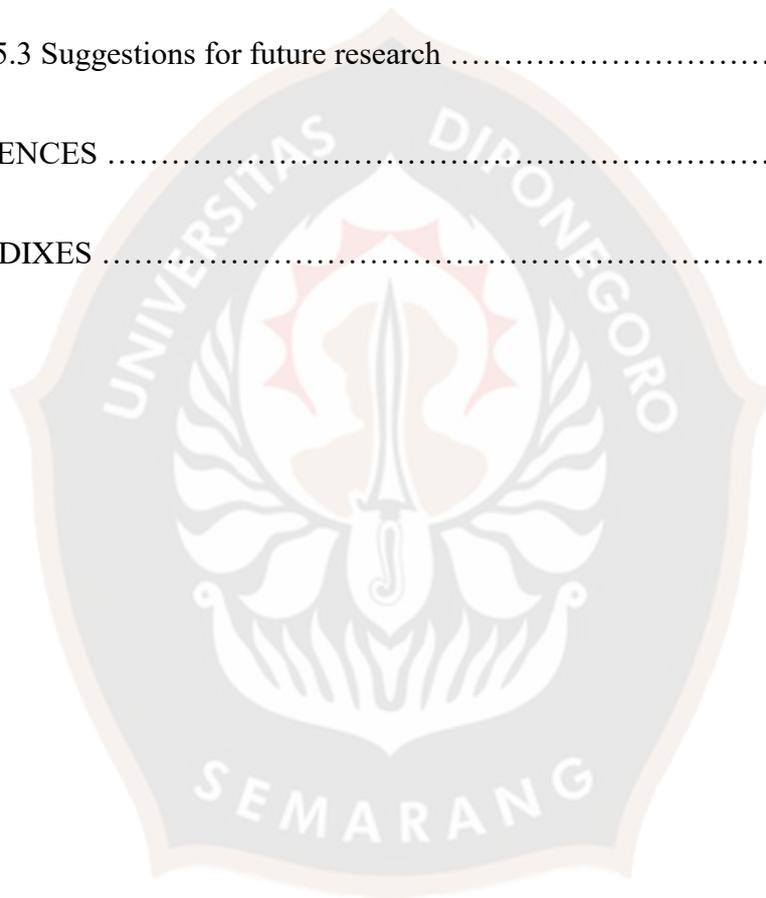
Cover	i
Approval	ii
Statement of originality	iii
Dedication	iv
Acknowledgement	v
Abstract	xiii
Abstract	xiv
Chapter I INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background of the study	1
1.2 Problem Statement	3
1.3 The Objectives of the Study	3
1.4 Scope of the study	4
1.5 significance of the study	4
Chapter II LITERATURE REVIEWS	5
2.1 Previous studies	5
2.2 What is writing?	7

2.3 Relationship of the Skills	8
2.3.1 Speaking and Writing	8
2.3.2 Differences between Written and Spoken English	9
2.3.3 Reading and Writing	11
2.4 Teaching the Aspects of effective writing	12
2.5 Features of Effective Writing	14
2.5.1 Focus	14
2.5.2 Organization	14
2.5.3 Support and Elaboration	15
2.5.4 Style	15
2.5.5 Conventions	16
2.6. How do the aspects help teachers?	16
2.7 How do the Aspects help students?	17
2.8 Process Writing Approach	19
2.9 Journal Writing.....	20
2.10 Performance-Based Assessment.....	21
2.11 Different types of writing.....	22

2.12 Responding to students writing	24
2.12.1 Teachers responding to students' writing.....	24
2.13 Definition of Feedback.....	25
2.14 Forms of feedback.....	28
2.15 Types of feedback.....	28
2.15.1 Effective	29
2.15.2 Descriptive	30
2.15.3 Evaluative	30
2.15.4 Motivational	31
2.16 Conferencing.....	31
2.17 Peer feedback.....	33
2.18 The benefits of Peer Feedback.....	35
2.19 Responding to errors	36
2.20 Students' Response to Teacher's Feedback	38
Chapter III Research Methods	46
3. 1 Research Design	46
3.2 population and samples.....	46

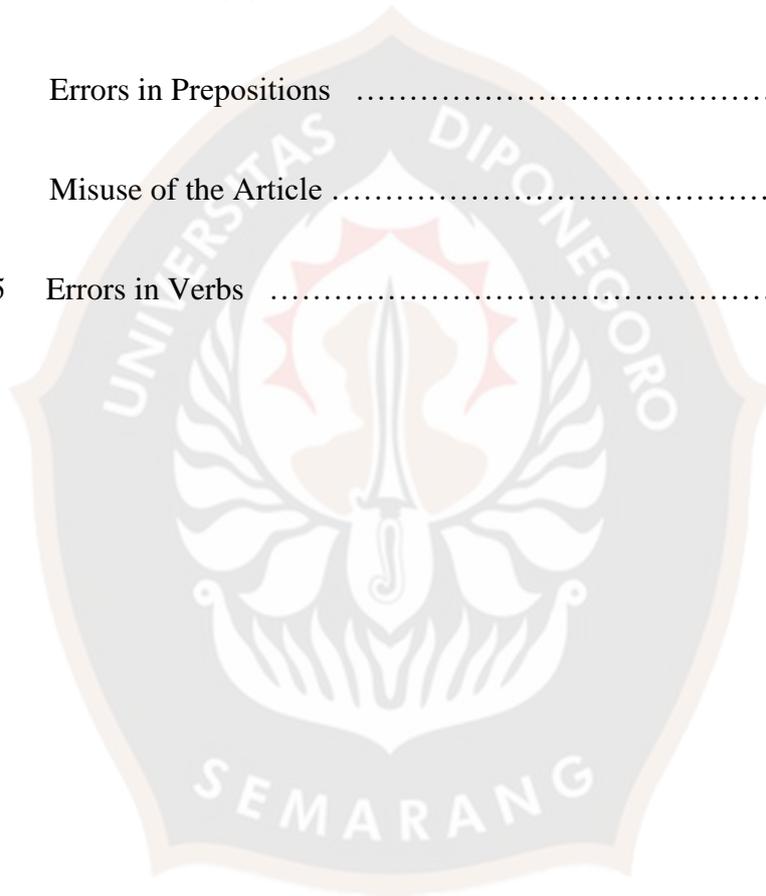
3.3 Instruments	46
3.4 Procedure	47
3.5 Data collection procedure.....	47
3.6 Techniques of analyzing data.....	48
Chapter IV Results and Discussion.....	49
4.1 The test instrument.....	49
4.2 Students' Competence in English Writing.....	50
4.2.1 Result and discussion	50
4.2.2 A detailed classification of errors.....	51
a. Tenses	52
b. Prepositions	53
c. Articles	54
d. Verbs	55
e. Spelling problems	56
f. Punctuation and capitalization	59
g. Singular and plural forms	60
4.3 Discussion	60

4.3.1 The errors	61
CHAPTER V Conclusion	66
5.1 conclusion	66
5.2 Recommendations	67
5.3 Suggestions for future research	68
REFERENCES	69
APPENDIXES	76



List of Tables

Table 1	The percentage of Errors	51
Tables 2	Errors of Tenses	52
Table 3	Errors in Prepositions	53
Table 4	Misuse of the Article	54
Tables 5	Errors in Verbs	55



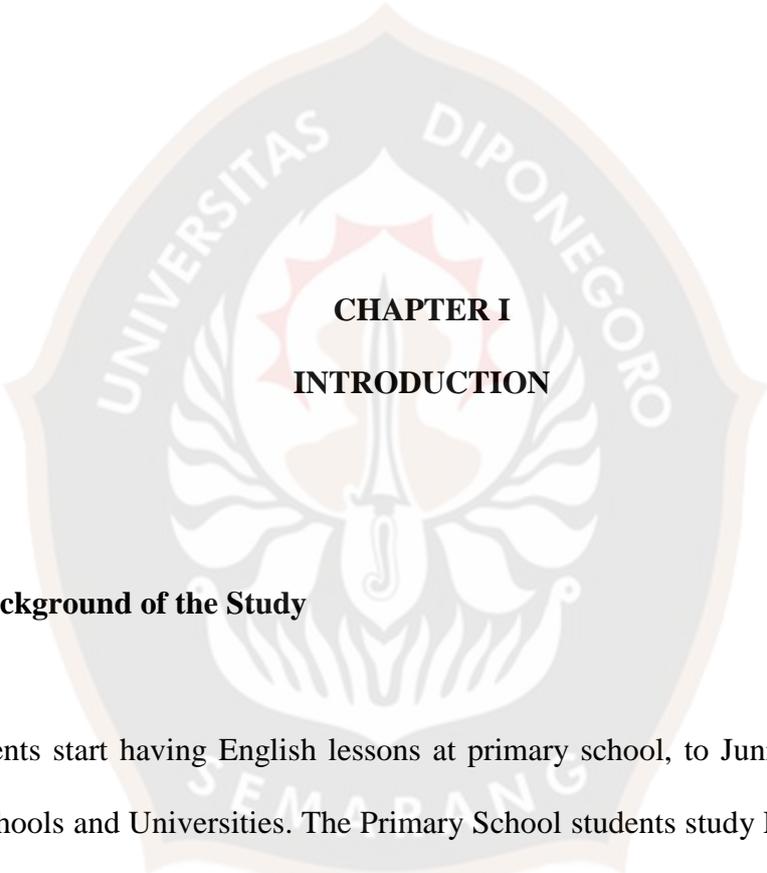
Abstrak

Penelitian ini berusaha menunjukkan kompetensi menulis dalam bahasa Inggris dari para siswa SMA, mengidentifikasi masalah, menemukan sebab-sebabnya dan mengusulkan saran-saran untuk mengatasi permasalahan ini. Untuk mencapai tujuan ini, peneliti mengajukan tiga pertanyaan penelitian yang menghasilkan jawaban permasalahan dan pembahasannya. Untuk mencapai tujuan penelitian ini, peneliti mengumpulkan data melalui test menulis. Para pesertanya adalah siswa SMA kelas X di SMA 1 dan SMA 3. Hasil penelitian menunjukkan bahwa para siswa mengalami permasalahan di berbagai kategori. Permasalahan yang paling banyak muncul terdapat di tata bahasa (*Grammar*), seperti *Tenses* (penanda waktu), Artikel, bentuk tunggal dan jamak, kata kerja, preposisi, dan pengejaan. Selain itu, para siswa mengalami kesulitan dalam penempatan tanda basa dan penulisan huruf besar. Kebanyakan kesalahan yang muncul ini dikarenakan oleh adanya pengaruh bahasa ibu.

Abstract

This study attempts to find out the English Writing Competence of the Students of Indonesian Senior High School, highlights the problems, finds out the cause and provides some suggestions to overcome the problems. For attaining this purpose, three questions were raised and the answers were provided and discussed. To find out the objectives of this study, the researcher collected the data through a writing test. The participants were the First Senior High school students in SMA1 and SMA3. The result of this study showed that learners' English writing Competence was encountered problems in many categories. The problems were mostly in grammar such as tenses, articles, singular and plural, verbs, prepositions, and spelling. Moreover, the learners face some difficulties in the punctuation and capitalization. Most of these errors were encountered as a result of the mother tongue influence.





CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Students start having English lessons at primary school, to Junior and Senior High Schools and Universities. The Primary School students study English for six years and the Junior High School students study English for three years. It means that every graduate of Junior High School has studied English for nine years. The main focus of teaching and learning process in Junior High School is to develop the students' ability in communicating, to give knowledge about the language both spoken and written, and to increase students' awareness about how important the English to be learnt.

In learning English, there are four language skills; listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Listening and speaking are oral mode of skills and reading and writing are written mode of skills. Listening and reading are receptive skills while speaking and writing are productive skills.

Writing especially in the English Writing Competence of the Students of Indonesian Senior High School” is chosen as the topic in this thesis since it has not got a maximum portion in learning activity in which the research held. Writing itself is a communicative, productive, and expressive activity by using written material as its medium. The activity is meant to deliver a message from writer to the reader. In writing activity, a student should be able to utilize graphology, grammatical structure, and vocabulary. Jarvis (2000) emphasizes that many students do not enjoy writing because they feel that if they cannot do it correctly at the first time then they will never get it. Besides that, since the subject of the research is still in senior high school, so the researcher considers writing in English will make the students easier in writing the paragraph.

On this occasion, the analysis of students’ writing in English seems as an interesting thing. The analysis is based on the sentences made by the first senior high school students. The result gained from the research will be used to know the lacks which occur in teaching writing such as: a material given to the students, the teachers who teach, the teaching method, the students themselves, and others

supporting things related to the activity. The analysis is focused on the errors of the use of simple sentence made by the students of SMA.

The researcher is interested in writing this topic because it might be useful for both the teachers and the students who are learning English, especially in finding a way on how to make writing easier, more interesting, challenging, and less boring.

1.2 Problem Statement

There is a weakness in the writing skills of the first year secondary stage students. They often get low scores on their writing tasks. Consequently, they develop a negative attitude towards writing. The problem of the study was stated in the following questions:

- a. To what extent is the students' English Writing Competence?
- b. what errors are commonly made by the first year students of SMA1 and SMA3?
- c. What problems are experienced by the first year students of SMA1 and SMA3?

1.3 The Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are:

- a. To find out the students' English Writing Competence.
- b. To find out the problems experienced by the first year students.
- c. To find out the writing competence of the first year students of SMA1 and SMA3.

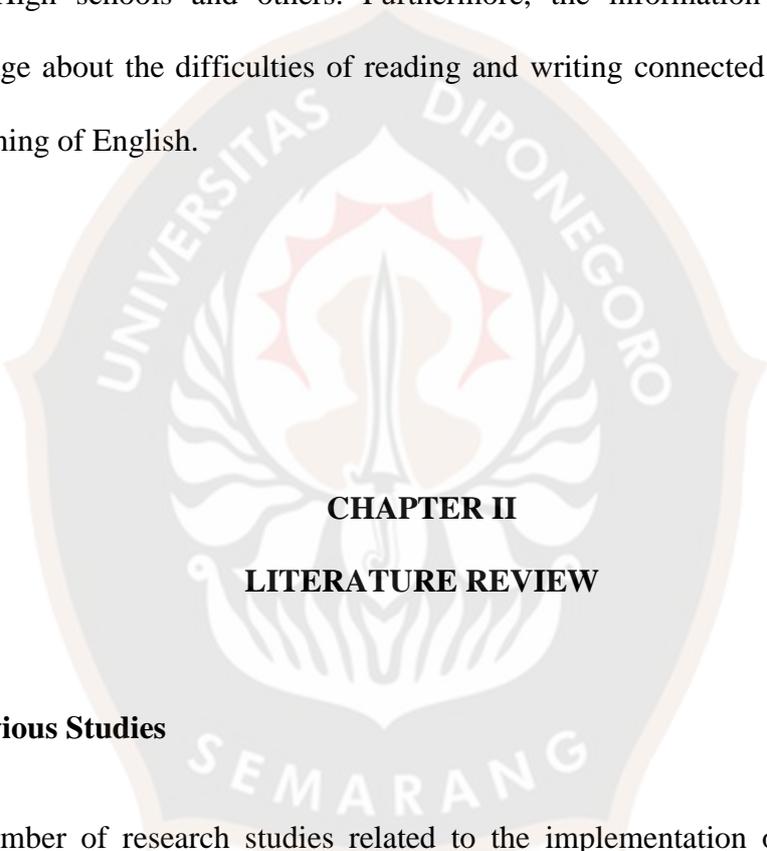
1.4 Scope of the Study

It is necessary to limit the topic of the study in order to avoid the misinterpretation in this research, so the researcher limits the study as follows:

- a. The research is focused on the error analysis of the use of simple sentence made by the first year students.
- b. The research also describes the failure of the students in writing a report paragraph using simple sentence.
- c. The research focuses on the P.W. activities in developing the writing skills and students' attitudes towards writing.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The result of the research gives information on students' writing difficulties in English as they shift from Junior School with literacy skills in a local language and step into senior school where they start learning literacy skills in English. This information would help teachers as well as curriculum specialists in devising the best practices and materials for the effective teaching of writing of English at Senior High schools and others. Furthermore, the information will add the knowledge about the difficulties of reading and writing connected with teaching and learning of English.



CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Previous Studies

A number of research studies related to the implementation of the process approach in teaching writing have been conducted in different primary school classrooms in different parts of the world. Some studies show positive results. Goldstein and Carr (1996) examined the 1992 NAEP writing assessment administered to a representative national sample of approximately 7,000 4th grade students, 11,000 8th grade students and 11,500 12th grade students across the USA. Results indicate that process-related activities are strongly related to writing

proficiency. Mahon and Yau (1992), after launching a process-oriented writing program for a primary two class with thirty-five students, found that students' writing ability improved by adopting the process approach to writing. Cheung and Chan (1994) carried out a writing program in a primary school in Hong Kong. He also found that the process writing approach successfully helped the students develop their writing skills.

However, there are some studies which have generated positive results with qualifications about students' writing. Urzua's (1987) study, for example, exhibited positive results. She indicated that the teaching of process writing with L2 writers had brought them some benefits. She observed the progress of two fourth grade and two sixth grade students and found that they acquired significant composing skills. However, this study involved only a small number of subjects and the results could not be generalized. Another writing program which applied a process approach was implemented in a P.2 class in Hong Kong for over a period of two months. (English section & Institute of Language in Education, 1994).

The process approach proved to be workable and effective in improving and developing students' writing skills. However, peer reading and responses were missing from the whole writing process in the study.

An experiment was also conducted by a Hong Kong teacher in a p.4 class (English Section and Institute of Language in Education, 1994: 37-43). As with

the previous studies, the teacher was convinced that teaching writing as a process was possible in primary schools. She found in her experiment that pre-writing activities could help her students with ideas and that a checklist for reviewing and editing could help her students detect most of their mistakes and correct them on their own. However, since the experiment time was short (5 lessons), students could not fully grasp these writing strategies or techniques in order to use them on their own; thus the positive result shown in this experiment became questionable. In short, it seems that the process approach to writing in primary schools is in general positive, but some research findings are subject to qualifications.

Most of the above-mentioned studies were carried out in an individual classroom or with a small number of subjects. It would thus be worthwhile to examine the approach simultaneously across several classrooms both at the lower primary levels and at the upper primary levels. By doing so, a clearer, broader and more complete of using the process approach to teach writing in the primary school and upper levels must be observed.

2.2 WHAT IS WRITING?

This section begins with the question: What is writing? Then the aspects of effective writing by organizing their instruction around focus, organization, support and elaboration, style, and conventions, we can help students become more effective writers and make their own job easier. Next, how do the aspects help teachers and students? After that one approach to writing and types of writing

students do in school will be looked at. Finally, a brief description on how teachers respond to students' writing.

I would like to start by making a distinction between learning-to-write writing and writing -to-learn writing. Learning-to-write writing means learning the mechanics of writing – the system of writing, the alphabet, the physical forms of letters, spellings and punctuation.

On the other hand, writing-to-learn writing is using English more expressively and creatively as a means of communication and to further the learning to write. All these need to be taught explicitly to non-native speakers of English language. In addition, writing-to-learn writing is also used in the learning of other subjects.

English is the medium of instruction in Mathematics, Science and other technology-related subjects. In other words, all the writing done in those subjects will be in English. However, the focus there is to use English to express the content in those subjects and not to teach children how to write in English.

In this research, the researcher is interested in writing-to-learn writing, the use of writing as a means of communication to convey thoughts, express feelings, and for creative purposes.

It is to see learners using writing to produce a range of different kinds of written texts such as writing a journal or a narrative. In addition, it is using writing to perform social functions such as writing a message or postcard.

2.3 RELATIONSHIP OF THE SKILLS

2.3.1 Speaking and Writing

Speaking and Writing are two essential aspects of any language, including English. It is essential that Indonesian students possess knowledge of the English language. Otherwise it would complicate their ability to interact beyond Indonesian borders. Thus, they need to be aware of the importance of knowing this language.

To simplify the process of learning, variation is a key word in this case. If a teacher uses the same writing and speaking exercises over and over again the students are less likely to learn than if the lessons are varied. Concerning students' speaking development, one of the examples of Susan Brindley is when a student promotes student participation by explaining that when a student interacts with others, considers more useful (S. Brindley, 2005: 55).

2.3.2 Differences between Written and Spoken English.

Some people might think that when the students are taught how to speak, then, obviously they will be able to write. But this is not necessarily so, for writing is not simply speech written down on paper (Raimes, 1983: 4). Learning to write is not just a 'natural' extension of learning to speak a language. Most of us learned to

speak our first language at home without any formal instruction, whereas most of us had to be taught formally in school how to write that same language.

Writing in a first or second language is a difficult task a student encounters and it is a skill that few can be said to fully master (Richards, 1994; 100). Many students find writing difficult because 'written discourse reflects very different rules from spoken language'. In other words, both of speaking and writing processes are not similar.

First of all, spoken language is 'listener oriented' whereas written language is primarily 'transactional or message oriented'. In speaking, an audience or respondent is present; hence it elicits some form of action, interaction or reaction between individuals. Speech has a 'situational context.' A speaker can see the audience or listener who is right there, nodding or frowning, interrupting or questioning. He receives feedback in the form of verbal and non-verbal cues. Likewise, the listener or audience usually has the speaker in view and can respond to the speaker's verbal and non-verbal cues. In short, there is a two-way face-to-face communication in speaking.

On the other hand, written language is different from spoken language. A writer writes to convey information or messages accurately and effectively and thus the language has to be more 'explicit' than spoken discourse.

The written language has to be clear as the audience is unknown or not present to provide a straight reply. As a result, students need to be careful with the choice of words and sentence structure in order to produce a text that can be interpreted on its own.

Speaking allows use of the informal forms and constructions which are uttered spontaneously, often in an uncontrolled way without careful editing. In speaking, we are not always concerned with precision in expression. We can and do still "make a statement, repeat it, expand it, and refine it according to the reactions and interjections of our listeners." (Middlebury, 2003) Furthermore, speech has a higher tolerance for repetition of a phrase or sentence than writing. We normally repeat ourselves to emphasize our point when we speak.

In writing, how we develop our sentences and the ways we organize them are our primary means to convey our intended message. As there is no immediate feedback from the reader or audience, we do not refine or elaborate our statements as we write. Thus, written statements must be constructed more carefully, concisely and coherently to ensure that our meaning is clear.

2.3.3 Reading and Writing

One of the definitions of reading states that reading is the process of constructing meaning from written texts. It is a complex skill requiring the

coordination of a number of interrelated sources of information (Anderson et al., 1985).

Learning to read is one of the greatest achievements in childhood because it is the base for learning and academic achievement later in someone's life. For that reason, the debate to help children about reading has not been settled for many years (Paris, 2005).

You start to learn language from the day you are born. You learn to use language to express your feelings and communicate with others. During early speech and language development, you learn skills that are important to the development of literacy.

The person's ability to read and write is important to help function at school, on the job, and in society. At school, children with communication disorders are more likely to struggle with literacy skills. They often perform poorly in school, have problems reading, and have difficulty understanding and expressing language.

Adults may also have literacy problems. Some adults continue to struggle with reading and writing from childhood. Others have trouble reading and writing after a stroke or brain injury.

2.4 Teaching the Aspects of effective writing

“We teach children how to read books but not how to read their own writing, unless we show children how to read their own writing, their work will not improve.” (Graves, 1994:1)

At the beginning, one of us asks our students what aspect of their writing they would most like to improve. Inevitably, some respond “I want to improve my handwriting,” or “I don’t know how to use commas.” Certainly penmanship and punctuation are important, but what have we done to make students think that these are the most important aspects of writing.

Teaching writing is hard and often frustrating. For decades, teachers have assigned writing, graded it, and watched pages covered in red ink stuffed into the backs of notebooks, never to be read again. Many teachers will admit to being uncomfortable teaching writing in the first place: while early grade teacher education programs spend hours upon hours on teaching reading, they spend far less time on teaching writing, and secondary teachers may have no preparation for this work at all. Students, too, can easily grow frustrated as they are asked to write more and are assessed more thoroughly on their writing than ever before, but don’t see a reward for their work. More writing, as we all know, is not necessarily better writing.

Part of the difficulty in teaching and learning writing is that few tasks involve so many complex, interwoven layers as writing. Composing a piece of written

communication demands an understanding of the content, knowledge of the audience and the context, and the ability to use appropriate conventions for that audience and context.

Teaching writing, learning writing, and editing our own writing is easier when we break apart these layers. This is why we now base their writing assessments on five Aspects of Effective Writing. By focusing on what is most important in a piece of written communication, these aspects not only provide teachers with a more objective set of criteria for assessing writing; they also provide students with a framework for reading and improving their own writing.

2.5 Features of Effective Writing

2.5.1. Focus.

Focus is the topic/subject established by the writer in response to the writing task. The writer must clearly establish a focus as he/she fulfills the assignment of the prompt. If the writer retreats from the subject matter presented in the prompt or addresses it too broadly, the focus is weakened. The writer may effectively use an inductive organizational plan which does not actually identify the subject matter at the beginning and may not literally identify the subject matter at all. The presence, therefore, of a focus must be determined in light of the method of development chosen by the writer. If the reader is confused about the subject matter, the writer has not effectively established a focus. If the reader is engaged and not confused, the writer probably has been effective in establishing a focus.

2.5.2 Organization

Organization is the progression, relatedness, and completeness of ideas. The writer establishes for the reader a well-organized composition, which exhibits a constancy of purpose through the development of elements forming an effective beginning, middle, and end. The response demonstrates a clear progression of related ideas and/or events and is unified and complete.

2.5.3 Support and Elaboration

Support and Elaboration is the extension and development of the topic/subject. The writer provides sufficient elaboration to present the ideas and/or events clearly. Two important concepts in determining whether details are supportive concepts of relatedness and sufficiency. To be supportive of the subject matter, details must be related to the focus of the response. Relatedness has to do with the directness of the relationship that the writer establishes between the information and the subject matter. Supporting details should be relevant and clear. The writer must present his/her ideas with enough power and clarity to cause the support to be sufficient. Effective use of concrete, specific details strengthens the power of the response. Insufficiency is often characterized by undeveloped details, redundancy, and the repetitious paraphrasing of the same point. Sufficiency has

less to do with amount than with the weight or power of the information that is provided.

2.5.4 Style

Style is the control of language that is appropriate to the purpose, audience, and context of the writing task. The writer's style is evident through word choice and sentence fluency. Skillful use of precise, purposeful vocabulary enhances the effectiveness of the composition through the use of appropriate words, phrases and descriptions that engage the audience. Sentence fluency involves using a variety of sentence styles to establish effective relationships between and among ideas, causes, and/or statements appropriate to the task.

2.5.5 Conventions

Conventions involve correctness in sentence formation, usage, and mechanics. The writer has control of grammatical conventions that are appropriate to the writing task. Errors, if present, do not impede the reader's understanding of the ideas conveyed.

2.6 How do the aspects help teachers?

Integrating the Features of Effective Writing into the planning, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing phases of the writing process helps teachers to improve their writing instruction by:

- 1- Providing objective criteria for assessing student writing. When faced with a stack of papers to grade, teachers often slip into focusing on surface details or aspects of writing that are easiest to grade. The Features help teachers to focus their comments, conferences, and direct instruction on the most critical features of effective writing.
- 2- Focusing direct writing instruction and conferences on the right feature at the right time. Rather than teaching a strict sequence of composition and grammar lessons throughout the year, teachers can provide students with flexible instruction in the appropriate feature when they need it most during the writing process. Teachers can teach lessons on focus and organization when students are planning their writing. During revision, teachers can provide lessons on support and elaboration or style, or, if necessary, review focus or organization. Lessons on conventions can be reserved for the editing phase of the writing process, as students prepare their work for sharing or publication.
- 3- Giving equal weight (and equal instructional priority) to each feature. Focus and style are often neglected in writing lessons, while conventions and organizations are widely taught — sometimes to excess. By giving equal weight to the five Features, teachers can ensure that students receive the instruction they need to improve all aspects of their writing.

2.7 How do the Aspects help students?

The Features of Effective Writing can help students to become better writers by:

- 1- Allowing students to focus their attention on just one feature at a time. By reducing the cognitive demands of writing, students can focus on the aspect of writing that is most important at each step of the writing process.
- 2- Providing students with more opportunities to succeed by focusing on areas of strength as well as weakness. Evaluating student writing with five distinct scores helps students to see themselves as multidimensional writers, with weaknesses and strengths. Students who are poor spellers can be recognized for the quality of their ideas, while perfect spellers may realize that correct writing is not necessarily interesting writing. Students can learn to recognize their strengths and work to improve their areas of weakness.
- 3- Making expectations visible to students. When students know the criteria by which they will be evaluated, they no longer have to rely on the teacher to make judgments about the quality of their writing. They can instead use the Features to revise their writing continually.
- 4- Teaching students to become critical readers of their own writing. Students who are taught to diagnose and correct their own writing problems are on their

way to becoming self-regulated, independent writers. By providing instructional support, including demonstrations of writing strategies, writing “think-aloud,” guided practice in small-group settings, conferences with teacher and peers, and opportunities to transfer strategies to new contexts and genres of writing; teachers can move students toward independence.

- 5- Teaching students to become critical readers of the writing of others. Students can use the Features to evaluate their peers’ writing in order to give constructive feedback during conferences. Students can also learn to read critically and evaluate the writing of professional authors and to appropriate their techniques.

2.8 PROCESS WRITING APPROACH

Heald-Taylor (1986:50-55) describes the process method in the following way: "Process Writing is an approach which encourages ESL youngsters to communicate their own written messages while simultaneously developing their literacy skills in speaking and reading rather than delaying involvement in the writing process, as advocated in the past, until students have perfected their abilities in handwriting, reading, phonetics, spelling, grammar, and punctuation. In Process Writing the communication of the message is paramount and therefore the developing, but inaccurate, attempts at handwriting, spelling, and grammar are

accepted, know that within the process of regular writing opportunities students will gain control of these sub-skills. These skills are further developed in individual and small group conference interviews."

2.9 Journal writing

Journal writing in its variety of forms is used in various ways by adult learners; adult educators should consider the benefits in terms of enhancing learning and professional development.

Journal writing as an instructional or learning tool in adult education has gained cogency during the past three decades. As early as 1965, psychologist Ira Progoff and his colleagues began seeing the value of personal journals in enhancing growth and learning. (Progoff,1975) believed what he called an "intensive journal process" could "draw each person's life toward wholeness at its own tempo...

Journaling in its various forms is a means for recording personal thoughts, daily experiences, and evolving insights. The process often evokes conversations with self, another person, or even an imagined other person. Add the advantage available in most journaling formats of being able to review or reread earlier

reflections and a progressive clarification of insights is possible. In the adult education classroom, this learning method becomes a tool to aid learners in terms of personal growth, synthesis, and/or reflection on new information that is acquired. I urge my learners to use one of the journaling formats as a means for assisting them obtain the maximum amount of interaction, knowledge, and personal growth from their reading efforts or other learning experiences.

I also urge my students to incorporate such self-reflection through a journaling technique into the development of a personal statement of philosophy or a code of personal ethics (Hiemstra, 1999). “This recognition of personal values, beliefs, and the various changes a person undergoes throughout life, if combined with a personal philosophy statement, can result in foundational tools useful as guides or mirrors for subsequent professional action and ethical decision making” (Hiemstra, 1988, p. 178).

2.10 Performance-Based Assessment

In language courses and programs around the world, test designers are now tackling the new and more student-centered agenda (Alderson, 2001, 2002).

The performance-based approach to education enables pupils to use their knowledge and apply skills in realistic situations. It differs from the traditional approach to education in that as well as striving for mastery of knowledge and skills; it also measures these in the context of practical tasks. Furthermore,

performance-based education focuses on the process pupils go through while engaged in a task as well as the end product, enabling them to solve problems and make decisions throughout the learning process. In addition, performance-based education stimulates the development of other important dimensions of learning, namely the affective, social and metacognitive aspects of learning.

Regarding the affective (emotional) aspect of learning, performance-based education motivates pupils to participate in interesting and meaningful tasks. It helps pupils develop a sense of pride in their work, fostering confidence in the target language. Encouraging pupils to experiment with their increasing control of the language alleviates anxiety over “making a mistake.” This further motivates them to invest in learning the foreign language.

The social aspect of learning is reflected in the peer interaction that performance-based tasks require. Pupils thus develop helpful social skills for life. Such cooperative work leads to peer guidance and other kinds of social interaction such as negotiating, reaching a consensus, respecting others’ opinions, individual contribution to the group effort and shared responsibility for task completion.

As for the metacognitive aspect of learning (pupils’ thinking about their own learning), skills such as reflection and self-assessment also contribute to the learning process. When teachers require pupils to think about what they are learning, how they learn and how well they are progressing, they develop skills which make them more independent and critical pupils.

2.11 DIFFERENT TYPES OF WRITING

There are four types of writing in which a student will expect to use as his classes become more writing-intensive.

1. Narrative: Narrative writing is the type of writing that tells a story. Though it's most commonly used when your child is asked to write a personal essay (along the lines of What I Did to Celebrate the Holidays), this type of writing can also be used for fictional stories, plays or even plot summarizations of a story your child has read or intends to write. Narrative writing typically uses the first person ("I").
2. Descriptive: Descriptive writing is used to create a vivid picture of an idea, place or person. It is much like painting with words. It focuses on one subject and uses specific detail to describe that upon which your child is focused. For example, if your child is asked to write about his favorite ride at an amusement park, his writing will not only tell the name of the ride and what it looks like, but also describe the sensation of being on it and what that experience reminds him of.
3. Expository: Expository writing is to-the-point and factual. This category of writing includes definitions, instructions, directions and other basic

comparisons and clarifications. Expository writing is devoid of descriptive detail and opinion.

4. **Persuasive:** Persuasive writing is a more sophisticated type of writing to which your child will be introduced around fourth grade. It can be thought of as a debate in writing. The idea is to express an opinion or to take a stance about something and then to support that opinion in a way that convinces the reader to see it the same way. Persuasive writing is often in essay form, contains an explanation of the other point of view and uses facts and/or statistics to disprove that view and support your child's opinion.

2.12 RESPONDING TO STUDENT WRITING

2.12.1 Teacher Responding to Students' Writing

More than any other enterprise in the teaching of writing, responding to and commenting on student writing consumes the largest proportion of our time. Most teachers estimate that it takes them at least 20 to 40 minutes to comment on an individual student paper, and those 20 to 40 minutes times 20 students per class, times 8 papers, more or less, during the course of a semester add up to an enormous amount of time. With so much time and energy directed to a single activity, it is important for us to understand the nature of the enterprise. For it seems, paradoxically enough, that although commenting on student writing is the

most widely used method for responding to student writing, it is the least understood. We do not know in any definitive way what constitutes thoughtful commentary or what effect, if any, our comments have on helping our students become more effective writers.

Sommers (1982) states three main purposes for which teachers provide feedback on writing:

- To inform writers as to whether their written products have conveyed their intended meanings;
- To give the student writer a sense of audience (their interests and expectations) and make them ameliorate their writings accordingly.
- To offer students an impetus for revision, for without comments from a critical reader, writers will feel no need to revise thoroughly if they ever think about revision.

2.13 Definition of Feedback

Drawing from theories of classroom psychology, Drown (2009) provides a generic definition of the term feedback. For him, feedback appears when “the output of a system becomes an input to the same system causing the system to respond dynamically to its previous products” (2009:407). That is to say,

feedback does not occur randomly, but it is rather part of a complex system of other subsystems which are interrelated and mutually influenced by each other. This system is made up of the feedback source or producer, the feedback itself and the feedback recipient. Feedback is inevitably influenced by its source, yet it is meant to influence its recipient making him change his prior products. In relation to the learning context, Drown (2009) views feedback both as a response to learners' productions, be oral or written language, and an indicator of how successfully an objective of the teaching learning activity has been accomplished. Feedback, then, has as effects both permitting learners to enhance their comprehension quality and promoting knowledge execution and skill.

Feedback is therefore deemed, as argued by Hyland (2003), an inseparable, integral and central element in language learning generally and in learning to write particularly. It is the input and means that provides writers with a set of information such as the reader's needs and expectations and whether students' writings have met such expectations (Harmer, 2004) and more importantly, it "offers an additional layer of scaffolding to extend writing skills, promote accuracy and clear ideas, and develop an understanding of written genres." (Hyland, 2003:207)

Hyland (2006) consider feedback as a social act since it embraces all the aspects (context, participants, medium, and goal) that, together, give any communicative act its identity. For them, like other communicative acts, feedback

occurs in a context of a particular kind (institutional, pedagogical); it appears between participants of particular identities (teacher/peer/learner) ; it is delivered by a particular medium (peer, conference, written comments) ; and it is designed to accomplish certain educational, pedagogical and social purposes. A consideration of all these aspects would, therefore, contribute to an appropriate interpretation of feedback.

Many researchers advocate the importance of feedback in improving the writing skill (e.g. Leki(1990a); Hyland(2003); Ferris(2003); Harmer(2004); Hyland & Hyland(2006)).Leki (1990a) for instance, highlights the fact that producing a well written text in a second language often constitutes a hassle to students, consuming their time and intellectual efforts alike. She, therefore, claims that feedback on students' writings becomes the least of teacher's reactions these students need and should have in order to improve their skill of intent. Ferris (2003) represents another proponent of the crucial role plaid by feedback in improving writing. She argues that such a way of responding has not only a short term effect but also a long term one. The former occurs as immediate improvement in writers' texts in subsequent drafts (if any are required) ; the latter occurs as a progress in students' writings over time. Sommers (1982) states three main purposes for which teachers provide feedback on writing:

- To inform writers as to whether their written products have conveyed their intended meanings;

- To give the student writer a sense of audience (their interests and expectations) and make them ameliorate their writings accordingly.

- To offer students an impetus for revision, for without comments from a critical reader, writers will feel no need to revise thoroughly if they ever think about revision. However, for feedback to be effective and meet the designed purposes, Li Waishing(2000) introduces four criteria he considers basic assumptions in feedback of any type:

- Feedback must be integrated within the process of writing.

- It must be presented as an input and impetus for revision of writing.

- It must be formative (detailing the writer's strengths and weaknesses as well) , not summative (taking the form of grades, marks, or global comments such as good, bad, etc.)

- It must be appropriate: corresponding to the student-writer's background knowledge, level of learning, abilities, and so forth.

2.14 Forms of Feedback

The use of written feedback is crucial in the learning of English as a second language. If teachers and students can manipulate well the use of written feedback, both parties will benefit. This research looks at the types of feedback given to ESL students and to investigate what are the students' responses towards

the use of written feedback in the writing class. It also provides guidelines for teachers on how to give appropriate feedback.

2.15 Types of Feedback

There is no single way for providing feedback on writing, nor is the teacher the only source of it. Feedback, therefore, falls into different types according to who gives it and how. Conferencing, peer feedback, and teacher written comments constitute the most common feedback types cited in many researchers' works (e.g. Zamel(1985); Ferris(2003); Hyland(2003); Harmer(2004). The different types of feedback listed below would be appropriate at various times depending on the intended goal.

1. Effective

- Goal is to get student to internalize the effective feedback to use the suggested strategies independently on future work.
- Feedback that is intended to be used by the learner to independently move their reasoning to the next level.
- Criteria-based phrases are used to describe the strengths and weaknesses of the learner's work.
- Limits feedback to one or two traits/aspect of quality at a time.
- Students should have an opportunity to “redo” their work based on the effective feedback.

- “I agree with the pattern that you have identified in the table. I am not convinced that the rule you wrote works for all the values in the table. How could you prove this?”

2. Descriptive

- Goal is to improve student achievement by telling the learner how to move forward in the learning process.
- Feedback that is intended to *tell* the learner what needs to be improved.
- Feedback isn't as effective in getting students to move forward in the learning process.
- “You accurately found the number of students in 4th grade who said chocolate ice-cream was their favorite. You now need to divide this number by the total number of students to get the percent who said chocolate ice-cream was their favorite.”

3. Evaluative

- Goal is to measure student achievement with a score or a grade.
- Feedback that is intended to summarize student achievement.
- It does not give guidance on how to improve the learner's reasoning.

- Since it is not intended to move students forward in the learning process, it can be given on summative assessments.
- “Your explanation of your work is the best that you have done. Nice use of sequence words in your explanation.”

4. Motivational

- Goal is to make the learner feel good.
- Feedback that is intended to encourage and support the learner.
- It does not give guidance on how to improve the learner’s reasoning.
- Since it is not intended to move students forward in the learning process, it can be given on summative assessments.
- “I like how you completed the assignment.”

2.16 Conferencing

Conferencing (also referred to as oral or face-to-face feedback) is one way of responding to students’ writings in which a two party conversation between students and teacher takes place in order to discuss and deal with written products. It is defined by Hyland & Hyland (2006,5) as “an approach lauded by L1 researchers as a dialogue in which meaning and interpretation are constantly being

negotiated by participants and as a method that provides both teaching and learning benefits.” Conferencing, as claimed by Hyland (2003), not only opens the door for teacher-student interaction but it goes further to offer teachers insights into their students’ needs and give these students opportunities to negotiate meanings and clarify ambiguities. For a writing conference to be successful writers need not play the role of passive recipients but they should be active participants in such a conversation as well. This can be achieved by giving them a chance to discuss, negotiate and ask questions about their writings’ strengths and weaknesses (Hyland, 2003).

Advocates of oral conference on writing (Zamel(1985); Mahili (1994); Murray(2002))acknowledge its usefulness since both teacher and students can benefit from the opportunities of “immediacy,” “negotiation,” and “clarification” that this way of responding to writing offers (Ferris:2003). Teachers are advised to adopt conferencing in favor of written comments because the former provides students with more focused and useable comments than the latter (Zamel:1985) and, unlike oral response, written comments are often vague, confusing and are only one “way communication” leaving the writer with no chance for discussion(Mahili,1994).

However, by studying their pros and cons, Hyland & Hyland (2006) observe that writing conferences are not successful in every writing class due to some defined reasons which Ferris(2003) also agrees with. First, employing such a

feedback technique may require the student to master both the aural and oral skills to be able to understand the teacher's feedback content and discuss it as well. Second, since some students may have some impediments in interacting with their teachers even in informal settings, a formal discussion on writing would be impossible causing these students to accept blindly their teachers' suggestions. The third reason is basically related to teachers who, in addition to the need of suitable interaction skills, find themselves in need of considerable amounts of time to deal with each student's writing individually. These are precisely the shortcomings which push Ferris (2003) to disagree with the "zealous" proponents, as she describes them, of exclusive conferencing, to call on them to consider real life situations and constraints, and to suggest that conferencing is a possible rather than a required technique of providing feedback.

2.17 Peer Feedback

Different researchers have referred to peer feedback using different terms of the type: peer evaluation, peer editing, peer responses ...etc. All of these names, however, refer to the same kind of activity which emphasizes peer students' role in the process of writing. This type of feedback involves a kind of cooperation between students with each reading his peer's paper and making responses to it as a reader (Li Waishing, 2000). According to Leki(1992:169), peer evaluation provides a means whereby both students' drafts and their awareness of what leads to good writing develop: "It is a part of the process approach to

teaching and is widely used in L1 and L2 contexts as a means to improve writers' drafts and raise their awareness of readers' needs" (qtd in Oskourt 2008:130).

Mahili (1994) believes that the idea of students receiving feedback from their mates is one that would contribute to writers' recognition of different constituent features of good writing including grammatical and lexical accuracy, good content, ideas development, and clarity in writing. For her, this feedback delivering technique is of great use since it offers writers the opportunity to see their writing through the critics' lens. Peer editing further initiates students to self-criticism and enables them to explore other writers' products and become more aware of their own weaknesses. Li Waishing (2000: 55) sees that students" therefore learn more and become more confident as well."

Leki (1990b) conducted a study investigating students' beliefs about the usefulness of peer feedback. Twenty students who had been receiving feedback from their peers over a period of time were asked to answer two questions:

- 1) How useful was it to you to read other students' papers?
- 2) How useful was it to you to read/hear other students' comments on your papers?

Leki reported that in response to the first question, only seventeen students answered, with one negative and sixteen positive responses. The second question revealed more mixed answers with fifteen positive and five negative answers and two students were reported to give both positive and negative answers. Based on these findings and her own observation, Leki identified some problems with peer evaluation including unproductive responding behavior and comments that are directive, dull or even unkind in nature. In another study at two U.S. colleges (by Zhang: 1995), eighty-one ESL students' attitudes toward feedback from their peers were investigated. The researcher concluded that students preferred teacher feedback over peer feedback, but chose peer feedback over self evaluation. Comparing the effectiveness of teacher feedback and peer feedback, Yang et al (2006) found that the former proved to be more effective and resulted in better improvement than the latter. They also found that the usefulness of peer feedback was acknowledged by students. Hyland (2003:199) therefore claims that despite its potential advantages, peer evaluation has been more welcomed by teachers than students who tend to prefer teacher feedback, and whose sense of security about their writing seems to derive solely from their teachers' comments: "Students themselves are rather ambivalent about the quality of their peer suggestions and many both mistrust them and fear ridicule due to their poor proficiency, generally preferring feedback from teachers."

2.18 The benefits of Peer Feedback.

Peer feedback particularly formative feedback, can enhance disciplinary understanding, critical thinking skills, give students more ownership over their work, encourage active engagement with studies, foster student autonomy and increase understanding of learning outcomes particularly less tangible ones (Sadler 2010). In this way formative feedback and peer feedback in particular allows the opportunity for deep learning and sets the tone for lifelong learning (Brew 1999). Falchikov concluded from investigation that, ‘both the volume and helpfulness of the feedback were greater when peers were involved than when only the teacher provided feedback’ (Falchikov 2005 cited in Nicol 2010 p509). At the same time the very experience of learning about and engaging in peer feedback can encourage students to pay greater attention to any feedback they receive from staff as it can heighten their awareness of the value of feedback more broadly (Nicol 2010). Student engagement in peer feedback has also been shown to enhance assessment outcomes (Race 2001, Coleman 2006 and Oduyemi 2006 cited in Mills and Glover 2006). Brew (1999) notes that, ‘when teachers share with their students the process of assessment – giving up control, sharing power and leading students to take on the authority to assess themselves – the professional judgement of both is enhanced’ (Brew 1999, p169). The practice of peer feedback not only provides students with the opportunity to enhance learning outcomes and transferable skills but it also provides staff with the opportunity to assess the progression of students as a cohort in real time (rather than retrospectively at the end of an assignment or module), i.e. the same benefits as staff-provided formative feedback but with additional benefits for

students. Peer feedback allows a shift of focus from product to process which can enable the revelation of otherwise tacit knowledge and therefore afford staff the opportunity to test understanding of threshold concepts, ways of thinking, acting, talking, and students' sense of scholarly identity (Meyer 2009, Bass 2010).

2.19 Responding to Errors

A number of L2 writing research studies have seen quite a wide range of features in students' L2 written texts that teachers respond to, such as students' ideas, rhetoric organization, grammar, word choices, spelling, and punctuation (Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Ferris, 1995, 1997; Ferris, Pezone, Tade & Tinki, 1997; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Reid, 1994; Saito, 1994). What attracts researchers most is the teachers' response to students' errors. The strategies that the teachers take in whether to respond to errors are seen as an issue of pedagogical controversy. Truscott (1996) argued that correcting errors in L2 students' writing is not beneficial, and even counterproductive, to students' writing development.

On the other hand, Ferris (2002, 2003) and Goldstein (2001, 2005) provided evidence to support error correction. They demonstrate the value of "judicious, purposeful" error correction and the principles in implementing such correction.

Although researchers found it difficult to show that teachers' Error correction actually improved L2 students' writing (Fazio, 2001; Kepner, 1991), a great deal of error correction research has focused on error correction techniques (Ferris, Chaney, Komura, Roberts & McKee, 2000; Ferris & Helt, 2000). Two major techniques have been identified: direct and indirect error feedback. Direct error feedback (overt correction) involves the provision of the correct forms or structures (Hendrickson, 1980). Indirect error feedback, by simply underlining the errors, identifies student errors without giving the correct forms or structures. Among these two methods, indirect error feedback is considered to bring more benefits to students' long-term writing development than direct error feedback through "increased student engagement and attention to forms and problems" (Ferris, 2003, p. 52). However, direct feedback may be appropriate for beginner students and when the errors are "untreatable", which are errors that students are not able to self-correct, such as syntax and vocabulary errors (Ferris, 2002, 2003).

2.20 Students' Response to Teacher's Feedback

The problem in using the target language to express their ideas in writing is common among ESL writers. Sometimes students have the ideas for their essays but owing to a lack of proficiency in the language, they cannot produce content that is convincing.

On the other hand, there are students whose language is quite satisfactory but they lack ideas and the result is that their essays do not have a positive effect on the

readers So teachers' feedback that focuses on form and content should be given to the students so that their writing can be improved. They are then able to substantially present the content using linguistically well-formed structures. Nevertheless, the effectiveness of incorporating feedback in the revision process can only be achieved when there is cooperation between the teacher in giving feedback and the ESL writers in revising their essays.

There is a need for both parties to understand the feedback giving and receiving situation so that students can produce good quality writing. Dheram (1995) says that teachers should assume the role of a consultant who facilitates learners' each revision process in order for these learners to create better texts and learners on their part, should not treat the first draft as the final product but they have to revise again and again so that they know how to write better.

Dheram like other researchers and practitioners, agrees that teachers should focus on content in giving their feedback rather than on form. He stresses that even though there is a need to shift the focus from language use to content, teachers and learners must also arrive at a consensus on the function and nature of teacher's commentary so that students are able to incorporate these comments in their revision process. This means that if teachers are aware of learners' needs in revising their work and at the same time learners are able to understand their teachers' comments, incorporating feedback in the revision process will prove successful. Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990) as cited in Dheram (1995) suggest that

teachers and learners should agree on the areas to be commented upon because they note that there is a mismatch between what both parties thought about the aspects of writing emphasized in feedback.

How students incorporate feedback when revising their work can be found in a study done by Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1996). In the second part of their study, 21 participants were drawn from the sample of participants who contributed to study A. These participants were interviewed to see how they used teachers' feedback in their L2 composing. In this study, they found that learners tried to rewrite their writing in response to teachers' marks and comments to eliminate ungrammaticality at the word and sentence level where in actual fact they were aware that their teachers wanted them to add examples or elaborate on certain points in their writing. The findings in this study suggested that ESL writers usually associate revision processes with correcting their errors. Porte (1997: 61) contends that, "Unskilled writers have been seen to revise from a narrow outlook and make changes addressing the surface grammatical structure of compositions, usually at the level of the word, rather than deeper issues of content and organization".

The findings also showed that students found it difficult to interpret feedback and it became a source of frustration on their part in not knowing precisely what their teachers expected them to do with correction symbols and comments.

Researchers (Ferris, 1995; Frantzen and Rissel, 1987; Leki, 1991 [cited in Hedgcock and Lefkowitz, 1996]) stress that in situations where revision is the

major component of the pedagogy, learners may remain uncertain about what to do with experts' response and how to incorporate it into their own revision process. The situation whereby learners are unable to understand and use teachers' feedback in their revisions is bound to exist in a second language writing pedagogy classroom. Researchers (Zamel, 1983; Cohen, 1987; Raimes, 1987 [cited in Paulus, 1999]) attribute this problem in part to writing teachers who focus primarily on form without addressing the actual ideas and meaning conveyed in the text. In addition, other researchers (Leki, 1990; Susser, 1994; Reid, 1994; Winer, 1992 [cited in Paulus, 1999]) say that the problem is further highlighted when writing teachers themselves are often uncertain of the best way to provide feedback to their students. Thus it can be seen that students' expectations of the types of teacher feedback must be in congruent with the types of feedback actually given by writing teachers. If this situation can be made to exist in ESL classrooms, then learners are able to notice, understand and utilize experts' feedback in their writing and revision strategies.

Ferris (1995) also examines how students process feedback when revising their work. In her study, the participants reported that in order to help them in responding to the feedback on their essays, they got the help from instructors, tutors, friends, grammar books, and dictionaries. They got the help from these outside sources in their early drafts. As for the final drafts, most of these students tried to make the correction themselves and if they do not understand the comments, they took the step of not responding to the feedback. Their way of

ignoring some of the feedback might be due to the fact that they do not need to rewrite the final drafts. However, highly motivated students appreciate feedback on final drafts because they could use the comments to improve future essays.

Ferris also found out that most of the students reported that they did not have difficulty in understanding teachers' commentaries and this contradicted the findings of Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1996) which revealed that students found it difficult to interpret their teachers' feedback and they were frustrated because they did not know how to respond to the correction symbols and comments found in their multiple-draft essays. However, few students in Ferris' study reported having problems in teachers' feedback focusing on the illegibility of teachers' handwriting, problems related with grammar corrections and symbols used to indicate grammatical errors as well as the way teachers posing questions about content in their essays. The questions about content were too general and sometimes too specific which resulted in students' confusion in handling the feedback. In her study, we do not know the feedback giving sequence used by the teacher, that is, whether the teacher applied content-focused feedback first then followed by form-focused feedback on later drafts or whether she applied both types of feedback simultaneously on all the drafts. If she had both types of feedback on the drafts, students would find it difficult to respond to the comments because Zamel (1985) as cited in Kepner (1991: 306) suggests that, "Written response which combines error corrections and positive comments regarding

content or organization can only be confusing and contradictory, as students are not likely to know which type of response deserves higher priority”.

Conrad and Goldstein (1999) also did a study on the issue of how learners incorporated feedback in their essay drafts. The subjects were students taking an advanced ESL composition course at a large urban university in the United States and they were involved in multiple-draft essays. The three students involved in this study had equivalent writing proficiency and minor surface-level problems in their writing. The data collected were drafts of student papers, written comments made by the teacher and transcripts of conferences between teacher and student.

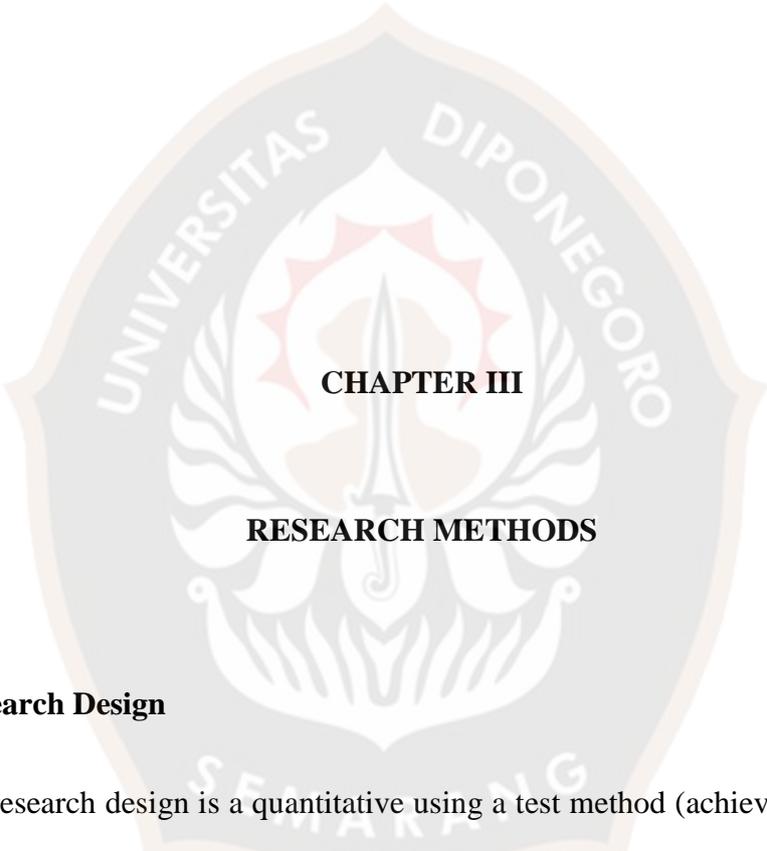
The findings in this study showed that students were able to revise successfully in response to feedback when they were asked to add examples, facts or details but few students were able to utilize teacher commentary successfully, when they had to be more explicit in their arguments or when they had to explain or analyze the issue that was raised in their papers. We can see that students in this study were not able to incorporate all their teacher’s feedback in their revision even though they were quite proficient in their writing. They were assumed to be quite proficient in their writing based on the fact that they made less grammatical errors. Conrad and Goldstein (1999) suggest that the reasons for not being successful in incorporating all the feedback were due to factors such as misinterpretation of teacher’s comments, lack of content knowledge, effect of strongly-held beliefs, influence of classroom instruction, level of self-motivation and pressure of other commitments. They were able to derive the reasons from

teacher-student conferences because through these conferences, students were able to express what they thought of their teacher's commentary and also how they revised their essays.

Thus we can see that even though Dheram (1995) says that teachers and learners need to come to a mutual agreement on the nature and function of feedback in order to secure successful feedback utilization in students' revision process, the above findings revealed that teachers are now facing a challenging task in giving feedback. This is because teachers do not only have to think of their students' preference of the types of feedback but they also have to take into consideration factors that affect students' mentality, feelings, and attitude. Due to these reasons, Conrad and Goldstein (1999: 173) conclude their findings by saying that, "Although we believe teachers should always critically assess their feedback, students' consistent lack of success of making certain kinds of revisions might not be a sign or failure on the part of either the teacher or the student but it may be a signal to adopt a different instructional strategy". The result of this study showed that for learners to incorporate teacher's commentary in their writing is not that easy because many factors will come into play. Their interpretation of teacher's feedback will always clash with their own experience, amount of content knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes. All these factors will create stumbling blocks to their success in employing their revision strategies in producing better quality essays that can impress writing instructors. A study by Lee (2008) on the reactions of students in two Hong Kong secondary classrooms to their teachers' feedback also revealed that students' reactions and attitudes to teacher's feedback are an

intricate matter, intertwined not only with student characteristics like proficiency level, but also with teacher factors, such as teachers' beliefs and practices and their interactions with students, as well as the instructional context in which feedback is given. So that, teacher's feedback remains an important component of the L2 writing classroom. Identifying whether teacher feedback is beneficial, and the type of teacher feedback that is most appropriate and effective, remains a key research question (Ferris, Pezone, Tade & Tinki, 1997; Reid, 1994). Results of research on effects of teacher feedback turned out not to be pessimistic, and many of the research revealed its ineffectiveness. Reasons are various. Truscott (1996) blamed the quality of the comments as vague, "rubber-stamp" or error correction being the primary feedback type relied on error correction, because they resulted in students' negative attitudes toward and inattention to the feedback (Robb et al., 1986; Semke, 1984). The lack of positive, encouraging comments (Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Leki, 1990) has also been given as a reason. On the other hand, Nelson and Carson (1998) found that students actually preferred negative comments that showed them where their problems were.

As for appropriate type of teacher feedback, it was found that when teachers provide more specific, idea-based, meaning-level feedback in the multiple-draft context, it can be more effective in promoting student revision (Hyland, 1990). Ferris (1997) and Kepner (1991) both found that longer, text-specific teacher comments did lead to substantial student revisions that positively affected the writing. Makino (1993) found that detailed cues, not correction, can even improve Learners' abilities to self-correct grammatical errors.



CHAPTER III
RESEARCH METHODS

3.1 Research Design

The research design is a quantitative using a test method (achievement test). A survey uses for its usefulness in capturing and describing the characteristics of a larger population using a sample. In analyzing the data simple statistics will be used and the findings will be described to come out with the proper solutions.

3.2 Population and Samples

The subjects of this study are the First Senior High School students in Indonesia; in which, English is taught as a foreign language. The researcher will focus on The English Writing Competence of the students of Indonesian Senior High School whose ages are between 15-16 years. The sample consists of 140 students in total from the two selected Senior High School.

3.3 Instruments

The participants will be given a test in writing and the researcher will use the achievement test type to get the precise results of the causes of writing problems. The test will be given in order to see the points of weaknesses and where mainly the students make mistakes. The test will measure most of the linguistic aspects especially the grammatical ones.

3.4 Procedure

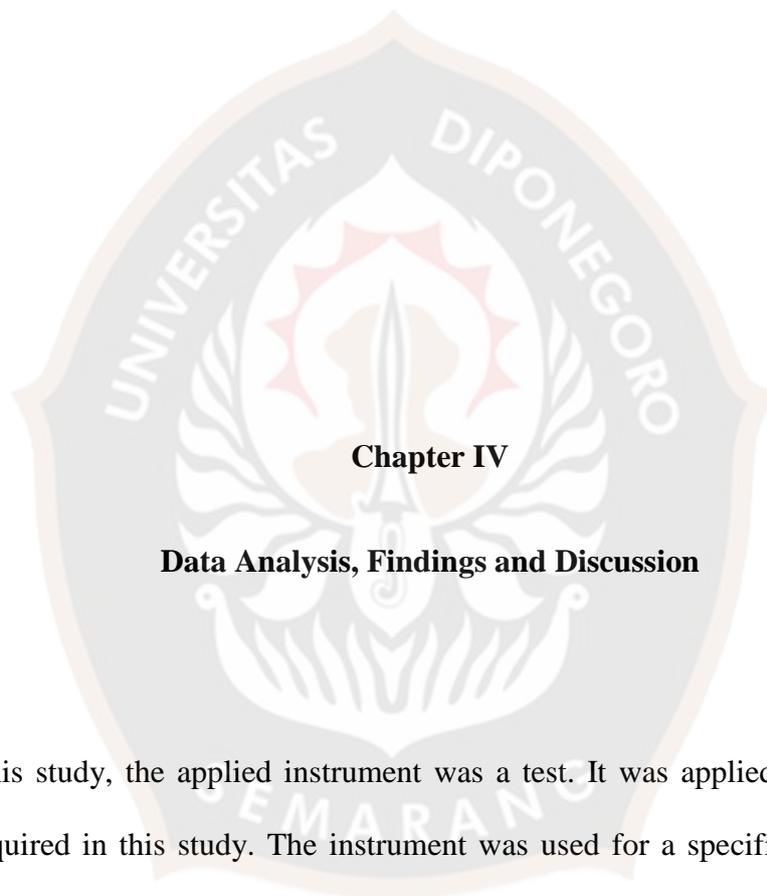
Each participant should write a test individually and it will test the the students competence in writing skill. This of course could help the researcher to notice which participant commits most writing mistakes, and what kind of errors they commit.

3.5 Data collection procedures

This research make use of one method in collecting data;. It was a test. It focused on the types of problems and the causes of them as well as the areas of weaknesses that students suffer of. It also focused on the errors in writing. What errors are made by the students in their writing? When it comes to the data collection, a three-step of general procedure was applied. It involved; entry (greetings, self introduction, explaining purpose, making assurance and seeking permission from both the teacher and student-respondents) to gather data from them and how this was done. The writer collected the data by means of a test.

3.6 Techniques of Analyzing Data

The data were described through its grammatical errors. Simple statistics was used to count the percentage of the errors committed by the participants. Each category of the grammatical errors was classified into sub-categories and each one was described as a problem which has a cause and needs to be solved.



Chapter IV

Data Analysis, Findings and Discussion

In this study, the applied instrument was a test. It was applied to collect the data required in this study. The instrument was used for a specific purpose that may help the study to come out with the results needed. The data collected will be analyzed contrastively i.e. the students competence will be measured and the errors will be counted. The answered papers will be observed to highlight the problems that face the students in writing English and the caused behind them.

4.1 The test Instrument

To answer the research questions, a test composing of two parts. The first part is made of multiple choice questions and test eight categories. 40 multiple choice questions, singular and plural questions, ten questions about punctuations and the capitalization question has been designed and administered by the researcher to test the subject ability to understand and use the below mentioned categories correctly. In addition to this, the second part of the test asks the respondents to write a paragraph about some topics. In this part the respondents are asked to write a paragraph about some topics. In this part, the respondents are asked for free writing and guided writing as well.

4.2 Students' Competence in English Writing

The first part of the proficiency test includes the following items:

- 1- Spelling (10 questions)
- 2- Singular and plural (10 questions)
- 3- Tenses (10 questions)
- 4- Prepositions (20 questions)
- 5- Punctuation (10 questions)
- 6- Capitalization (applying on a paragraph)
- 7- Articles (applying on a paragraph)
- 8- Verbs (applying on a paragraph)

Through the second part of the test, the researcher checked all of those categories in the respondents written paragraph that they were asked to write in addition to some other categories like the choosing of the appropriate words irrelevant information, subject verb agreement, etc.

4.2.1 Result and Discussion

140 students who learn English as a foreign language, who study in two of the First Senior High School, were chosen. as the subjects for this study. They were asked to write about two different topics and answer a writing test. The written data were analyzed by the researcher in terms of identifying and classifying of the grammatical errors which were found in spelling, singular and plural, tenses, prepositions, articles, verbs, capitalization and punctuation. A total of 1654 grammatical errors were found.

As stated above, they were classified into 8 major linguistic categories. Table 1 is given in order to show the number and percentages of these errors as shown below:

Table 1: The number and percentages of errors

category	The number of the errors	The percentage of errors
----------	--------------------------	--------------------------

Tenses	119	7.19%
prepositions	534	32.28%
articles	141	8.52%
punctuation	233	14.08%
verbs	270	16.32%
Spelling	98	5.92%
Capitalization	118	7.13%
Singular and plural	141	8.52%
total	1654	100%

4.2.2 A Detailed Classification of Errors

The errors, which are stated above into grammatical categories were classified in a more detailed way. The error command in the compositions of the students is presented as follows.

a. Tenses

The number of errors in tenses is 119 which comprise 7.19% of the total errors. These errors are divided into subcategories as stated on the table below.

Table 2: Error of tenses.

Types of errors	Number
Simple past instead of simple present	76
Simple present instead of simple past	22
Present progressive instead of simple present	12
Simple future instead of simple present	9
Total	119

This category is considered as a low number of errors among the linguistic categories in this study. This minority of the errors in this category is due to the students who do not use various types of tenses in their writing. Another reason for the minority of the errors in this category is the certain rules about the usage of tenses and the subjects do not make so many errors because they have learnt these rules. Some of these errors are below:

1. I visit Malaysia last year. (simple past instead of simple present)
2. They are go to the meeting (Present progressive instead of simple present)

A possible reason for such errors may be the lack of equivalent of tense in Indonesian language. Such errors may be due to the interference, unlike English requires a sequence of tenses but Indonesian language does not.

b. Prepositions

This category constitutes the most problematic area for the subject. Most of the students misused some prepositions. This category is the one that includes a number of errors which are 534 in total. This table shows the samples for the misuse of preposition.

Table 3: Errors in prepositions

Samples	Correction
*go to school at 07.00 a.m <u>with</u> bus	I go to school at 07:00 a.m <u>by</u> bus.
*that my daily activities <u>at</u> the morning	That is my daily activities <u>in</u> the morning.

Related to the samples above, the error type is the misuse of preposition. The students use “with”, “at”, instead of “by”, “in”. Based on the samples, the errors occur because the students do not practice the correct form of preposition itself. In these samples, the students who still get interference from the first language that can be seen from the first samples “go to school at 07.00 a.m *with* bus” rather than “by bus”. The students use word for word translation in transferring their mind.

c. Articles

Another problematic area for Indonesian learners learning English as a foreign language is the use of articles. The number of errors is 141.

Table 4 shows the samples for the misuse of article:

Samples	Correction
*at eight o'clock. my direct <u>a</u> study	At eight o'clock I directly study.

Related to the samples above, the error type is called addition of article. The students add “a” and “the” in the sentence that have no any function at all.

Based on the samples, the errors occur because the students do not know the structural pattern so they make a random response. All these sentences have ambiguous samples. These errors also happen because the students try to develop his grammar using his own knowledge.

d. Verbs

The number of errors in verbs is 270 which comprise 16.32% of the total errors. These errors are divided into sub-categories as stated in the table below.

This table shows the samples for the misuse of be.

Table 5: Errors in verbs

samples	correction

<u>All activities is very important</u>	All activities are very important.
<u>I was fifteen years this year.</u>	I am fifteen years old this year.

Related to the samples above, the error type is the misuse of the verb “be”. The students use “is” instead of “are”, and “am”. Based on the samples, the errors occur because the students do not practice the pattern of be well. To be “is” always followed by singular noun or pronoun. In the first sample the subject refers to plural so it also requires a plural be and in the second sample, pronoun “I” is always followed by “am” when making an utterance in present form.

e. Spelling Problem

The system of joining the letter to form a word is called spelling. Spelling system differs from one language to another language. The letter also differs from one language to another for example Indonesian letters are different from Japanese letters which are also different with Russian.

The English alphabet has got 26 letters which are considered phonemic, and Indonesian alphabet has got 26 letters as well. 17 of the Indonesian letters are pronounced differently from English, they are (a, b, c, d, e, g, h, i, k, p, q, r, t, u, v, w, y)

In Indonesian language, the words are written as they are pronounced, while in English, every word has got its own spelling which are different from the phonemic transcription of the word. This is the main influence of the mother tongue that affects the spelling of Indonesian student learning English.

As known to all literate Indonesians that the words are being written according to their pronunciation; thus the Indonesian learners try to write words in English according to their pronunciation and they are completely different from the phonemes of English.

English language has got 26 letters. There are five vowel letters namely (a, e, i, o and u) and twenty one are consonant letters which are (b, c, d, f, , g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, and z). These letters are joined together to make the written form of the words. Whereas, English has got forty four phonemic (phoneme is the minimum unit in English sounds) divided into two groups. The first group is vowel sounds which are divided also into two groups (short and long vowel). The second group is the consonant sound which consists of twenty four sounds. These sounds are used in the phonetic to make a special phonetic transcription for each word in English. The differences in writing between the two languages cause a problem for Indonesian students learning English. These differences affect their writing negatively. In this data, the researcher found out that the students have two types of errors namely:

1. The addition and the omission of some letters

2. The word is spelled completely wrong depending on the pronunciation

These are the most repeated errors by the majority of the participants. The students mostly depend on the word pronunciation in spelling the words especially those words which they are not familiar with.

1. The Addition and The Omission of Some Letters

There are some words in English which end with the vowel letter (e). The letter (e) in the final position usually omitted by the students because it does not affect the pronunciation of the word when it comes in the final position. As an impact of the mother tongue, the students got used to write what they pronounce, so they just write what they pronounce.

Here are some of the participants' errors in their writing test:

peopl	_____	people (omission of e)
knowledg	_____	knowledge (omission of e)
enginier	_____	engineer (omission of e)
favorit	_____	favorite (omission of e)

In some other cases, there are words with silent letters, so those students always omit the silent letter. For example:

Com _____ comb

Enviroment _____ environment

Nife _____ knife

2. The Word is Spelt Completely Wrong Depending on the Pronunciation

There are some words which the students do not know the spelling forms, so they just try to guess the spelling form through the pronunciation of the word which is a feature of Indonesian language but it can not be applied in English.

In this case, the spelling of the word is usually wrong. Here are some examples made by the participants:

Competition _____ competition

Bulding _____ building

Diference _____ difference

These are the most errors that have been observed in the participants writing which are mostly done because of the mother tongue influence and that lack of the knowledge about the target language.

f. Punctuation and Capitalization

Indonesian language has capitalization and it is almost the same as English language, the students might face little problems while writing because they may

forget to begin a sentence with capital letter but they do not get confused while writing their names and those of cities, countries and books etc.

Another most common problem with Indonesian students is the use of comma because it can change the meaning of a sentence which is totally different in Indonesian and English language. “In English, items in a series are separated by commas and the co-ordinate conjunction and in Indonesia as well.

g. Singular and Plural Forms

In this area of study, the participant did not make many mistakes. The singular and plural constitute 8.52%. This minority of mistakes was because of students’ understanding of the English rules of the singular and plural nouns but most of participants made mistakes in the irregular nouns like (wife to wives).

The errors of singular and plural are illustrated below:

1. Irregular Nouns :

There are English irregular nouns that have different form when they are in plural forms. This confused the participants. Some of the participants just add “s” or “es” to the word. Below are some of the students’ errors:

Businessman	—————>	businessmans
tooth	—————>	toothes
Wife	—————>	wifes

4.3 Discussion

In this study, which investigates the problems faced by the First Senior High School Students, the researcher found out eight types of errors made by the subjects of this study who are students in the First Senior High School. These problems were grammatical errors)

4.3.1 The Errors

Regarding the grammatical errors, they are classified into eight types as follow:

1. Tenses

This type of problem faced the First Senior High School Students mostly in all the different stages of learning English which is because of the differences between the tenses in Indonesian and English. In English, there are twelve tenses which are not all found in Indonesian which confuse the learner. For example, in Indonesian, there is no perfect tense which is found in English language. The Indonesian learners mostly have problems in dealing with this tense (when to use it, how to use it, etc)

Most of the learners use the simple past tense instead of the simple present tense. This is the mother tongue impact in the learning of English; it might also be caused by the learning attempt to translate their ideas from one language to another. The comparison of the new learnt language to the mother tongue causes such types of problems.

These less given attention to this part and the method adopted of teaching grammar (grammar, translation method) may be the cause of such problems.

2. Articles

In Indonesian, there is no article which is equivalent to the definite article “the” in English, whereas the infinite articles “a” and “an” in English has counterpart in Indonesian. For this reason, Indonesian students are very likely to make grammatical mistakes in this area when they come to write in English. In addition to this, the use of the definite article in Indonesian is not the same as in English. Indonesian does not use the definite article at all, while English use the definite article.

Some of the Indonesian learners use the indefinite articles in English indiscriminately without taking into consideration the fact that there are differences between the rules of the two languages. For example, an apple or a book but in Indonesian they only use the word “sebuah’ which means both “a” and “an” like for example, sebuah apel (which means an apple) or sebuah buku(which is mean a book) However, it seems that some Indonesian learners apply the Indonesian rules when they are writing in English or they think in Indonesian and then translate their ideas from Indonesian into English literally.

3. Prepositions

Prepositions are another grammatical category that presents an enormous challenge not only to Indonesian students learning English as a foreign language

but also to all English learners. Indonesian and English do not belong to similar language family although the two languages use prepositions, it is axiomatic that they have the same prepositions, but sometimes they use them in different way, So that Indonesian students face difficulties in using the proper preposition in the proper position.

4. Verbs

A verb is the main part of any sentence, and a sentence can not stand without a verb. Some students have little problems with the verbs. The students always make errors in this part. They misuse the tense of the verb and the reason behind this problem could be the fact that Indonesian sentences, unlike English ones can occur without change with the verbs. Besides, there is no equal word in Indonesian “to be” when it is used as a main verb in the present tense in the sentence.

5. Spelling Problems

In Indonesian language, the words are written as they are pronounced, while in English, every word has got its own spelling which is different from the phonemic transcription of the word. This is the main influence of the mother tongue that affects the spelling of Indonesian students learning English.

As known to all literate Indonesian that the words are written according to their pronunciation, thus, the Indonesian learner tries to write words in English

according to their pronunciation. This is because of their ignorance that English letters has nothing to do with the pronunciation and they are completely different from the phonemic of English.

English language has got 26 letters. There are five vowel letters which are (a, e, i, o and u) and twenty one are consonant letters which are (b, c, d, f, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, and z). These letters are joined together to make the written form of the words. Whereas, English has got forty four phoneme (phoneme is the minimum unit in English sounds) divided into two group. The first group is vowel sounds which are divided also into two groups (short and two long vowels). The second group is the consonant sounds which consist of twenty four sounds; these sounds are used in the phonetics to make a special phonetic transcription for each word in English. The differences in writing between the two languages cause a problem for Indonesian students learning English. These differences affect their writing negatively.

6. Punctuation and Capitalization

The punctuation and capitalization systems are two areas that Indonesian students have only few problems dealing with them. The learners have no problems in dealing with the capitalization system; this is because the Indonesian language system has got capital and small letters and this could be seen in the learners' writings but they only have one thing different which is the pronoun "I" in Indonesian language (saya) in the middle of the sentence must not be capitalized of Indonesian language because it can only be capitalized in the

beginning of the sentence only. Although it does not stand as an obstacle for the Indonesian learners in writing English. It can be seen in the learners writing that they start a paragraph with a capital letter or write their names with capital letter. The cause might not only be the learners' knowledge of the rules, but also might be that the learners got used to have capital letter for special words in their native language.

On the other hand, there in both languages punctuation system, and nearly the same from Indonesian to English, but in English, the punctuation can change the meaning of a sentence as we can see in this example:

Let's eat, grandpa!

Let's eat grandpa!

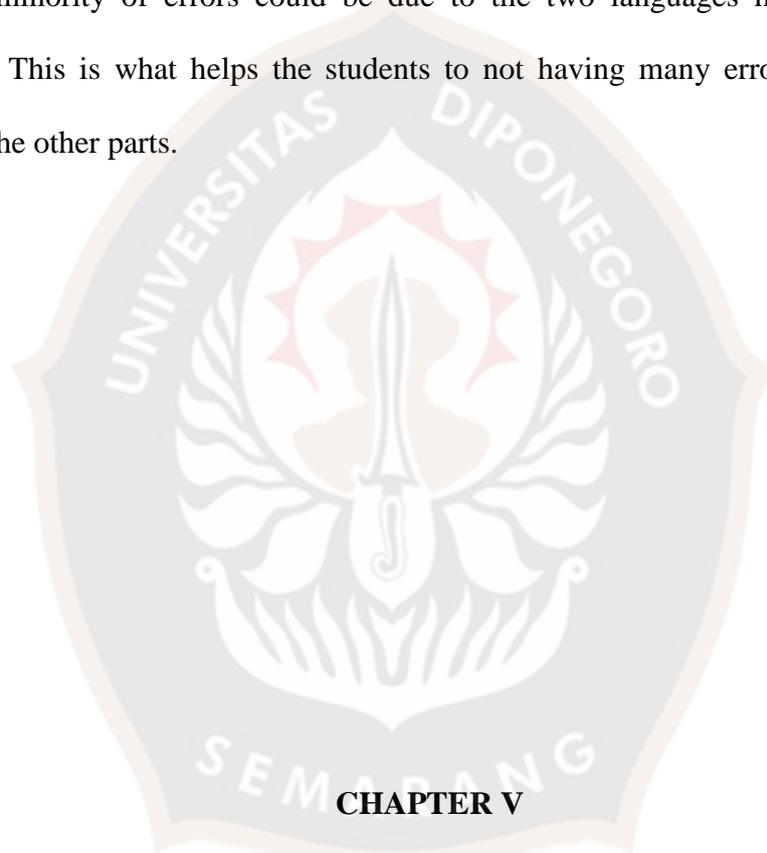
We can see from the example above that the place of the comma can change the meaning of the sentence therefore, the meaning of the first is telling grandpa we should eat, and the second one is suggesting we eat grandpa. Totally different meanings Unlike Indonesian, the punctuation system is not given that attention as it can affect the meaning of the sentences, it is mostly used to guide the reader where he\she must stop or where he must have a pause.

7. Singular and Plural

In this area, the learners do not commit a lot of errors, the only confusion *that* encountered by Indonesian learners is the irregular words. Exceptional words like those which do not have plural form or those which have irregular form in the

plural form confuses the learners. Mostly those words which have plural form in Indonesian but they do not have in English. Just like the word “news” or “deer” which has plural form in Indonesian but there is no plural in English. Therefore, it is common to find Indonesian learners writing a plural form for the word “deer” as “deers”. But this area has the less errors made.

This minority of errors could be due to the two languages have the plural system. This is what helps the students to not having many errors in this part unlike the other parts.



CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.1 Conclusion

This study shows the writing errors that are committed by Indonesian students in the First Senior High School. This study shows that the weakest area in writing

English by Indonesian learners of English as a foreign language was in the grammatical aspects. Learners have difficulties in dealing with the grammar of the target language (English).

Many mistakes have been committed by the participants in prepositions as a result of the slight difference between the two languages. The difference of the number of prepositions and the different usage of them were the only cause behind that.

It is found out that the mother tongue effects negatively the learners' acquisition of the foreign language. The study found out that the mother tongue effects on different aspects of acquiring the grammar of the foreign language. Both languages have tenses but the absence of some tenses in Indonesian does not help flu students to master the tenses of English. For example; the perfect tense is found in English but it does not exist in Indonesian. Therefore, the learners face difficulties in using this tense and usually make errors in using it. But overall, Students have a sufficient skills and knowledge in writing competence.

5.2 Recommendations

Based on the main study, the researcher found out many errors that The First Senior High School Students usually commit. These mistakes need to be given more attention in order to be known. The researcher recommends that Teachers should be more aware of instances where students exhibit interference of learners' mother tongue and to highlight them to the students so that they become aware of

them and avoid making the same mistake in future. The following steps should be followed by the students and teachers.

It is recommended for students that they should try:

1. To Study more and use English language for communicative purpose.
2. Not to translate the ideas from one language to another
3. To think in English and write it even though it is a bit difficult in the beginning.
4. Teachers need to encourage their students ,guide and support their hesitant steps, reassure them it is acceptable to make mistakes on first drafts and remind them the purpose of the initial writing is to communicate idea, to read more, by that they can improve their writings.
5. Students should not compare between the English grammar and the mother tongue grammar which is always confuses the learners.

In successful writing classes students need to be reminded of the purpose for their writing: publishing and communicating. Teachers are expected to help students make connections between writing in the classroom and in the world generally.

5.3 Suggestions for future research

Despite all possible negative points, this research tends to be reliable and of value. The researcher would have some suggestions for further research that will

take the shortcomings into account. First of all, the researcher wishes to apply the study in more than one educational context in Indonesia. This will surely include more participants which will minimize the fraction of error and at the same time, inspects the topic from different angles which is still considered as another mean of triangulation. It is also stressed that the future research will look into the significance of having the English writing competence as well as the actual pedagogical practices regarding the subject. This will include techniques such as think-aloud correction, teachers' focused group interviews, and other more quantitative techniques. It is hoped that the findings of this proposed research would lead to better understanding of the educational contexts in the educational environments in Indonesia.

Reference

- Amanda Morin. (n.d.). Citing Websites. *Four Types of Writing*, Retrieved December 20, 2012, from <http://childparenting.about.com/od/schoollearning/a/4-types-of-writing-styles.htm>
- Alderson, J. Charles. (2001). *Language Testing and Assessment* (part 1). *Language teaching*, 34,213-236.

- Alderson, J. Charles. (2002). *Language testing and assessment* (part 2).
Language teaching, 35,79-113.
- Brindley, Susan. *Teaching English*. London: Routledge in association with The
Open University, 2005.
- Brown, Douglas, H. 2001. *Teaching By Principles. An
Interactive*
- Brew, A. (1999) *Towards Autonomous Assessment: Using Self-assessment and
Peer Assessment*, in S. Brown and A. Glasner (eds). *Assessment
Matters in Higher Education: Choosing and Using Diverse
Approaches*. Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher
Education & Open University Press.
- Cheung, M. and Chan, A. 1994. *Teaching Writing as a Process*. Hong Kong:
Education Department.
- Conrad, S., & Goldstein, L. (1999). ESL student revision after teacher written
comments: Texts, contexts, and individuals. *Journal of Second
Language Writing*, 8,147-177.
- Dheram, P.K. (1995) 'Feedback as Two-Bullock Cart: A Case Study of Teaching
Writing', *ELT Journal*, 49:2, 160-168.
- Drown, Robert L. Bangert. (2009). Feedback in Learning. In Eric M. Anderman
(Ed), *Psychology of Classroom Learning: An Encyclopedia*. USA:
Macmillan reference. (407-409).

- Fazio, L. (2001). *The Effect of Corrections and Commentaries on the Journal Writing Accuracy of Minority and Majority Language Students*. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 10(4), 235-249.
- Falchikov, N. (2005). *Improving Assessment Through Student Involvement*. London: Routledge-Falmer.
- Ferris, D.R. (1995) 'Student Reactions to Teacher Response in Multiple-Draft Composition Classrooms', *TESOL Quarterly*, 29:1, 33-53.
- Ferris, D. R. (1995). *Can Advanced ESL Students Be Taught To Correct Their Most Serious And Frequent Errors?* *CATESOL Journal*, 8, 41-62.
- Ferris, D.R., Pezone, S., Tade, C.R., & Tinki, S. (1997). *Teacher Commentary on Student Writing: Descriptions & implications*. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 6, 155–182.
- Ferris, D. R. (1997). *The Influence of Teacher Commentary on Student Revision*. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31, 315-339.
- Ferris, D. R., Chaney, S. J., Komura, K., Roberts, B. J., & McKee, S. (2000). *Perspectives, Problems, and Practices in Treating Written Error*. In Colloquium presented at International TESOL Convention, Vancouver, B.C., March 14–18, 2000.
- Ferris, D., & Helt, M. (2000). *Was Truscott right? New Evidence on the Effects of Error Correction in L2 Writing Classes*. Paper presented at AAAL Conference, Vancouver, BC.
- Ferris, D. R. (2002). *Treatment of Error in Second Language Writing Classes*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan.

- Ferris, D. R. (2003). *Response to Student Writing: Implications for Second Language Students*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Goldstein, A.A. and Carr, P.G. 1996. *Can Students Benefit from Process Writing?* , *NCES Report*, No. 3 Vol. 1: 96-845.
- Goldstein, T. (2001). *Researching Women's Language Practices in Multilingual Workplaces*. In A. Pavlenko (Ed.), *Multilingualism, Second Language Learning, and Gendered Language, Power* (pp. 77-102). Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Goldstein, L. M. (2005). *Teacher Written Commentary in Second Language Writing Classrooms*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan.
- Graves, Donald (1994). *A Fresh Look at Writing*. New York: Heinemann.
- Harmer, Jeremmy.(2004). *How to Teach Writing*. *Edinburgh Gate*: Pearson Education Limited, Longman.
- Hedgcock, J., & Lefkowitz, N. (1994). *Feedback on Feedback: Assessing learner receptivity to teacher response in L2 composing*. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 3, 141–163.
- Hedgcock, J, and Lefkowitz, N. (1996) '*Some Input on Input*. Two Analyses of Students Response to Expert Feedback in L2 Writing', *The Modern Language Journal*, 80:3, 287-308.
- Hendrickson, J. M. (1980). *The Treatment of Error in Written Work*. *Modern Language Journal*, 64, 216-221.

- Heald-Taylor, G. (1986). "Writing Development of One ESL Student." In Whole Language Strategies for ESL Students, ed. G. Heald-Taylor. Toronto, Canada: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, pp. 50–55. Reprinted by permission of the publisher
- Hiemstra, R. "Ethics and the Adult Educator." Jan. 1999. Web Address: [http://www-distance.syr.edu/ethics.html].
- Hyland, K. (1990). *Providing Productive Feedback*. *ELT Journal*, 44, 279-285.
- Hyland, ken.(2003). *Second Language Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hyland, k. & F. Hyland.(2006). *Feedback in Second Language Writing: Contexts and Issues*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Jarvis, D. (2000). *The Process Writing Method*. *TESL Journal*, vol. 8, no. 7, July.
- Kepner, C. G. (1991). *An Experiment in the Relationships of Types of Written Feedback to the Development of Second-language Writing Skills*. *Modern Language Journal*, 75, 303-313.
- Leki, I.(1990). *A Coaching from the Margins: Issues in Written Response*. In Barbara Kroll (Ed.), *Second Language Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.(pp 57-68).
- Li Waishing, joe.(2000). *Aprocess Approach to Feedback on Writing*. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*.19(2),47-64.Retrieved from <http://WWW.isetl.Org/ijtlhe/on26/04/2010>

- Makino, T. (1993). *Learner Self-Correction in ESL Written Composition*. ELT Journal, 47(4), 337-41.
- Meyer, J. H. F. and Ward, S. C. and Latreille, P. (2009) *Threshold Concepts and Metalearning Capacity*, International Review of Economics Education., 8 (1), 132-154.
- Mahili, Iphigenia.(1994). *Responding to Student Writing*. English Teaching Forum Magazine, 32, 24-27.
- Mills, J., and Glover C. (2006) *Who provides the Feedback - Self and Peer Assessment?*
- Nicol, D. (2010). *From Monologue to Dialogue: improving written feedback processes in mass higher education*, Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education. 35(5), 501-517.
- Nelson, G., & Carson, J. (1998). *ESL Students' Perceptions of Effectiveness in Peer Response Groups*. Journal of Second Language Writing, 7, 113-131.
- Nunan, D. 2003. *Practice English Language Teaching*. (1stEd.). New York: McGrawHill Education
- Paulus, T.M. (1999) *'The Effect of Peer and Teacher Feedback on Student Writing'*, Journal of Second Language Writing, 8:3, 265-289.
- Progoff, I. At a Journal Workshop. New York: Dialogue House Library, 1975.

- Porte, G.K. (1997) '*The Etiology of Poor Second Language Writing: The Influence of Perceived Teacher Preferences on Second Language Revision Strategies*', *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 6:1, 61-78.
- Reid, J. (1994). *Responding to ESL Students' texts: The Myths of Appropriation*. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28, 273-292.
- Robb, T., Ross, S., & Shortreed, I. (1986). *Saliency of Feedback on Error and its Effect on EFL Writing Quality*. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20, 83-95.
- Sadler, D.R. (2010). *Beyond Feedback: developing student capability in complex appraisal*, *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*. 35(5), 535-550. Accessed at:
- Semke, H. D. (1984). *The Effects of the Red Pen*. *Foreign Language Annals*, 17, 195-202.
- Sommers, Nancy. (1982). *Responding to Student Writing*. *College Composition and Communication*, 33, 148-156.
- "Teaching the Features of Effective Writing-The five features of effective writing." LEARNNC. <http://www.learnnc.org/lp/editions/few/686>. (accessed Dec. 10, 2010).
- Truscott, J. (1996). *The Case Against Grammar Correction in L2 Writing Classes*. *Language Learning*, 46, 327-369.
- Urzua, C. 1987. "You Stopped too Soon": Second language children composing and revising. *TESOL Quarterly* Vol.21: 279-304.

Zammel, Victoria.(1985). *Responding to Student Writing*. TESOL Quarterly, 19,79-102.



Appendix

Writing Test

Academic Students in Senior High School

Name:..... Time: two hours

Studying Program:..... Age:.....

1- English spelling.

Underline the right spelling for each word.

- 1- A) dictionary b) dictionary c) dictionary
- 2- A)always b)always c) always
- 3- A)How you are? b)How are you? c)How you were?
- 4- A) strang b)streng c) strong
- 5- A) school elementary b) elemantry school c) elementary school
- 6- A) she speaked with him b) she spokes with him c)she spoke with him.
- 7- An Expinsive car b) an expensive car c) an expansive car
- 8- A)early childhood b) childhood early c) earily childhood
- 9- The head of the school b) the had of the school c) the head school of

- 10- There car is new b)their car is new c) there new is car

2- Singular and plural

Change these nouns to plural form

- 1- Book
- 2- Baby
- 3- Wife
- 3- box
- 4- potato
- 5- match
- 6- key
- 7- boy
- 8- class
- 9- pen
- 10- watch

3- Tenses

Fill the space with correct option

- 1- He from Indonesia.
Are, is, am
- 2- They a car yesterday.
Buy, buyed, bought
- 3- She is..... a story now.

Read, reads, reading

4- The teacher her.

Asking, ask, asked

5- We students.

Am, is are

6- She next week.

Come, comes, will come

7- He them tomorrow.

Meet, meeting, will meet

8- The teacher absent yesterday.

was, were, is

9- They to the meeting.

are go, are going, going

10- he in Semarang

lived, living, lives

4- Preposition

Fill the space with correct option

1- The book is the table.

In, on, at

2- Look him

On, to, at

3- I go to school bus.

With, in, by

4- We do not go to school..... Sunday.

In, at, on

5- We live Semarang.

At, in, on

6- I'm reading some short stories written John.

By, in, on

7- What did you do the weekend?

In, by, at

8- My last class ends 4 o'clock.

On, in, at

9- It rains Winter

At, in, on

10- People go to work Monday

in, at, on

11- She lives her father and mother.

By, in, with

12- He is interested Mathematics.

At, in, on

13- I 'll be school later

In, at, on

14- Why don't we gothe movie.

In, to, on

15- let's meet 10 o'clock.

At, on, in

16- The exam is the tenth of December

On, in , at

17- The police are looking a tall black man.

In, on, at

18- He was..... work.

In, on, at

19- It gets cold night

In, on, at

20- My birthday's..... May

On, in, at

5- Capitalization

In this passage, find out the letters that must be capital and correct them.

yesterday, i went to peter's house - but he wasn't at home! his mother told me that he had gone to cast coast park. So i decided to go there and try to find him. i eventually found him cycling a path at a steady pace with his friends david,

john and tom. the boys all invited me to join them so i hired a bike which wasn't as expensive as i thought and we began our bike ride. we rode for roughly two hours before we decided to eat - we were famished! we ate at joe's hamburger haven. the Hamburgers were delcious, a perfect end to a perfect day

6- Punctuation

Put the proper punctuation mark in the given sentence.

- 1- I am a student
- 2- The rain began to fall so we went home
- 3- How old are you
- 4- He s from Indonesia.
- 5- I travelled to Rome Italy and Athens
- 6- I saw a cat a mouse and a dog
- 7- What is your name
- 8- Its your car
- 9- She s married
- 10- Where are you from



Write about yourself

Note: not more than 150 words.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

