

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter the researcher put some literatures related with this study. It consists of teaching writing in senior high school, teaching narrative texts, the characters of senior high school students, corrective feedback, strategies of written corrective feedback, teacher corrective feedback, and previous study.

2.1 Teaching Writing in Senior High School

Senior high school students are expected to reach informational level because they are prepared to the university. They are expected to produce knowledge using their own language. In this case, the students must be able to create a text using their own words. The texts used are narrative, descriptive, recount, etc.

In senior high school, literacy is the focus of development learning English in this curriculum. One of the goals in learning English at senior high school is to develop communication skill in English both spoken and written language. Therefore, the teachers must be careful in teaching writing to his/her students.

According to 2006 curriculum of senior high school, the standard competitions of writing in English lesson are disclose in writing within the meaning of interpersonal discourse and transactional, formally or informally, in the form recount, narrative, procedure, descriptive, news items, reports,

analytical exposition, hortatory exposition, spoof, explanation, discussion and review, in the context of daily activities.

From the explanation above, teaching writing for senior high school students must be related to curriculum. Furthermore, the teacher must be able to make an interesting teaching especially in teaching writing. Parents would be very helpful to encourage them to learn writing and finally the expected result can be reached.

2.1.1 General Concept of Writing

Meyers (2005: 2) states that writing is a way to produce language you do naturally when you speak. Writing is speaking to other on paper – or on a computer screen. Writing is also an action – a process of discovering and organizing your ideas, putting them on a paper and reshaping and revising them. In other words, Palmer (1994: 5) states that writing is recursive. It goes back and forth we plan a little, put words on paper, stop to plan when we want to say next, go back and change a sentence, or change our minds altogether.

Harmer (2004 : 86) states that writing is a process and that we write is often heavily influenced by constraints of genres, then these elements have to be present in learning activities. Boardman (2002: 11) states that writing is a continuous process of thinking and organizing, rethinking, and reorganizing. Writing is a powerful tool to organize overwhelming events and make them manageable. Writing is really a form of thinking using the written word.

From the definitions above, it can be concluded that writing is a way to produce language that comes from our thought or idea. It is written on a paper or a computer screen.

2.1.2 Steps in Writing

Meyers (2005: 3 – 12) states that there are six steps to make a good writing, among others.

2.1.2.1 Exploring Ideas

Writing first involves discovering ideas. Before writing, let our mind explore freely. Then record those thoughts by writing on whatever you can. As in speaking, you must have something to say, a reason for saying it, and someone to say it too.

a. Your Subject

Before writing ask yourself, “what is the subject or the material want to write about and what do I know about it?” Choose a subject that you care about and know about (or can find out about). Then you will have something interesting to say, and you will say it more clearly and confidently. You must select and then narrow your subject from the general you will practice doing that in the exercise that follows.

b. Your Purpose

After deciding the subject, now ask yourself, “What is the purpose?”. Communicating always has a purpose to persuade or to entertain or may be to do all three. You could inform, persuade or to entertain your classmate with example of odd incidents you have experienced at your job.

c. Your Audience

After deciding your subject and your purpose, ask yourself, “Who is the audience?” To answer to that question will determine what you say about your subject and what the purpose you hope to achieve. You may need to provide a lot

of evidence to persuade a reader who does not agree with your opinion, but provide far less for someone who tends to agree with you.

2.1.2.2 Pre Writing

The second step of the writing process involves writing your thoughts on paper or on the computer. Do not worry about making mistakes because you will probably change your mind and your wording later anyway. This step is called pre writing. It is a time to relax, to write quickly and to begin organizing your thoughts.

a. Brainstorming

One way to capture your thought is by brainstorming, or listing thoughts as they come to you. You might brainstorm a second or third time to generate more ideas.

b. Clustering

In clustering, you write your subject in the middle of the page and then circle it. You write related ideas around the circle as they occur to you. Then you circle the ideas and connect them to your subject circle. These related ideas are like branches.

c. Free Writing

Another way to get started is free writing. You simply write about the subject without worrying about sentence, structure, spelling, logic and grammar. Writing as you would speak so that you can get your ideas down fast.

2.1.2.3 Organizing

After you have put your ideas into words, you can begin to organize them. This process involves selecting, subtracting, and adding. Think again about your purpose and audience what goal does you want to accomplish – to inform, persuade, or entertain? What point do you want to make? And what should you tell your readers so that you can accomplish those goals? Return to your pre writing and do the following:

- a. Underline or highlight best ideas in your brainstorming list, putting related ideas together. Add to the as more ideas occur to you and remove or ignore the parts that are not related to your choices.
- b. Choose the part of the clustering diagram that has the best ideas. Do a second clustering diagram that explores those ideas in greater detail. Ignore the parts of the original diagram that are not related to your choice.
- c. Circle or highlight the best parts of your free writing.
Do a second even a third free writing on them, Ignore the parts of each free writings that are not related to your choice. And focus more specifically on your subject and add more details.
- d. Outlining

After selecting, subtracting and adding, the writer can make an informal outline. (Meyers, 2005: 5-6)

2.1.2.4 Writing the First Draft

You have done some pre writing, selected your best ideas, expanded on them, and arranged them in some reasonable order. Now you can begin the first draft of your paragraph. Don't worry about being perfect, so write fast as if you were speaking to your readers.

Some steps for drafting can be stated as follows:

- a. Say something about before you write in
- b. Write fast by hand or by computer
- c. Use only one side of the paper
- d. Leave wide margins and double space to make room for changes.
- e. Save your work every five or ten minutes on the computer.

(Meyers, 2005: 6)

2.2.2.5 Revising the Draft

Revising is among the most important steps in writing, especially for people who write in a second language. Revising means improving what you have already written. When you revise, you examine how well your first draft makes its point and achieves its purpose for its audience. That may require rearranging ideas, developing ideas further, cut out ideas that do not support your point, and changing the wording of your sentences.

These are some tips for revising:

- a. Make notes in the margins or write new material on separate sheet of paper.
- b. Circle words you think you misspelled or will want to change later
- c. Tape or staple additions where you want them to go.
- d. On the computer, use cut and paste or insert commands to move things around.
- e. Print out a double space copy for revisions: slow down and revise in pencil.

(Meyers, 2005: 7)

2.1.2.6 Producing the Final Copy

There are two steps in producing the final copy, they are:

a. Editing

After you have revised your paragraph, you can edit your work. Check in carefully. Focus on grammar, words choice, verb forms, punctuation, and spelling. Read the paper more than once. Copy it over or print it our again with all your corrections. This draft should be net and should represent your best effort.

(Meyers, 2005: 8)

b. Proofreading

The final stage in the revision process is proofreading. That means carefully reading your draft more than once to check that your revisions and editorial changes were made correctly.

(Meyers, 2005: 8)

2.2. Teaching Narrative Texts

As an international language, English are also taught in Indonesia as a foreign language. The goal of English language teaching in Indonesia, as stated on December 12, 1967 decree of the Indonesian Ministry Of Education and Culture, is to give students a working knowledge of the English language with the following detailed objectives in order of importance:

- a. to give students on effective reading ability,
- b. to give students the ability to understand spoken English,
- c. to give students a writing ability,
- d. to give students a speaking ability.

One of the objectives of English language teaching are to give students an effective writing ability. Learning to write is a process of discovering and organizing the ideas, putting them on a paper and reshaping and revising them. Writing is the most difficult lesson in the school since the students have to produce the text by using English. They have to write about what they think in their mind and state it on a paper by using the correct procedure.

Narration is the most powerful ways of communications with others. A good written story lets your readers respond to some event, but they can almost feel it. The action detailed, and dialogue put the readers in the scene and make it happened for them. Moreover, because narration often engages reader's emotion so powerfully it can play large role in other type of writing. Students can feel more relax in learning writing lesson and it will be easier for them to produce narrative texts.

2.2.1 General Concept of Narrative Texts

English must be learned as a second language that is the major language spoken in the community or the language of instruction in the schools where English is taught as a foreign language. To make the students feel enjoyable and pleasure in learning writing, teachers must select interesting writing text to teach writing.

Meyers (2005: 52) states that narrative is one of the most powerful ways of communicating with others. A good written story lets your reader response to some event in your life as if it were own. They not only understand the event, but they can almost feel it. The action, details, and dialogue put the readers in these seem and make it happen for them. Moreover, Anderson (1997: 8) states that

narrative is a piece of text tells a story and, in doing so, entertains or informs the reader or listener.

In Curriculum 2006 narrative text is defined as a text which function is to amuse, entertain, and to deal with actual or various experience in different ways. Narrative deals with problematic event lead to a crisis or turning point of some kind in turn finds a resolution.

From the definition above, it can conclude that narrative story is a story tells us about something interesting that has purpose to amuse, entertain or the readers. Anderson (1997: 14) states that a good narrative uses word to paint a picture in our mind of:

- a. what characters look like (their experience),
- b. where the action is taking place (the setting) and
- c. how things are happening (the action).

The characteristics of narrative texts among others:

- a. It tells us about a story of event or events.
- b. The events are usually arranged in chronological order- that is, in the order in which they occurred in time.
- c. The narrator has a purpose in mind in telling the story.

There are some points the narrator wishes to make, or some impression he or she wishes to convey to the reader. Therefore, the details of the narrative are carefully selected for purpose.

Narration is telling a story. A good story must have interesting content to be interesting. It should tell us about an event your audience would find engaging. You might even thing of your narrative as a movie in which readers see people in action and hear them speak. Therefore, it should be detailed and clear, with even arranged in order in which they happened or in some other effective ways you should use for narrative that achieves all of the followings goals:

- a. It is unified, with all the action a developing central idea.
- b. It is interesting, it draws the writer into the action and makes them feel as if they are observing and listening to the events.
- c. It introduces the four *w*-s of a setting, they are who, what, where, and when, within the context of the action.
- d. It is coherent, indicates changes in time, location, and characters.
- e. It begins at the beginning and end of the end. That is, the narrative follows a chronological order- with events happening in a time sequence.
- f. It builds towards a climax. This is the moment of most tension or surprise- a time when the ending is revealed or the importance of events becomes clear.

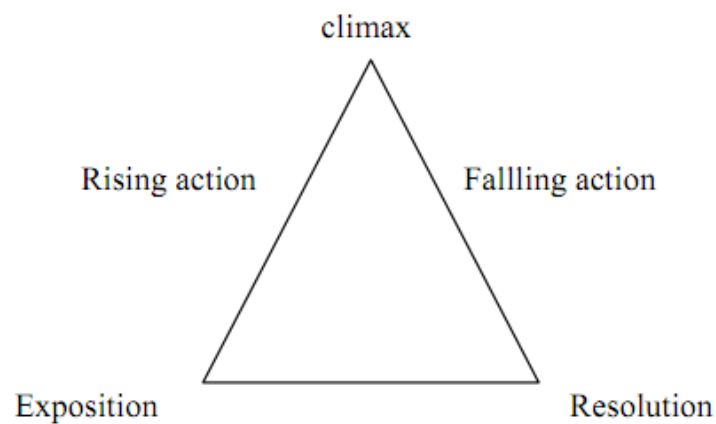
The language features usually found in narrative texts are:

- a. specific characters,
- b. time words that connect to tell when they occur,
- c. verbs to show the action that occur in the story, and
- d. descriptive words to portray the character and setting.

(Anderson, 1997: 15)

2.2.2 Generic Structure of Narrative Texts

Neo (2005: 2) states that a narrative has a structure, a shape or a pattern. It can be represented graphically in this way.



That picture is known as the Freytag triangle. The idea of the Freytag triangle is to serve as a kind of blue print or map which can be used to guide us systematically in writing. The Freytag triangle consists of:

- a. The exposition, it establishes the characters and situation.
- b. Rising action, it refers to a series of complication leads to the climax.
- c. The climax is the critical moment when problem/ conflicts demand something to be done about them.
- d. Falling action is the moment away from the highest peak of excitement.
- e. The resolution consists of the result or outcome.

(Neo, 2005: 2)

On the other hand, Anderson (1997: 8) states that the steps for constructing a narrative are:

- a. Orientation/ exposition
The readers are introduced to the main characters and possibly some minor characters. Some indication is generally given of where the action is located and when it is taking place.
- b. Complication/ rising action
The complication is pushed along by a serious of events, during which we usually expect some sort of complication or problem to arise. It just would not be so interesting if something unexpected did not happen. This complication will involve the main characters and oven serves to (temporally) toward them from reaching their goal.
- c. Sequence of event/ climax
This is where the narrator tells how the character reacts to the complication. It includes their feeling and what they do. The event can be told in chronological order (the order in which they happen) or with flashback. The audience is given the narrator's point of view.
- d. Resolution/ falling action
In this part, the implication may be resolved for better or worse, but it is rarely left completely unresolved (although this is of course possible in certain types of narrative which leaves us wondering "How did it end?")
- e. Reorientation
It is an optional closure of event.

2.3 The Characters of Senior High School Students

In general, senior high school students are the children at the age between fifteen up to nineteen years old in which they will be an adult. The following are some general characteristics as the children of that group according to Tulus

Hidayat (1997: 10):

- a. The senior high school students still need another help in learning.
- b. They prefer to practice something interesting than studying the lesson.
- c. They often do or imitate negative thing from what they know or they watch.
- d. They prefer to state their ideas than to obey the advice from another people.
- e. Most of senior high school students are creative.

2.4 Corrective feedback

Lightbown and Spada (1999 : 171-172) defines corrective feedback as any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect.

This includes various responses that the learners receive. When a language learner says, 'He go to school everyday', corrective feedback can be explicit, for example, 'no, you should say goes, not go' or implicit 'yes he goes to school every day', and may or may not include metalinguistic information, for example, 'Don't forget to make the verb agree with the subject'.

Teachers, students, or researchers who have criticized corrective feedback as being ineffective, or even harmful (for example: Truscott, 1996; 1999), may be missing the point. Corrective feedback is not an island where all errors can be fixed in isolation. It is a part of the much larger language acquisition process, and like anything else in language acquisition, corrective feedback takes time to be effective.

Corrective feedback is not intended to be used as a replacement for regular classroom instruction, but rather as an addition; written corrective feedback is a supplement to already established classroom activities. It deals with error in real situations and embraces the concept that acquisition takes time and mistakes are a natural part of learning. However, the only way adult learners can use the language more accurately is by recognizing that they are making mistakes. Written corrective feedback can help provide this recognition.

The researcher agrees about the understanding stated above. By giving written correction, the students will know well about what their mistakes are, and what their weaknesses in writing are. So, after getting the correction from their teacher, hopefully they can improve their writing ability.

2.5 Strategies of Written Corrective Feedback

There is a wide variety of potential corrective feedback choices when dealing with written error. While the choice may be somewhat varied, it demonstrates the creativity and inquisitiveness of teachers and researchers who strive to find the most effective means to give feedback in an attempt to enact the greatest change. What follows is based on Rod Ellis' (2009) summary of the various types of strategies used in the written corrective feedback that teachers give students. As the following research will outline, WCF can take many forms with varying degrees of success. But the most consistent finding (albeit not without debate) has been that the use of corrective feedback on students' writing outperforms no feedback at reducing error and improving the overall quality of the texts.

The use of terminology and classification with respect to the feedback types discussed in this thesis is based on the following typology of written corrective feedback, as outlined by Ellis (2009). Ellis has categorized the various types of written corrective feedback into six major categories.

Table of Categories of Written Corrective Feedback (adapted from Ellis, 2009)

No.	WCF Types	Description
1.	Direct CF	This occurs when the correct form is given in place of an incorrect form. It is the direct correction of error.
2.	Indirect CF	Indirect CF occurs when an error is indicated but the correct form is not given. Ellis identifies two types of indirect CF.
	1) Indicating only	1) Indicating only is when an error is noted, such as in the margin, but the exact location is not provided.
	2) Indicating the specific location	2) Indicating the specific location is when the error is underlined or given specific reference.
3.	Metalinguistic	Metalinguistic feedback occurs when the writer is given a linguistic clue of the error. This can take two forms.
	1) Error codes	1) The use of abbreviations or error codes
	2) Brief grammatical description	2) A brief grammatical explanation usually given at the bottom of the text or on an attached form.
4.	The focus of the feedback	Feedback can take a variety of forms in the way it is given, such as the level of focus.
	1) Focused	1) Focused feedback occurs when a limited number of language features are concentrated on.
	2) Unfocused	2) Unfocused feedback occurs when many or all language features are addressed in the feedback.
5.	Electronic	Electronic feedback occurs via computer mediated methods when a hyperlink is used to indicate an error has occurred.
6.	Reformulation	Reformulation occurs when a first language user rewrites or reformulates the targeted second language student's text.

2.6 Teacher Corrective Feedback

In this study, the teacher applies such kind of teacher corrective feedback. It consists of positive corrective feedback or direct corrective feedback and negative corrective feedback or indirect corrective feedback.

2.6.1 Direct Corrective Feedback

Direct corrective feedback is the process of providing the correct lexical items, syntax, word choice, or style. Mistakes are crossed out and corrections are made. This can take various approaches depending on the marker, but little variation typically occurs: if the correct form is provided in place of the incorrect form, this is known as direct feedback. The following outlines some important studies which have used direct CF in the investigation of student written error.

Chandler's (2003) study into the effects of four corrective feedback types resulted in mixed findings. The participants were first or second-year music students at an American conservatory and were L2 English speakers. Over the course of one semester, Chandler's participants were required to write 5 five page autobiographical essays on which the feedback treatments were performed. Chandler used four treatment groups in her investigation into the effects of WCF on student writing, which she labeled: (a) Correction (also called direct correction (Ellis, 2009) where the correct response was either inserted or replaced the incorrect response); (b) Underlining with Description (also referred to as metalinguistic feedback where the incorrect item was underlined and the relevant error code was written in the margin); (c) Description of type only (metalinguistic feedback where an error code was written in the margin next to the line the error was in); and (d) Underlining (indirect feedback where the error was underlined

but no other description was given). Two of these methods were reported by Chandler as being equally effective, Correction and Underlining with Description, with the author reporting less effective results for the other two treatment groups. Chandler's findings, that direct feedback had equal benefits with indirect metalinguistic feedback, and that the two were superior to the others, may seem contradictory to constructivist or student-centered approaches to teaching and learning. With direct correction, there is inherently less opportunity for self-discovery. And yet, Chandler's participants showed equal gains with the least student-centered approaches. This may have been in part due to the English proficiency of Chandler's participants. Ferris and Roberts (2001) note that students often do not possess the linguistic and metalinguistic knowledge needed to process and react correctly to various corrective feedback types. Ellis (2009 : 99) further adds that direct CF has the advantage that it provides learners with explicit guidance about how to correct their errors. This is clearly desirable if learners do not know what the correct form is (i.e. are not capable of self-correcting the error). Chandler (2003 : 270) sums up the strengths of both the correction (direct) and underlining (indirect) approaches that direct correction is best for producing accurate revisions, and students prefer it because it is the fastest and easiest way for them as well as the fastest way for teachers over several drafts. However, students feel that they learn more from self correction, and simple underlining of errors takes less teacher time on the first draft. Both are viable methods depending on other goals.

Sheen (2007) also approached CF from a direct and metalinguistic stance in her investigation into the effects of focused CF on 91 American-based college

ESL students' writing. Her study investigated the effects of direct corrective feedback on the acquisition of English articles, with the use of three groups: a direct-only CF group, a direct with metalinguistic clues CF group, and a control group. Both treatment groups used a focused approach by only giving feedback on one language feature, articles. Two CF treatments were conducted over the course of the study. The participants were required to read and listen to a short story, and then asked to reproduce the story on their own.

Following this the researcher used one (or none for the control group) of the CF treatments, depending on the students' assigned groups. After receiving the corrective feedback, students were asked to look over their writing samples to see where their errors occurred, but were not required to make revisions, nor were the errors counted on these writing samples. To calculate the impact of the corrective feedback, Sheen used a quasi-experimental research design with pre-tests, post-tests, and delayed post-tests (three to four weeks after the final CF treatment). Her findings showed that both approaches resulted in significant improvement in the linguistic accuracy of students' writing, but the method using a metalinguistic approach showed greater long term improvements as evidenced by the delayed post-test results.

2.6.2 Indirect Corrective Feedback

Indirect corrective feedback (ICF) occurs when an incorrect form is made note of, but no direct correction is made. Often this takes place by underlining or otherwise highlighting the item in question, but can also occur by making a note in the margin without exact indication of where the error occurred. For teachers believing in the importance of student self-discovery, this method perhaps has the

most appeal. Since correcting and giving feedback on student writing plays an integral role in the ESL or EFL classroom, indirect methods of giving feedback are often the quickest and easiest to do. At the same time, this approach allows the writer to become cognizant that an error exists without being directly given the answer.

One potential problem with indirect CF is if students do not possess the linguistic knowledge necessary to understand why (or where) the error occurred. This can be especially true for the “untreatable” (Ferris, 1999) or the problematic and ambiguous errors that English L2 students often make. If, for example, a student uses an inappropriate or non-academic word that expresses the same meaning as its academic counterpart, an indirect approach to error correction with no explanation will do little good to improve the student’s writing.

Ferris and Roberts (2001) and Lalande (1982) provide support for indirect corrective feedback by emphasizing the importance of self-discovery and the impact this has on long-term sustainable improvement in writing. Both of these studies show indirect approaches as being equal to or superior to direct approaches, as well as suggesting that ICF facilitates more substantial long term gains. Ellis (2009 : 100) states that in accordance with the general line of argument by Ferris and Roberts, it might be claimed that indirect feedback where the exact location of errors is not shown might be more effective than direct feedback where the location of the errors is shown...as students would have to engage in deeper processing. These findings have direct implications for SLA pedagogy, as indirect approaches are much quicker to perform, and might be more attainable or attractive options for many writing teachers.

2.7 Previous Study

There are relevant previous researches to prove the originality of this research. The first is Rukmini (2011). Her research is entitled “The Implementation of Teacher Corrective Feedback in Teaching Writing Descriptive Text to the Second Year Students of SMP N 1 Tunjungan In 2010 /2011 Academic Year”. This study found that teacher corrective feedback technique is appropriate and effective for the second year student of SMP N 1 Tunjungan in teaching writing descriptive genre. By using this technique, the students are capable to know their errors, the reason and correct it. So, it can accelerate the teaching- learning writing process. They are interested, enthusiastic, and motivated to take part in the classroom activities. They are not bored and more entertained in the classroom, because the teacher also provided a picture and real object to be described as the medium of teaching. The teacher has several problems in teaching namely difficulty in explaining the content of the text, students’ difficulties in developing paragraph in descriptive text, students’ difficulties in mastering component of writing, and lacking of media.

Another research is conducted by Anderson (2010) entitled “The Effects of Tiered Corrective Feedback on Second Language Academic Writing”. This study reports on the effects of tiered focused metalinguistic corrective feedback on the reduction of grammatical errors in 39 intermediate adult ESL students’ academic writing at a major Canadian university. Data from the quantitative statistics suggest that the corrective feedback used in this study resulted in a reduction of targeted error and that this reduction was statistically significant. The

results also indicate that as the corrective feedback lessened in focus it appears to have lessened in effectiveness. The results also demonstrate that the feedback treatment outperformed no feedback in statistically significant ways, although the students reported with high frequency their distaste regarding the type of corrective feedback used in this study.

After reviewing some relevant previous researches above, the researcher decided to conduct the study about the implementation of teacher corrective feedback in teaching writing at senior high school. The focus of this study is to know how the teacher implements teacher corrective feedback and what the problems faced by the teacher when he/she implements this technique in the class are and what the students' responses are. This study also focuses on the kind of narrative writing only.