THE EFFECTIVENESS OF DIRECT AND INDIRECT FEEDBACK ON LEARNERS' WRITING PERFORMANCE WITHIN DIFFERENT GENDER AND CULTURAL BACKGROUND

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

This part discusses the background of the study, reasons for choosing topic, research problems, objectives of the study, significance of the study, scope of the study, and organization of the writing

A. Background of the Study

For years, Written Corrective Feedback has been observed from different views and scope. In the perspective of behaviorist approach of the 1950s and 1960s, errors were regarded as non-learning and they ought to be corrected. Historically, giving corrective feedback is seen from various perspectives. In 1996, Truscott claimed that feedback should be avoided, since it is not effective. His response was itended to Ferris (1999) who disagreed to Truscott's claims. Since then, some researchers investigated on written corrective feedback.

Corrective feedback plays an important role in L2 learning process (Goo & Mackey, 2011; Shaofeng Li, 2010; Russell & Spada, 2006; Saito & Lyster, 2012). Specifically, CF allows teachers to give information about the accuracy of learners' production by raising awareness of the grammatical errors of L2 writing. Feedback is a very broad term involving many different ways of providing information to our students.

In the perspective of behaviorist approach of the 1950s and 1960s, errors were seen as evidence of non-learning and should be avoided or corrected at all cost. Historically, Behaviorism traces its beginning back to Pavlov's experiment with the classical conditioning of dogs. Then, John B. Watson seized upon these experiments and introduced the first concept of behaviorism in 1913. Conceptually, in Watson's classical behaviorism, language production was the result of stimuli that produced the formation of a habit. However, the most popular sect in behaviorism is neo-behaviorism as defined by BF Skinner. He argued that a stimulus wasn't always available, so more important was the consequence of responses from production- reward

or punishment. Helped by reward and punishment, the habit was formed through imitation. Regardless of which form is followed, the two key factors remain the same in behaviorism: habit formation and errors. Habits, whether formed by stimuli (Watson) or imitation (Skinner), were essential in developing language. In this case, language errors were seen as evidence of non-learning and were to be avoided or corrected at all cost (Robert Davis, 2013). Dealing with this, (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012) state that errors were perceived much more negatively than today. Behaviorists believed that teachers should correct errors strictly and systematically. L1 and L2 were compared, and errors in L1 were corrected to prevent students from making errors in L2.

Since the early 1970's a communicative approach to language teaching has dominated the field of L2 instruction. The communicative paradigm was initiated as a movement away from traditional, structural methods of L2 pedagogy, which focused on teaching isolated linguistic features and grammar rules. Inspired by theories of communicative competence, such as (Canale, M. and Swain, 1980) communicative approaches aim at developing learners' ability to use the L2 in realistic, meaningful communication. Key ingredients of this approach are providing learners with abundant comprehensible advice e.g. (Krashen, 1981). Based on the nativist idea like (Krashen, 1981), having access to ample comprehensible response was thought to be the necessary and sufficient condition for SLA. Learners were expected to comprehend the available input by inferring its meaning on the basis of linguistic information that is embedded in the communicative context. L2 grammatical competence was believed to emerge automatically, without any need for negative evidence. Moreover, (Stefanou & Révész, 2015) clarified that comprehension and acquisition are not just two sides of the same coin and that "comprehension may occur in the absence of acquiring linguistic knowledge".

Towards the end of the 1980s, (Truscott, 1996) suggested no error correction should occur at all. As a matter of fact, (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012) questions on the reasons for correcting errors, which errors should be corrected, when, how and who should correct them have been asked by researchers since the very beginnings of research into second language acquisition. Then, the perception of giving corrective feedback was influenced by the first general second language acquisition theory that was proposed by (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Krashen, 1981), who did not believe that focusing on errors should play a very important role; nor, consequently, should corrective feedback.

Although there was a call investigation for empirical data on the effectiveness on written corrective feedback by two groups Truscott (1996, 1999, & 2007), and Ferris (1999), some researchers (Bitchener, 2008), (Bitchener & Knoch, 2008, 2010), (Sheen, 2007), (Van Beuningen, 2008, 2012) conducted some studies on the effectiveness of various types of feedback. Written feedback contributes significant roles in EFL learning process (Goo, 2011), (Li, 2010), (Russell, 2006), & (Saito, 2012). Furthermore, written corrective feedback gives opportunity for teachers to give description about the accuracy of learners' composition by improving awareness of the grammatical errors in writing. Another model, proposed by Hattie (2007) and derived from their comprehensive review of feedback studies, involves students and teachers.

During EFL writing learning process, the researcher has seen different teachers giving various types of feedback to EFL learners. Some prefer to oral feedback, some in written and some combine the two; while there are other teachers that simply give their students' scores directly. This simple observation makes the researcher curious about implementing written corrective feedback in L2 writing multicultural class. Despite the fact, that there is still the ongoing debate on the effect of feedback, the researcher takes a strong interest in investigating the effect of written corrective feedback in L2 writing class.

Being able to write an essay has been regarded as an important skill for the English language learning at Essay Writing class. According to the 2015 syllabus for English Study Program at IAIN Palangka Raya "the students are designed to be able to write an essay about 450-500 words". The writing teacher is, however, also responsible to reinforce the students' desire to learn as well as their confidence in their writing ability. Since some researchers have found written corrective feedback to have positive and, a few of them, negative effects on L2 writing, it is important to explore if and how written corrective feedback is being used in the L2 writing multicultural class. To improve students' writing skills, written corrective feedback as a teaching tool has been discussed extensively in teacher training college. Although it may seem like something solely positive, the topic is quite controversial; and when implementing it in an EFL classroom setting there are questions to be asked. For example, does the written corrective feedback give facilitative effect or not for the students? the answer to that particular question does not come easily. Over the years, researchers have investigated the effects of written corrective feedback on L2 writers with different results. This is one of the reasons for the

researcher to investigate in implementing written corrective feedback and exploring the learners' progress in L2 writing using written corrective feedback and exploring the contribution area of written corrective feedback to the students' writing process.

The focus of the study is about direct and indirect written corrective feedback in L2 writing. Ducken (2014) states that written corrective feedback is defined as a kind written feedback made by the EFL teacher in order to improve grammatical accuracy. In my opinion, written corrective feedback is a procedure to give written response to errors made by EFL learners. This study focuses on the effect of direct and indirect feedback with involving different gender and learners' cultural background as potential factors for successful learning.

The object of the study is direct and indirect written corrective feedback, since some researchers revealed that written corrective feedback was an important role in L2 writing process. Although written corrective feedback is still debatable among the experts, for example, Truscott, Ferris, Bitchener. Some researchers argued that written corrective feedback was not useful; meanwhile, the others said that it was useful, and they contributed to learners' language improvement in many ways.

The study investigates the learner's expository essay, since the subjects of the study are in the third semester students of English Department. In this semester, Expository Essay Writing course is taught and therefore, the study is enabled to conduct. In addition, the third semester students have taken paragraph-writing course as prerequisite to join Essay Writing course. In Essay Writing course, they learn written corrective feedback as a part of learning materials.

The study investigates L2 writing in multicultural class. This is the novelty of the study. Some researches on written corrective feedback in L2 writing class have been conducted by experts. However, the research on written corrective feedback involving multicultural participant is still rare or even not conducted yet. In addition, in my EFL writing class, there are three big ethnic groups (Java, Dayak, and Banjar ethnics) making various types of errors in their L2 writing. Each ethnic has in its L1. For example, my Javanese student writes: "I have two question for you" instead of "I have two questions for you". Meanwhile, my Banjarese student writes: "I am not go today" instead of "I do not go today". Then, my Dayaknese student also writes: "I am cannot go today" instead of: "I cannot go today". Those such errors are sometimes influenced by their mother tongue. In their mother tongue, the agreement between number and plural forms are not recognized. Their mother tongue also does not recognize the used to be and modal sentences.

This study is conducted at IAIN Palangka Raya for some reasons. First, the researcher has taught at IAIN Palangka Raya for more than eleven years. By doing such research, the researcher will give scientific contribution to his university in improving the quality of English especially in L2 writing. Second, this study will give empirical data about the teaching of writing using direct and indirect written corrective feedback in L2 writing class. This information will be very beneficial for both teachers and students at IAIN Palangka Raya. Third, IAIN Palangka Raya provides an EFL class from various ethnics in Central Kalimantan. It is necessary for the teachers of IAIN Palangka Raya to consider the learners' cultural background in L2 writing class. Therefore, this study will give contribution to IAIN Palangka Raya in practicing WCF in L2 writing class by considering the learners' cultural background.

Based on the preliminary study conducted on September 16, 2019; it revealed that the students got difficulties in writing essays. For example, they still made some grammatical errors such as agreements between subject and verb, fragments, run on sentences, misspelling, and punctuations; and they got difficulties in organizing ideas, and establishing coherence and unity.

Corrective is considered as a very important aspect in L2 writing class. Written corrective feedback plays an important aspect to increase writing accuracy (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Brown, 2007), The present study focuses on two kinds of feedback: direct and indirect corrective feedback. Direct CF is model of feedback provided by teacher with correct linguistic form (e.g. word, deleted word [s] or morpheme (Ferris, 2002 p. 19). For example: the L2 learner wrote: He is work hard. The teacher revised: He is a hard worker. In his case, the teacher indicates the location of errors and provide the correct answer. (Ellis, 2008) stated that this type of feedback raises the interaction of the learners in the class. It improves the control of the language since it will not lead the learner to a wrong correction. Ferris (2003) and Bitchener and Knoch (2008) proposed direct and indirect feedback. According to (Ferris, 2003), Direct feedback is a feedback given to the learners using the correct form done by the language instructors. It includes the giving of cross out to the uncorrect words, phrases, or morphemes, the giving of insertion of a missing words, phrases, or morphemes, or providing correct forms directly (Ellis, 2008; Ferris, 2006). In direct CF, the language instructors gave the correct forms of the learners' errors. (Elashri, 2013) argued that direct feedback is useful to learners since it provided learners' errors and revises them directly. This type is more suitable for low learners who cannot correct their errors by themselves (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005).

On the contrary, Indirect Corrective Feedback gives correction showing that an error exists but does not give the direct correction (Ellis, 2009). According to (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010, p. 209) Indirect written corrective feedback refers to a procedure of giving feedback that an error has existed but it does not give a correction". Moreover, (Lalande, 1982), it provides learners with the capability of solving the problems to ponder their own errors. In the researcher's point of view, indirect feedback is a model of feedback in which the teacher showing to the student that there is an error, but not giving with the right form. The teacher may either underline the actual errors or place a notation in the margin indicating that an error. In the pilot study, the students write: I have two book" instead of "I have two books...". The way to correct with Indirect feedback is done by giving clue for error after the word book for example: I have two book (plural form). Moreover, indirect corrective feedback is a feedback indicating that there was a linguistic; however, the teacher did not provide the correct form directly (Ferris, 2003). In this type, language instructors only show the errors but they do not give learners with the correct form (Lee, 2008). For instance, language instructors give signs on the errors by using lines, circles, or codes to show the errors (O'Sullivan & Chambers, 2006), or by giving a cross (Talatifard, 2016). Moser and Jasmine's (2010) found that learners who were given Indirect CF achieved better than those treated using direct CF. More specifically, Indirect feedback is divided into coded and un-coded feedback. Coded feedback is a type of indirect CF (Ferris, 2002) and it referred to identifying errors (Lee, 2004). For example: the L2 learner wrote: I come late to the writing class yesterday. The teachers revised by putting (V) above the word 'come' to indicate that the verb is error, and the learner should correct it by himself. The coded feedback is less explicit compared to the pervious type of feedback. The code will function to mark the location of the error and elicit the error to the learners, yet the correct answer of the error will not be provided. The other way to do it is by giving the clue to the learners in order to help them correcting their error. Therefore, the learners will have to correct it by their self. Brown (2012) defined it as the combination of the direct and indirect feedback. However, he also added that the codes/clue should be manageable to not lead the learners to confusion. On the contrary, Uncoded feedback referred to location of errors (Ferris, 2002). In this case, teacher just locates an error by giving cirlce or underline (Lee, 2004). For example: the L2 learner wrote: There are many book in my house. The teachers revised by giving underline on the word 'book' to indicate that the word is error, and the learner should correct it by himself. In this case, the

teacher underlined: There are many <u>book</u> in my house. In this case, the teachers will only mark the location of the error without any elicitation. The marking is usually done by highlighting the error (Sheen, 2007). Then, the learners are expected to be able to analyze the error that they made since no clue will be provided.

The other factor for successful learning in L2 writing class is the learners' cultural background. Hyland (2003) states that cultural factors are reasons for writing differences. Cultural factors formed students' background insights and it influenced their writing performance. In addition, (Made & Fitriati, 2017) stated the cultural aspect constraints appeared more frequently than social aspect constraints. Indonesia is the multicultural country. It automatically makes Indonesia becoming a multilingual country. In Indonesia, each culture has its own language and dialect. According to (Brown, 2007), culture is a way of life. In the present study, there are only three ethnic cultural backgrounds being discussed: Javanese, Banjarese, and Dayaknese. In my opinion, the students' cultural background makes the writing differences, and can influence the way of the appropriate feedback. Teachers and students from different cultures may misunderstand their communication in the writing process, which cause ineffective feedback.

This research emphasizes on measuring the effect of direct and indirect feedback with involving different gender and learners' cultural background as potential factors for successful learning. The novelty of this study is that the learners' gender and cultural background were taken into consideration for deeper analyzing of the effectiveness of corrective feedback in EFL writing class. In this case, the aim is to measure the effect of direct and indirect feedback by considering the gender factors: male and female; and cultural background factors: Dayak, Banjarese, and Javanese.

B. Research Questions

The research questions are formulated as follows:

- 1. Does the learners' writing accuracy differ significantly caused by types of corrective feedback factor (direct and indirect corrective feedback)?
- 2. Does the learners' writing accuracy differ significantly caused by gender factor?
- 3. Does the learners' writing accuracy differ significantly caused by cultural background factor?

- 4. Are there any significant interactions effects between the gender and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score?
- 5. Are there any significant interactions effects between the learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score?
- 6. Are there any significant interactions effects between the gender and cultural background factors in the population mean of writing score?
- 7. Are there any significant interactions effects among gender, learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score?

C. Objectives

The objectives of the study are:

- 1. to analyze the learners' writing accuracy for measuring the effect of direct and indirect corrective feedback factor on the learners' writing accuracy;
- 2. to analyze the learners' writing accuracy for measuring the effect of gender factor on the learners' writing accuracy;
- 3. to analyze the learners' writing accuracy for measuring the effect of learners' cultural background factor on the learners' writing accuracy;
- 4. to analyze the learners' writing accuracy for measuring the interaction effects between the gender and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing accuracy;
- 5. to analyze the learners' writing accuracy for measuring the interaction effects between the learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing accuracy;
- 6. to analyze the learners' writing accuracy for measuring the interaction effects between the gender and learners' cultural background factors in the population mean of writing accuracy; and
- 7. to analyze the learners' writing accuracy for measuring the interaction effects among gender, learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing accuracy.

D. Hypotheses

The alternatif hypothesis of the study is formulated:

- 1. The learners' writing accuracy differs significantly caused by types of corrective feedback factor (direct and indirect corrective feedback)
- 2. The learners' writing accuracy differs significantly caused by gender factor.
- 3. The learners' writing accuracy differ significantly caused by cultural background factor.
- 4. There are significant interactions effects between the gender and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score.
- 5. There are significant interactions effects between the learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score.
- 6. There are significant interactions effects between the gender and cultural background factors in the population mean of writing score.
- 7. There are significant interactions effects among gender, learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score.

The null hypothesis of the study is formulated:

- 1. The learners' writing accuracy does not differ significantly caused by types of corrective feedback factor (direct and indirect corrective feedback)
- 2. The learners' writing accuracy does not differ significantly caused by gender factor.
- 3. The learners' writing accuracy does not differ significantly caused by cultural background factor.
- 4. There are no significant interactions effects between the gender and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score.
- 5. There are no significant interactions effects between the learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score.
- 6. There are significant interactions effects between the gender and cultural background factors in the population mean of writing score.
- 7. There are no significant interactions effects among gender, learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score.

E. Significance of the Study

This research explores on measuring the effect of direct and indirect corrective feedback with involving different gender and learners' cultural background as potential factors for successful

learning. The novelty of this study is that the learners' gender and cultural background are taken into consideration for deeper analyzing of the effectiveness of corrective feedback in EFL writing class. This study has practical, theoretical, and pedagogical significance.

Theoretically, the result of the study can be used as a study of the differences between using direct and indirect corrective feedback and without it. Some of the previous studies show that direct and indirect corrective feedback gives effect to students' writing performance. The result of the study can also affirm the principles of theory of cognitive processing that underlining direct and indirect corrective feedback's theory on teaching English as a foreign language, especially for the writing class. Therefore, it is expected that writing is not only be seen as a product, but also more as a process.

Furthermore, the result of this study may provide new insights in researching writing class, especially in essay writing. It is expected that the result of the study can give significant contribution to the English writing teachers. One of the significant is that direct and indirect corrective feedback is used as part of the writing process to help students map out ideas, plots, character details and settings in L2 writing class.

Practically, the study is expected to provide information on trends in EFL writing class. This information can be used as learning materials to enhance the students' problem in essay writing. It can also be a feedback to the writing lecturers in order to improve the EFL teaching quality. Moreover, the result of the study is expected to provide empirical data about writing using direct and indirect corrective feedback. In addition, the study can also help the students to solve their problems in generating ideas, reducing grammatical errors when they are writing essay. Through this research, both teachers and students get information about the EFL teaching method in preparing the course syllabus or in a broader scope, the EFL curriculum development.

Pedagogically, the result of the study is expected to give pedagogical benefits in learning process in EFL class. For example, it helps the teacher see students' perception on direct and indirect corrective feedback in L2 writing class; It also gives a model of students and teacher' plan to provide direct and indirect corrective feedback in L2 writing class; it gives empirical data about practicing and implementing direct and indirect corrective feedback in L2 writing class. By explaining the effectiveness of direct and indirect corrective feedback in L2 writing class, the teacher can use it as an alternative way to improve the students' writing. Since the result of the study provides the influence of direct and indirect corrective feedback on the students' cultural

background, the teacher will be aware of the difference cultural background of the students when he/she gives treatment on direct and indirect corrective feedback to the learners. The study also investigates the contribution area of direct and indirect corrective feedback to the students' language improvement. It is expected that the teacher can increase the teaching quality and reduce the area of errors on the students' writing. The result of the study can also affirm that giving corrective feedback is essential part in EFL learning process. To conclude, by providing corrective feedback, teachers help students see what they have already accomplished and what can be done better for their composition. Teachers also consider the students' feelings regarding the feedback given, so that it does not have a negative effect on their motivation.

With references to the learners' progress in L2 essay writing class using corrective feedback, it can be explained that theoretically it also can be used as a reference study of the learners' progress in L2 essay writing class. Some of the previous studies show that written corrective feedback gives effect to students' writing ability; and pedagogically by explaining the learners' progress in L2 essay writing class using corrective feedback, the teacher can use written corrective feedback as an alternative way to improve the students' writing.

Related to the students' cultural background in order to explain their preference on written corrective feedback in L2 essay writing is explained that theoretically it also provides the influence of written corrective feedback on the students' cultural background; practically it also provides the influence of written corrective feedback on the students' cultural background; and pedagogically the result of the study provides the influence of written corrective feedback on the students' cultural background, the teacher will be aware of the difference cultural background of the students when he/he gives treatment on written corrective feedback to the learners. To conclude, by providing written corrective feedback, teachers assist students see what they have done and what can be improved better for their writing product. Teachers also pay attention the students' feelings on the feedback given, so that it strengthens their motivation.

F. Variables of the study

In the present study, there are three categorical independent variables being investigated, namely: gender (male- female), learners' cultural background (Dayaknese, Banjarese, and Javanese), and types of feedback (Direct Feedback (DF), Indirect Feedback (IF) and No feedback (NF); and one dependent variable: learners' writing score.

G. Assumption

The study is based on the assumption that there is a significant interaction effect among gender, learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score, for a number of reasons. First, direct and indirect corrective feedback help the students organize the text. Second, direct and indirect corrective feedback help learners reduce grammatical errors on tehir composition. Third, direct and indirect corrective feedback is a practical way to teach thinking and language development within the context of specific content course work.

H. Limitation of the Study

The study belongs to quasi experiment research by applying a three way ANOVA factorial design to analysis the data, since it is aimed at measuring the effect of direct and indirect feedback with involving different gender and learners' cultural background as potential factors for successful learning. This study is restricted on measuring the effect of direct and indirect feedback in L2 writing multicultural class. The study focuses on the expository essay as proposed by Smalley (2008). Meanwhile, written corrective feedback applied in this study are direct and indirect, as proposed by Ellis (2009). In line with the source of feedback, the researcher uses teacher, as proposed by Bitchener & Ferris (2012). The areas of revision applied in the study are content, language forms, and organization, as proposed by Bitchener, Basturkmen, & East (2010). The subjects of the study were the third semester English Education Study Program students of Palangka Raya State Islamic Institute 2019/2020 academic year. There are a number of reasons to limit on expository essay writing. First, since the subject of the study is the third semester students in which they are, according to new English syllabus 2015 at English Department of State Islamic Institute of Palangka Raya, taking Essay Writing in this semester, the study enables to be conducted. Second, the course material of Essay Writing covers expository essays. The study is conducted at the third semester English Department of Palangka Raya State Islamic Institute 2019/2020 academic years. The number of the subjects of the study is about 111 students.

Some definitions of key terms are applied in the current research.

- 1. An effect is a difference between or among population means. Effect size is a standard score that represents the strength of a treatment in an experiment (Vockel, 2003, p. 475). In the present study, Direct/ Indirect corrective feedback is said to have effects on writing if the qualities of the writing using Direct/ Indirect corrective feedback are different from the qualities of the writing without using Direct/ Indirect corrective feedback. The differences between the two compositions are the result of using Direct/ Indirect corrective feedback. On the other hand, Direct/ Indirect corrective feedback is said to have no effects on writing if the qualities of the writing using Direct/ Indirect corrective feedback are the same or almost the same as the qualities of the writing without using Direct/ Indirect corrective feedback.
- 2. ANOVA is an inferential statistical test used for experimental designs with more than one independent variable or more than two levels of dependent variable (Ary, 2010, p. 636). In the present study, a three way ANOVA test is applied to investigate the effect direct and indirect corrective feedback with involving different gender and learners' cultural background as potential factors for successful learning.
- 3. Direct feedback is a feedback given to the learners using the correct form done by the language instructors. It includes the giving of cross out to the incorrect words, phrases, or morphemes, the giving of insertion of a missing words, phrases, or morphemes, or providing correct forms directly (Ellis, 2008; Ferris, 2006). In direct CF, the language instructors gave the correct forms of the learners' errors. (Elashri, 2013) argued that direct feedback is useful to learners since it provided learners' errors and revises them directly. This type is more suitable for low learners who cannot correct their errors by themselves (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005).
- 4. EFL Class is an English class in which English as studied by people who live in places where English is not the first language, such as Saudi Arabia and Indonesia (Gebhard, 2000). Meanwhile, according to Lake (2016), EFL is where the teacher teaches English to students in a country where English isn't the native language. For example, a Chinese student learning English in China would fall under this category. Oxford University (2011) defines EFL classroom is an English class in a country, in which English is not the dominant language. In the present study, EFL class refers to EFL writing class that is

- provided for the third semester students, that is one of the obligatory classes in designing to provide the students to write in English.
- 5. Essay is a group of paragraphs that develops one central idea (Smalley, 2001, p. 105). In the present study, essay refers to expository essay.
- 6. Experimental Research is a research in which at least one independent variable is manipulated, other relevant variables are controlled, and the effect on one or more dependent variables is observed (Ary, 2010, p. 634).
- 7. *Indirect Corrective Feedback* gives correction showing that an error exists but does not give the direct correction (Ellis, 2009). According to (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010, p. 209) Indirect written corrective feedback refers to a procedure of giving feedback that an error has existed but it does not give a correction.
- 8. Teacher Corrective Feedback is defined as a kind written feedback made by the EFL teacher to improve grammatical accuracy (Ducken, 2014). In addition, some lingusts such as Sheen, Wright, & Moldawa (2009), and Wang & Loewen (2015) define corrective feedback as information given to learners regarding a linguistic error they have made. In the present study, written corrective feedback refers to written feedback given by the writing lecturer, peer, and self in EFL writing class on a student essay to increase the accuracy of language form, content, and organization.
- 9. Writing Ability is the skill to make a series of related text-making activities: generating, arranging and developing ideas in sentences: drafting, shaping, rereading the text, editing, and revising (Gould, 2009, p. x). In the present study, writing ability refers to the students' ability in writing expository essays.
- 10. Writing is something associated with word choice, use of appropriate grammar, syntax (word order), mechanics, and organization of ideas into a coherence and cohesive form. Writing also includes a focus on audience and purpose (Gebhard, 2000). Moreover, Gould (1983) states that writing is a series of related text-making activities: generating, arranging and developing ideas in sentences: drafting, shaping, rereading the text, editing, and revising. According to Collins dictionary, writing is a group of letters or symbols written or marked on a surface as a means of communicating ideas by making each symbol stand for an idea, concept, or thing. In my opinion, writing activities of making texts include: generating ideas, arranging and developing ideas in sentences: drafting,

- shaping, revising and editing. In the present study, writing refers to the students' writing on expository essay.
- 11. Cultural Background is defined as the context of someone's life experience as shaped by membership in groups based on ethnicity, race, gender, and geographical area (Thomas, 2015). Meanwhile, Koh (2009) defines cultural background as the totality of socially transmitted behavior patterns, arts, beliefs, institutions, and all other products of human work and thought. In the current study, cultural background refers to the students' cultural background of three different ethnic groups: Javanese, Banjarese, and Dayaknese.
- 12. Multicultural Class is an educational philosophy that focuses on celebrating cultural differences while also recognizing the importance of challenging all forms of discrimination based on race, gender, age, religion, ability or sexual orientation (Firestone, 2010). In addition, according to Covert (2000), creating a multicultural classroom in a transparent way prompts students to think about their own upbringing and values while interacting with other students who are immersed in a similar task. Based on this viewpoint, cultural differences and family background could help effective learning for students of diverse backgrounds, such as Javanese, Banjarese, and Dayaknese.

This report covers introduction, review of related literature, methodology of research, findings and discussion, and conclusion and suggestion.

First, introduction begins with an introduction to the research where the aim is described and important concepts are explained. The working procedure and how the materials will be collected, analyzed and compared are explained. As a background, the importance of feedback in L2 writing multicultural class has been explored and issues in the documents related to written corrective feedback and process writing are presented. These documents are the foundation for the way the study is conducted and therefore, they are vital in this study.

Chapter II presents an overview of the literature consisting of review of previous studies on feedback in L2 writing, review of theoretical background feedback in L2 writing, and framework of the present study. Here, the researcher explores the teaching experience in L2 writing, experts' opinion on feedback in L2 writing class, typology of feedback as proposed by Ellis, and rationale for using feedback in L2 writing class.

Chapter III discusses methodology. It covers research assumptions, design of research, participants of the study, role of the researcher, types of data, research instruments, data collection procedures, and procedures of reporting the results. Here, the researcher presents the research method to respond the research questions, the instruments to gather data, and the way to analyze data.

Chapter IV presents research findings and discussion. The findings are designed to respond the seven research questions of the study. This section covers: the research results, and discussion; (1) The learners' writing accuracy differs significantly caused by types of corrective feedback factor (direct and indirect corrective feedback)' (2) The learners' writing accuracy differ significantly caused by gender factor; (3) The learners' writing accuracy differ significantly caused by cultural background factor; (4) There are significant interactions effects between the gender and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score' (5) There are significant interactions effects between the learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score.; (6) There are significant interactions effects between the gender and cultural background factors in the population mean of writing score; (7) There are significant interactions effects among gender, learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score.

Chapter V discusses conclusions and suggestions based on the findings and discussions. The conclusions relate with the results of the research findings. The conclusion covers: The significant interactions effects among gender, learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score. Meanwhile, the suggestions are itended to the EFL writing learners, the EFL writing teachers, and other future researchers on written corrective feedback in L2 writing class.

CHAPTER II REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

This chapter presents some items namely literature review includes; review of relevant studies, theoretical background, essay writing, and influence of cultural background in L2 writing, and framework of the study.

A. Review of Relevant Studies

There are some experts conducting researches on the effect of written corrective feedback, such as Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Binglan, & Jia, 2010; Suzuki, 2012; Van Beuningen, De Jong, & Kuiken, 2012; Shirazi & Shekarabi, 2014). In addition, (Bitchener, J., Young, S., & Cameron, D, 2005) revealed that combining direct corrective feedback was useful to improve grammar accuracy. Next, (Binglan, Z. and Jia, C, 2010) concluded that combining direct corrective feedback with explicit written explanation helped students improve their writing accuracy. (Suzuki, W, 2012) found that a significant improvement in the second draft as students managed to revise and correct their grammatical errors. (Van Beuningen, C. G., De Jong, N. H., & Kuiken, F, 2012) revealed that direct and indirect corrective feedback was useful. Then, (Shirazi, M. A., & Shekarabi, Z, 2014) found that direct feedback improved the linguistic aspect of written essays. One out of those studies above has been selected. It is (Bitchener, J., Young, S., & Cameron, D, 2005)' study, since it reaches a variety of influential results and it is very relevant to this study.

The similar studies have also been conducted (see Mirzaii, Aliabadi, 2013; (Shintani, Ellis, & Suzuki, 2014; Vyatkina, 2010; Jiang & Xiao, 2014; and Hartshorn., 2015). (Mirzaii, Mostafa., Aliabadi, Reza Bozorg, 2013) revealed that direct was more effective than indirect feedback. (Shintani, N., Ellis, R., & Suzuki, W, 2014) found that direct feedback is more helpful. (Vyatkina, N, 2010) also found that all groups improved their accuracy in redrafting. (Jiang, L., & Xiao, H, 2014) found that both the direct-only correction and the direct metalinguistic correction benefited explicit and implicit knowledge. Some researchers relate the advantages in

using direct corrective feedback; (Hartshorn., K. James, 2015) their study observed dynamic feedback on rhetorical appropriateness. One out of those studies above has been selected. It is (Jiang, L., & Xiao, H, 2014)' study, since it is innovative and it has high relevancy.

Researches on the effect of written corrective feedback have also been conducted (see Stefanou & Révész, 2015; Mawlawi Diab, 2015; and Han, 2012). (Stefanou, C., & Révész, A, 2015) found that respondents with higher grammatical sensitivity proved more likely to achieve gains in the direct feedback, (Mawlawi Diab, N, 2015) revealed that at the delayed post-test, there was no significant difference among the groups in pronoun agreement errors, and (Han, Y, 2012) found that direct feedback can significantly increase learners' use of simple past tense. One out of those studies above has been selected. It is (Mawlawi Diab, N, 2015)' study, since it is innovative and it has high relevancy.

Researches on the effect of written corrective feedback have been conducted (see Sheen, 2007; Daneshvar & Rahimi, 2014; Farrokhi & Sattarpour, 2012; Moazamie & Mansour, 2013). (Sheen, Younghee, 2007) found that written feedback improved learners' accuracy. (Daneshvar, E., & Rahimi, A, 2014) the lasting effect of recast was more helpful than the lasting effect of direct focused on the grammatical accuracy. (Farrokhi, F., & Sattarpour, S., 2012) focused feedback is more effective than unfocused feedback. Moreover, (Moazamie, Parvin., & Mansour, Koosha, 2013) found that there is no significant difference between EA-based and CA- based error correction. (Maleki, Ataollah., & Eslami, Elham, 2013) revealed that the recipients of feedback achieved better than those in the control group. One out of those studies above has been selected. It is (Maleki, Ataollah., & Eslami, Elham, 2013)' study, since it has influential results and it has relevancy to the recent study, especially in research question number three.

Studies on the effectiveness of feedback have also been conducted (see Zabor & Rychlewska, 2015; Wawire, 2013; Van Beuningen, De Jong, & Kuiken, 2008; and Kurzer, 2017). (Zabor, L., & Rychlewska, A, 2015), revealed that feedback improved the learners' accuracy. (Wawire, B. A., 2013) indicated that students appreciate and prefer feedback structured within the sociocultural framework. The results showed that they value feedback as a dialogic process and would like it to be conferred individually by a more knowledgeable peer. They appreciate it if their teachers focus on one type of error at a time and also if assistance is withheld once they achieve autonomy, and (Van Beuningen, C. G., De Jong, N. H., & Kuiken, F, 2008) revealed that

corrective feedback can be effective in improving students' accuracy. Then, (Kurzer, Kendon, 2017) found that direct written corrective feedback was helpful to improve linguistic accuracy. One out of those studies above has been selected. It is (Zabor, L., & Rychlewska, A, 2015)' study, since it is innovative and update and it is relevant to the proposed study.

Studies on influence perception have been conducted (see Kartchava, 2016; Orts Soler, 2015; Vyatkina, 2011; Anglesa & Multiling, 2016; Jodaie, Farrokhi, & Zoghi, 2011; Furthermore, Rejab, Ismail, & Jamaludin, 2015). Learners' beliefs about corrective feedback on perspectives from two international contexts (Kartchava, Eva, 2016). The finding revealed that the respondents in both contexts felt that written corrective feedback should be conducted. Then, Orts Soler (2015) concluded that age and proficiency level are variables, which affect these attitudes and preferences. Then, Vyatkina (2011) found that feedback on holistic aspects is expanding. Teachers' perception does not coincide with what learners expect from their teachers, Anglesa & Multiling (2016) captured teachers must assess learners' expectations regarding written corrective feedback as knowing preferences can be beneficial for both parties. Moreover, providing different systems of error and feedback categorization to help research the properties of language teachers' feedback outcome in student papers (Jodaie, M., Farrokhi, F., & Zoghi, M., 2011). Furthermore, Rejab, Ismail, & Jamaludin (2015) provided that teacher feedback provided verbally, written and nonverbal. Evans, Hartshorn, & Tuioti (2010) knowing teachers' view on corrective feedback is essential to understand the place of written corrective feedback in L2 writing pedagogy and written corrective feedback is implemented in L2 teachers. One out of those studies above has been selected. It is Vyatkina (2011)' study, since this study gave a complete analysis on learners' perceived of written corrective feedback.

Researches on influence perception have also been conducted (see Fithriani, 2017; Susanti, 2013; Atmaca, 2016; Mohammad & Abdul Rahman, 2016; and Chen, Nassaji, & Liu, 2016. Fithriani (2017) the finding showed that learners' perceived on feedback indicated three advantages; improving quality of writing, encouraging critical thinking, and increasing learners; independency. Susanti (2013) explored the L2 learners' perceived on the effect feedback practices in a L2 writing class. Then, Atmaca (2016) found differences in the adoption of feedback. Mohammad & Abdul Rahman (2016) found that most students want lecturers corrected the mistakes on their writing. Error identification is the most useful type of feedback,

and they have a positive perception on feedback using comment. Then, Chen, Nassaji, & Liu (2016) examine learners' perceived and preferences of feedback in an EFL context. They found that the respondents tended to have a neutral opinion. All studies above reveal that understanding learners' perception on written corrective feedback is important for L2 teachers. One out of those studies above has been selected for the following reasons: a) it is recent, b) it is relevant to the current study. It is Chen, Nassaji, & Liu (2016)' study. It investigates students' perceived and preferences of WCF in an EFL context. The main differences between this study and Chen's are: a) that this study explores the learners' perception on teacher, peer, and self-written corrective feedback; and the teacher's perception on feedback they give to students; and b) the subjects in Chen's study from Chinese learners whereas in this study they are Indonesian learners, especially from Javanese, Banjarese, and Dayaknese students. In addition, those studies give a broader knowledge on students' perception on the implementation of various model of written corrective feedback in L2 writing.

Different with studies above, and it is the novelty of this study, the present study emphasizes on measuring the effect of direct and indirect feedback with involving different gender and learners' cultural background as potential factors for successful learning. The respondents of the study consist of Javanese, Banjarese, and Dayaknese students. Those ethnics have different culture, custom, race, values and mother tongue. Dayaknese students, for example, had several unique such: openness, respectful, diligent, and hard worker. Meanwhile, Banjarese students also had several unique characteristics such as carefulness, diligent, responsible, hard worker and wise. Then, several unique characteristics owned Javanese students were polite and friendly, carefulness, indirectness, respectful, and hard worker. All characteristics above were required by every student to learn. Based on those unique characteristics, the present study observed the effect of direct and indirect written corrective feedback for those ethnics in L2 writing class.

Exploring the implementation of feedback in L2 writing cannot be separated from the planning on feedback in L2 writing. Here, the teacher and learners' planning are important, since planning is a next step to start written corrective feedback. Here, the teacher and students' planning on written corrective feedback will be elaborated in the current study. Therefore, it is necessary to review the teacher and learners' planning on feedback in order to have further understanding on the implementation of feedback.

Studies on planning of written corrective feedback in L2 writing have been conducted (see Albakri, 2015; Fong, Wan-Mansor, & Salam, 2014; Lavolette, 2015; Mubaro, 2012; and Wijayanti, Linggar Bharati, & Mujiyanto, 2015). For example, (Al-bakri, S, 2015) students' attitudes towards feedback can have a negative impact on language instructors. Different with his result, students tend to completely depend on teacher feedback when revising their written work (Fong, N. S., Wan-Mansor, W. F. A., & Salam, A. R, 2014), it means that feedback is significant for students' self-esteem and few feedbacks indicate few writing errors. With proper training, (Lavolette, Elizabeth, 2015) argued that criterion can assist students correct their errors. In addition, (Mubaro, Husni, 2012), and (Wijayanti, P., Dwi, Linggar Bharati, A., & Mujiyanto, J, 2015) written feedback improved students' writing skill in correct grammar through the regular practices. One out of those studies above has been selected. It is (Al-bakri, S, 2015)' study, since this study is recent and describes clearly on teachers' plan on feedback in writing class.

Researches on planning of feedback in L2 writing have also been conducted (Horbacauskiene & Kasperaviciene, 2015; Han & Hyland, 2015; Sia & Cheung, 2017). (Horbacauskiene, Jolita & Kasperaviciene, Ramune, 2015) found that frequent writing assignments seems to have little impact on students' writing self-evaluation. The results revealed that indirect corrective feedback with a clue was liked by participants. Concerning with teachers, (Han, Y, & Hyland, F., 2015) stated that the teachers should know on students' backgrounds, and beliefs. The study by (Sia, P. F. D., & Cheung, Y. L, 2017) found that feedback is more effective when it is used concurrently with collaborative assignments. The main differences between this study and (Horbacauskiene, Jolita & Kasperaviciene, Ramune, 2015) and Han & Hyland (2015)'s are: a) that this study seeks to explore the teacher's plan in implementing WCF in L2 writing class; and b) the subjects in this study are Indonesian learners, especially from Javanese, Banjarese, and Dayaknese students. In addition, those studies give a broader knowledge on the teachers and students' plan in the implementation of feedback in L2 writing. One out of those studies above have been selected for the following reasons: a) it is innovative and update; b) it has appropriate design; and c) it gives relevancy to the recent study. It is (Horbacauskiene, Jolita & Kasperaviciene, Ramune, 2015). The study was somewhat similar to the one presented.

This study differs from those study. The present study emphasizes on measuring the effect of direct and indirect feedback with involving different gender and learners' cultural background as

potential factors for successful learning. The respondents of the study consist of Javanese, Banjarese, and Dayaknese students in L2 multicultural writing class at English Study Program of IAIN Palangka Raya 2019/2020 academic year.

Researches on practice of feedback in L2 writing class have been investigated (see Mahmud, 2016; Gitsaki, 2010, Lee, 2014; Guénette & Lyster, 2013; Cánovas Guirao, Roca de Larios, & Coyle, 2015). (Mahmud, Norasyikin, 2016) investigated on the practice of providing feedback types by ESL Teachers. Then, (Gitsaki, Christina, 2010) revealed that metalinguistic and repetition feedback generally led to successful. Moreover, (Lee, Icy, 2014) suggested feedback innovation in EFL contexts. In addition, (Guénette, D., & Lyster, R, 2013) the importance of implementing such opportunities for pre-service teachers to engage with and reflect on their emerging written corrective feedback practices. Written corrective feedback on study from (Cánovas Guirao, J., Roca de Larios, J., & Coyle, Y, 2015) proficiency levels were found to influence noticing and uptake from the feedback. One out of those studies above is selected for some reasons: a) it is innovative and update, b) it has appropriate design c) it is relevant to the current study, especially in research question number two. It is (Lee, Icy, 2014). The study is somewhat similar to the one presented. The study investigated the teachers' practice in implementing feedback in L2 writing class.

Researches on practice of feedback in L2 writing have been conducted (see Kang & Han, 2015 Othman & Mohamad, 2009; Li, 2012; Mufiz, Fitriati, & Sukrisno, 2017; Aridah & Salija, 2017; Li & He 2017). Feedback can improve grammatical accuracy in ESL writing (Kang, E., & Han, Z, 2015). Furthermore, (Othman, Shamshad Begham., & Mohamad, Faizah, 2009) suggested that written feedback should be given oral comments. Contrast with them, (Li, 2012) written feedback did not give improvement to simplified writing of lexical diversity and structural complexity. Again, (Mufiz, Ali., Fitriati, Wuli., & Sukrisno, Alim., 2017) collaborative pairs and expert/novice pairs had better second writings. In addition, (Aridah, A., Atmowardoyo, H., & Salija, K, 2017) both teachers and learners preferred to have direct feedback; however, learners liked better to have direct feedback. Moreover, (Li, Haishan., & He, Qingshun, 2017) found that indirect written corrective feedback is liked better by most Chinese EFL learners. Two out of those studies above were selected for some reasons: a) they are innovative and update, b) they have appropriate method, c) they give relevancy to the present study. They are Li & He

(2017) and Othman & Mohamad (2009) studies. Both studies are somewhat similar to the one presented. Both studies explore students' the practice of written corrective feedback in an EFL context. The principle differences between this study and those studies are: a) the subjects in both studies from Arab and Chinese learners whereas in this study, they are Indonesian learners, especially from Javanese, Banjarese, and Dayaknese students. In addition, those studies are strongly relevant with the proposed study in giving description on the practice of written corrective feedback in L2 writing; and b) this study measures the effect of direct and indirect teacher feedback in L2 multicultural writing class at English Department of IAIN Palangka Raya 2019/2020 academic year. The feedback that will be explored are direct, indirect and indirect feedback using teacher feedback.

Talking the implementation of written corrective feedback in L2 writing cannot be separated from exploring the learners' progress in L2 essay writing class. Consquently, it is important to review the effectiveness of written corrective feedback to have a broader knowledge on the implementation of written feedback.

There are some researches investigating the learners' progress in 12 writing class using feedback. In the study, the researcher divides into several aspects: (a) a typology of feedback as proposed by (Ellis, 2009), and (b) the source of feedback, the researcher will use teacher, peer, and self-feedback, as proposed by (Bitchener, J., & Ferris, D. R, 2012).

Studies on typology of feedback on oral versus written have been conducted (see Tonekaboni, 2016; Karim, 2013; Mubarak, 2013; Sobhani & Tayebipour, 2015; Amirghassemi, Azabdaftari, & Saeidi, 2013). (Tonekaboni, Ali Morshedi, 2016) found that oral feedback is more useful than teacher's comments. Then, (Karim, Khaled, 2013) on the effects of direct and indirect feedback. (Mubarak, Mohamed, 2013) also revealed that WCF assisted L2 learners. Moreover, (Sobhani, M., & Tayebipour, F, 2015) revealed that three types of feedback were significantly effective in L2 writing. The study about the effect of scaffold vs un-scaffold by (Amirghassemi, A., Azabdaftari, B., & Saeidi, M, 2013). One out of those studies above has been selected. It is (Mubarak, Mohamed, 2013)' study, since it gives relevancy to the present study.

Studies on the effect of coded and un-coded feedback have been conducted (see Ahmadi-Azad, 2014; Saukah, Dewanti, & Laksmi, 2017; Gholaminia, Gholaminia, & Marzban, 2014; Simard, Guénette, & Bergeron, 2015; and Azizi & Sorahi, 2014). (Ahmadi-Azad, S., 2014)

revealed that coded feedback give positive effect on students' accurate grammar. Moreover, (Saukah, Ali., Made, Desak., Dewanti, Indah., & Laksmi, Ekaning Dewanti., 2017) suggested that teachers employ Coded-Correction Feedback when giving written corrective feedback. Then, (Gholaminia, I., Gholaminia, A., & Marzban, A, 2014) revealed that the experimental group outperformed better than the traditionally-instructed control group in their post-test. (Simard, D., Guénette, D., & Bergeron, A, 2015) showed that although the participants understood the written corrective feedback they received, some corrections led to erroneous hypotheses. Additionally, there appear to be differences in the participants' verbalizations according to the feedback received. (Azizi, Mahnaz, Behjat, Fatemeh, & Sorahi, Mohammad Amin, 2014) found that metalinguistic feedback helped learners to become aware of their own errors. One out of those studies above has been selected. It is (Azizi, Mahnaz, Behjat, Fatemeh, & Sorahi, Mohammad Amin, 2014)' study, since it has strong relevance to the proposed study.

Studies on the effect of coded and un-coded feedback have been conducted (see Shintani & Ellis, 2013; AbuSeileek & Abualsha'r, 2014; Mansourizadeh & Abdullah 2014; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Chandler, 2003). (Shintani, N., & Ellis, R., 2013) metalinguistic explanation assisted to develop L2 students' explicit knowledge. (AbuSeileek, A., & Abualsha'r, A, 2014) revealed that students in the recast treatment improved better than others. (Mansourizadeh, K., & Abdullah, K. I, 2014) indicated that all groups improved better their writing accuracy. Then, (Ferris, D., & Roberts, B., 2001) revealed that both more explicit and less explicit feedback assisted learners make improvement on writing accuracy. Then, (Chandler, J, 2003) revealed that the experimental group, which corrected the errors after receiving feedback, outperformed better than the control group in accuracy.

Studies on the effect of written corrective feedback have been conducted (see Farjadnasab & Khodashenas, 2017; Amirani, Ghanbari, & Shamsoddini, 2013; Jamalinesari, Rahimi, Gowhary, & Azizifar, 2015; and Kassim & Ng, 2014). (Farjadnasab, Amir Hossein., & Khodashenas, Mohammad Reza, 2017) revealed that direct feedback gives facilitative effect on students' writing accuracy. Then, (Amirani, Sara., Ghanbari, Batoul,. & Shamsoddini, Mohammad Rza, 2013) considered to be useful in methodological issues related to writing ability, grammar instruction and error correction techniques. Then, a study by (Jamalinesari, A., Rahimi, F., Gowhary, H., & Azizifar, A, 2015) revealed that the class with indirect feedback improved better

than direct feedback. (Kassim, Asiah., & Ng, Lee Luan, 2014) also found that there was no significant difference between the unfocused and focused feedback. One out of those studies above has been selected. It is (Kassim, Asiah., & Ng, Lee Luan, 2014)' study, since it is innovative and it is relevant to the recent study. Two out of all studies above were chosen for some reasons: a) they are recent and innovative, b) they have an appropriate method dan design, c) they have a various influential findings and e) they have high relevancy to the recent study, especially in research question number four. They are Ferris and Roberts (2001) and Mubarak (2013). Both studies are somewhat similar to the one presented. Both studies investigate students' the practice of written corrective feedback in an EFL context. The principle differences between this study and those studies are: a) that this study explores the learners' progress of using direct and indirect feedback in L2 multicultural writing; b) the subjects in both studies from California State University, Sacramento and Arab learners whereas in this study they are Indonesian learners, especially from Javanese, Banjarese, and Dayaknese students. In addition, those studies are relevant with the proposed study in giving description on the effect of written corrective feedback in L2 writing; and c) this study explores the effect of using indirect and indirect feedback in L2 multicultural writing class at English Department of IAIN Palangka Raya 2019/2020 academic year.

Studies on the effect of feedback have been conducted (see Saeb, 2014; Kao, 2013; and Blomberg, 2015). The researches in Focused corrective feedback conducted by (Saeb, Fateme, 2014). She revealed that focused group did better than both unfocused and control groups. (Sonja Huiying Sun, 2013) indicated that focused written corrective feedback was useful in improving writing accuracy. Then, (Kao, 2013) found that 95% confident that direct correction has a medium positive effect on learners' written accuracy. (Blomberg, Kelly L, 2015) found that the students appreciated the written corrective feedback they received and the vast majority thought that it had helped them, even if their results did not reflect this. One out of those studies above has been selected. It is (Blomberg, Kelly L, 2015)' study, since it is innovative and it has high relevancy to the proposed study.

Studies on the source of feedback have been conducted (see Ruegg, 2014; Shahrani, 2013; Kahyalar & Yilmaz, 2016; Black & Nanni, 2016; and Rahimi, 2015). (Ruegg, Rachael, 2014) the assessment of the feedback given by peers results in better peer feedback both quantity and

quality. Here, the source' research of feedback from teacher feedback; (Shahrani, Abdul Aziz Al, 2013) mismatches were caused by the lack of awareness about written corrective feedback practices because of the university's requirements. (Kahyalar, E. & Yilmaz, F, 2016), and (Black, D. A., & Nanni, A, 2016) the most explanation for the teachers' preferences was the development of metacognitive skills. Here, the source' research of feedback from self-feedback; (Rahimi, Mohammad, 2015) there is a high correlation between field independence style and the students' successful in the subsequent writings. One out of those studies above has been selected. It is (Rahimi, Mohammad, 2015)' study, since it is innovative and it is relevant to the recent study.

Unfocused feedback is the model of feedback in which all learners' linguistic errors are corrected by language instructors (Ellis et al., 2008; Ellis, 2009). Unfocused feedback involves giving feedback on all errors. Here, feedback was given on all language forms. Meanwhile, focused CF is the model of feedback that teachers provide intensively for a single error. Focused feedback means giving feedback focused on certain linguistic errors. Bruton (2009) argues that focused corrective feedback is a model of language instruction given explicitly. For many years, the influence of focused versus unfocused feedback on learners' writing has been investigated by some experts. For example, Farrokhi and Sattarpour (2011) found that focused feedback group had a better performance than the other groups. Then, Kassim and Luan Ng (2014) on measuring the effect of focused and unfocused feedback, found that both focused and unfocused feedback were better than the control group. However, the unfocused and focused feedback groups had similar performance and did not give significant difference between both groups. Moreover, Saeb (2013) measuring the effects of focused and unfocused feedback for L2 beginners found that focused and unfocused feedback groups gave facilitative effect on learners' writing accuracy for both experimental classes. However, the focused and unfocused groups did not give significant difference. Next, Araghi and Sahebkheir (2014) on measuring the influence of focused and unfocused feedback, revealed that the focused class performed better than unfocused and control class. It also showed that gender did not influence the learners' grammar accuracy. Next, Ellis et al. (2008) investigating the influence of focused and unfocused feedback, found that the feedback gave effect for focused and unfocused class. Then, Sheen et al. (2009) measuring the effects of the focused and unfocused approaches, found that focused feedback contributed to grammatical accuracy. Later, Frear (2010), also investigated the effects focused

direct CF and unfocused direct CF. He revealed that focused and unfocused classes performed better than control class. Rouhi and Samiei (2010) also measured the effects of focused and unfocused indirect feedback. The study revealed that focused and unfocused classes did not perform better than the control class. Then, Sun (2013) conducted a study on the effects of focused and unfocused grammar correction. She found that the focused class was better than unfocused and control classes. All results indicated that focused and unfocused feedback were useful in L2 writing' accuracy. There are also some studies on focused feedback (e.g. Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Ellis et al., 2006; Sheen, 2007; Sheen, 2010) that found positive effects of focused feedback.

Those studies are very relevant with this proposed study in explaining the effect of direct and indirect feedback in L2 writing. Different with studies above, the researcher investigates the effect of direct and indirect feedback with involving different gender and learners' cultural background as potential factors for successful learning. The novelty of this study is that the learners' gender and cultural background were taken into consideration for deeper analyzing of the effectiveness of corrective feedback in EFL writing class. In this case, the aim is to measure the effect of direct and indirect feedback by considering the gender factors: male and female; and cultural background factors: Dayak, Banjarese, and Javanese.

B. Theoretical Background

In the following part, there is a discussion on the main theories, which includes written corrective feedback, participants in the correction feedback, EFL writing, and cultural background.

1. Written Corrective Feedback

There are some experts give definitions about feedback. Feedback is a term used in applied linguistics to describe the various strategies a teacher may use to give correction on a student's composition. In this case, (Sheen et al., 2009), (Wang & Loewen, 2015) define corrective feedback as data addressed to learners about grammatical error, which they made. Moreover, (Ducken, 2014) stated that feedback is a written feedback made by the teacher on a student essay to improve grammatical accuracy. In addition, (Mubaro, 2012) feedback can be divided into teacher written feedback, teacher-students conferencing, and peer feedback. It is not only

synthesized that feedback is categorized in criticism, praising, and suggestion, but also indicated into positive and negative feedback. The type of feedback can be focused on organization, content, grammar, and mechanic. In my view, written corrective feedback is a teacher written response to grammatical errors in the text made by L2 learners. The goal of feedback is to train writing skills helping EFL learners to improve their writing quality. The researcher agrees with (Ducken, 2014) in the purpose of improving grammatical accuracy. Here, (Ellis, 2009) identifies six different methods for providing corrective feedback: Direct, Indirect, Focused and Unfocused, Metalinguistic, Electronic, and Reformulation. Here is a typology of feedback types proposed by (Ellis, 2009) as described in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1. Typology of Written Correction Feedback Types

No	Types of Written Correction Feedback	Description
1	Direct Corrective Feedback	The teacher gives correction to the student with the correct form.
	Indirect Corrective Feedback	The teacher gives correction by showing that an error exists but does not give the correction.
2	a. Indicating + locating the error	This takes the form of underlining and use of cursors to show omissions in the student's text.
	b. Indication only	This takes the form of an indication in the margin that an error or errors have taken place in a line of text.
	Metalinguistic Corrective Feedback	The teacher provides some kinds of metalinguistic clue as to the nature of the error.
3	a. Use of error code	Teacher writes codes in the margin (e.g. ww= wrong word, art= article)
	b. Brief grammatical descriptions	Teacher numbers errors in text and writes a grammatical description for each numbered error at the bottom of the text.
4	The focus of the feedback	This concerns whether the teacher attempts to correct all (or most) of the students' errors or selects one or two specific types of errors to correct. This distinction can be applied to each of the above options.
	a. Unfocused Corrective Feedback	Unfocused Corrective Feedback is extensive
	b. Focused Corrective Feedback	Focused Corrective Feedback is intensive
5	Electronic Feedback	The teacher indicates an error and provides a hyperlink to a concordance file that provides examples of correct usage.
6	Reformulation	This consists of a native speaker's reworking of the students' entire text to make the language seem as native-like as possible while keeping the content of the original intact.

The explanation of six models of written corrective feedback are as follows.

(1) Direct Corrective Feedback. Some of expert stated about direct written corrective feedback such as (Ellis, 2009), (Sheen, 2007), and (Ferris & Roberts, 2001). According to (Ellis, 2009), direct feedback is a procedure to provide the L2 learner with explicit information and

guidance to correct errors directly. (Ferris & Roberts, 2001) suggest using direct feedback instead of indirect one with low proficiency learners. However, (Ellis, 2009) points out that direct feedback requires minimal treatment by learners themselves. Nevertheless, a study by (Sheen, 2007) corroborates that direct feedback can be efficient in the acquisition of articles. Moreover, (Ferris & Roberts, 2001) suggest that direct corrective feedback is suitable with low learners. A study by (Sheen, 2007) suggests that direct feedback can be helpful in improving grammatical features. Most of the studies on WCF make a distinction between two kinds of corrective feedback, namely direct CF and indirect CF (Bates, et al., 1993; Ferris, 1995; Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998; Hendrickson, 1978, 1980; Lalande, 1982; Walz, 1982). In the case of direct CF, the students are provided with the correct form (Ellis, 2009) the teachers cross out an unnecessary word, insert a missing word, and write the correct form. This type of feedback is desirable for low-level-of-proficiency students who are unable to self-correct, and can not provide the correct form. However, the learners perform the least processing and thus it does not contribute to long-term learning (Ellis, 2009). However, Sheen (2007) indicates that direct CF can be beneficial for learning only some specific grammatical features. Here, in my point of view, direct feedback is a model of feedback, whereas the teachers provide the students with the true form directly. In my pilot study, the students write "I have two book" instead of "I have two books...". The way to correct with direct feedback is done by adding the letter of s after the word book for example: I have two books.

(2) Indirect Corrective Feedback. The teacher gives correction showing that an error exists but does not give the direct correction (Ellis, 2009). According to (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010, p. 209) Indirect written corrective feedback refers to a procedure of giving feedback that an error has existed but it does not give a correction". Moreover, (Lalande, 1982), it provides learners with the capability of solving the problems to ponder their own errors. In the researcher's point of view, indirect feedback is a model of feedback in which the teacher showing to the student that there is an error, but not giving with the right form. The teacher may either underline the actual errors or place a notation in the margin indicating that an error. In the pilot study, the students write: I have two book" instead of "I have two books…". The way to correct with Indirect feedback is done by giving clue for error after the word *book* for example: I have two book (plural form). Indirect feedback occurs when the

students are informed in some way that an error exists but are not provided with the correct form, thus placing the burden of spotting the erroneous forms on students. The experts in the field argue that indirect feedback is superior for most students, because it involves them in guided learning and problem solving, focusing their attention to linguistic forms that may lead to long-term learning (Ferris & Roberts, 2001). However, the findings of different studies which have focused on the difference between direct and indirect CF are very mixed. Some studies (Ferris & Helt, 2000) claim that indirect feedback enables students to correct their errors, however, some suggest the opposite (Chandler, 2003), and others (Frantzen, 1995) found no difference.

- (3) Metalinguistic Corrective Feedback. The teacher gives some kinds of metalinguistic clue to the learners' errors. This category has two models: (a) using error codes, (b) brief grammatical explanations of the errors.
- (4) Focused and Unfocused Corrective Feedback. (Ellis, 2009) states this is about whether the teacher corrects all errors or selects one or two specific types of errors. In my point of view, the unfocused written corrective feedback involves all correction of learners' errors. Focused feedback, on the other hand, focuses on specific linguistic error (e.g. errors in subject- verb agreement, capitalization, and so on).
- (5) Electronic feedback. The teacher identifies an error and shows a hyperlink to a concordance file giving examples of correct use (Ellis, 2009). He reports on some advantages of electronic feedback. The first one is that it the teacher is no longer the responsible for judging what is a correct form and what is not. He suggests that an approach based on usage would be more reliable since teachers' intuitions can be erroneous. Another advantage is that it promotes students' independence as they are in charge to choose the corrections, which they consider best apply in the text. In my point of view, electronic feedback is a type of feedback in which the teacher indicates there is an error and gives a small note in connected list of errors' file and extends examples of how to apply the correction.
- (6) Reformulation. This consists of an English native speaker's reworking of the students' entire text to provide the language seem as native-like as possible (Ellis, 2009). The studies on reformulation, such as (Sachs & Polio, 2007). They investigated compared reformulation with direct error correction. In the researcher's point of view, reformulation feedback is a

type of feedback, which provides learners with feedback in the form of a re-written version of original text.

In the present study, the researcher investigates the effect direct and indirect written corrective feedback in L2 writing multicultural class. There are a number of reasons to apply those models. First, both teachers and students are familiar with such models of direct and indirect written feedback. Second, those models of direct and indirect written corrective feedback are easily to practice in EFL writing class. Third, both teachers and students get some advantages with such models of direct and indirect written corrective feedback. Teachers can improve the teaching quality in EFL writing class. Meanwhile, students can reduce grammatical errors they made in EFL writing products.

2. Participants in the Correction Process

Feedback is very vital in assessment process. It provides information about EFL learners' writing relate to objectives of class. The objective of feedback is to teach skills EFL learners to improve their writing proficiency. (Hattie & Timperley, 2007) feedback is 'a kind of information provided by teachers about some aspects of one's task performance'. In the present study, there are three participants in the correction process, namely: teacher, peer, and self-feedback, as proposed by (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012). These are discussed in following.

a. Teacher Correction

The first point leads to the source of written corrective feedback is teacher correction. Teacher or the instructor is the primary source of written corrective feedback for the students. (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012) stated that:

"The teacher should start off the writing course with some kinds of diagnostic analysis of student needs as observed in the early pieces of writing and should convey to and model for the students what issues they should work on and how feedback might best be provided."

Moreover, (Saito, 1994), & (Zhang, 1995) found that affective factors are also important in the success of feedback and studies suggest that students have a preference for teacher feedback over other types. (Hyland, 1998) found out that teachers also take into account the student who committed them, building their comments and correction on the teacher-student relationship and

the student's background, needs and preferences. Then, teacher feedback can be very useful for L2 writing learners. (Keh, 1990) suggested the ways of writing effective and efficient comments. Moreover, (Mufiz et al., 2017) stated that there are other factors, which contributed to the students' writings, were confounding variables such as student's proficiency, writing capability, and teacher feedback. Furthermore, (Prabasiwi, 2017) argued that, in order to get great willingness of the students to write, the teacher must provide interesting themes for students to write. In addition, (Elhawwa, Rukmini, Mujiyanto, & Sutopo, 2018) found and reconfirmed that teacher written corrective feedback played an important role in improving their language development in writing. In the field of the study, the teacher assigns the students to write the first draft on an essay. Then, the teacher corrects the students' errors on language forms, content, and organization. Afterwards, the teacher gives the corrected composition to be rewritten by the students based on the teacher's feedback.

b. Peer Correction

The second point leads to the source of written corrective feedback is peer/students correction. This model of feedback is based on the (Vygotsky's, 1978) sociocultural theory. Dealing with sociocultural theory, some studies conducted on the effect of peer feedback (Elola & Oskoz, 2016), and (Ware & O'Dowd, 2008) reported that feedback is useful for EFL learners. In the field of the study, the teacher assigns the students to write the first draft on an essay. Then, the teacher assigns the students to give their draft to their peer to be corrected by their peer. Similarly, (Jahin, 2012) peer feedback provides students a sense of <u>audience</u>. Moreover, on the study from (Khunaivi & Hartono, 2015) the students' perceptions on corrective feedback were that they had very good responses about corrective feedback given by the teachers in the classroom. Here, there are eight sequential steps to conduct peer feedback, such as (1) read peers' writing; (2) write down written feedback on peers' writing; (3) discuss with peers about their writings and the feedback provided; (4) hand in drafts commented by peers at the end of classes; (5) tutor provides written feedback on drafts and on peer feedback; (6) tutor holds oneto-one conferencing with students; (7) revise drafts with peer and teacher feedback; and (8) hand in the revised drafts next class. The peer should correct the students' errors on linguistic features, sentence structure, punctuation and mechanics. Afterwards, the peer gives the corrected composition to be rewritten by the students based on the peer's feedback.

c. Self-Correction

The last point leads to the source of written corrective feedback is self-correction. (Ferris, 2002) points out several components for self-editing: 1) assisting learners become aware of errors, 2) training students on successful self-editing, 3) sharing specific editing strategies, 4) encouraging learners to track their progress in self-editing, and 5) teaching learners to edit. In other words, it is a model of feedback in which the EFL learners make corrections by their own selves. In the field of the study, the teacher assigns the students to write the first draft of an argumentative essay. Then, the teacher assigns the students to edit their draft by themselves. They should focus the correction on their errors on language forms, content, and organization. Afterwards, the teacher assigns the students to rewrite their draft based on the self-feedback.

3. Writing

(Raimes, 1998) stated that writing help students learn for several ways. First, it reinforces the grammar structures, idiom, and vocabulary. Second, it gives an opportunity to be adventurous with the language. Third, it becomes very involved with the new language. Here, the course is designed to develop the students' knowledge of essay writing that covers the definition of argumentative essay, the steps to write argumentative essay, claim and counterclaim, evidence and reasons, and transition signals. (The 2015 English syllabus of English Department at IAIN Palangka Raya).

4. Writing in English as a Foreign Language

Dealing with the teaching of writing in EFL class, (Brown, 2010) mentions five models of writing activities: imitative, intensive, self-writing, display writing, and real writing. In line with the teaching of writing at English Department of IAIN Palangka Raya, the writing subject is taught separately from other skills. The three writing courses: paragraph writing, essay writing, and argumentative writing. In the present study, the class of essay writing is focused on writing argumentative essays. Here, an EFL multicultural class is an EFL class in which all class members are accepting of all races, cultures, and religions.

5. Writing an Essay

An essay is a group of paragraphs that develops one central idea (Smalley, 2001, p. 105). An essay has a topic sentence in each paragraph. Each paragraph in essay must be unity and coherence. An Essay is (in composition) a longer piece of writing, particularly one that is written by a student as part of a course of study or by a writer writing for publication, which expresses the writer's viewpoint on a topic (Richard, 2002, p. 186). An essay is a piece of writing that examines a topic in more depth than a paragraph. A short essay has three basic parts: introduction, one or two body paragraphs, and a conclusion (Davis and Liss, 2009, p. 2). A short essay may have four or five paragraphs, totaling three hundred to six hundred words. A long essay is six paragraphs or more, depending on what the essay needs to accomplish-persuading someone to do something, using research to make a point, or explaining a complex concept. An essay has three necessary parts: the introduction, the body, and the conclusion (Anker, 2010, p. 38).

The essay writer usually starts with a broad subject, and then narrows it to a manageable size. An essay is longer than a paragraph and gives us more room to develop ideas. Nevertheless, the best essays are often quite specific. The thesis statement further focuses the subject because it must clearly state, in sentence form, the writer's central point, that is, the main idea or opinion that the rest of the essay will discuss. Here the thesis statement should be as specific as possible. By writing a specific thesis statement, we can focus on our subject and give the readers a clearer idea of what will follow in the body of the essay. The essay, like the paragraph, is controlled by one central idea, which is called the thesis statement. The thesis statement is similar to the topic sentence in that it contains an expression of an attitude, opinion, or idea about a topic. The thesis statement expresses the controlling idea for the entire essay. In fact, each of the body paragraphs should have a controlling idea that echoes or relates to the controlling idea- central idea- in the thesis statement. A thesis statement may indicate how to develop the supporting paragraphs by example, definition, classification, description, and so forth. The thesis statement is important to both the writer and the reader, because it provides the focus for the essay and hence guides the writer, serving as a kind of touchstone (Clouse, 2006, p.34). A writer can select details, which relate to the thesis. On the contrary, a reader can develop expectations for an essay. Here, the thesis statement must be shaped carefully. This means that the thesis statement should be narrow

enough to allow on in-depth discussion in a manageable length; and the thesis statement should be expressed in a specific words.

Here are points to remember about the thesis statement:

- A good thesis statement is restricted, unified, and precise. To be restricted, it must limit the scope of the paper to what can be discussed in detail in the space available. Unified means it must express only one idea. Precise means it should be so stated that it has only one interpretation. Here, a thesis statement should be immediately clear.
- A thesis statement should be expressed in a complete sentence. For example: The Islamic University gives the opportunity to discover a talent for writing.
- A thesis statement expresses an opinion, attitude, or idea. It doesn't simply announce the topic the essay will develop. Therefore, avoid the thesis statement such as: I am going to discuss the effect of pornography. The thesis statement should be: The effects of pornography are often harmful.
- A thesis statement expresses an opinion; it should not express a fact. The thesis statement, therefore, is a statement that needs to be explained or proved. For example: The advantages to going to Islamic College on foot.

Furthermore, the following are points to remember about essay:

- Thesis statement- the controlling idea of the essay- is usually stated in the introductory paragraph.
- Major support paragraphs provide, illustrate, define, or expand the thesis statement.
 - Minor support-sentences or paragraphs provide additional details to illustrate the major ideas.
 - Concluding paragraph ties together all paragraphs to restate and expand the thesis statement.

Based on definition above, it can be concluded that essay is a group of related paragraphs discusses one single idea.

6. The Structure of an Essay

Unlike the paragraph, the essay is a formal composition. Each paragraph in an essay has a designated function:

a. Introduction.

The introduction is usually one paragraph (sometimes two or more) that introduces the topic to be discussed and the central idea (the thesis statement) of the essay. An introduction should begin with a broad opening statement that establishes the context of your essay. It is often useful to think about the literature on the topic and indicate how the contribution is related to what others have written. It is includes why the topic is important. It is really important that the introduction tells the reader, so mention what is going to come up in the essay. Natilene Bowker stated that by the end of the introduction, the focus is narrowed down to the thesis statement. As have been known that the introductory paragraph states the main idea of the essay. It begins the essay and prepares the reader for what will follow. The introductory paragraph contains the thesis statement, which sets forth the main idea of the entire essay. Usually the thesis statement is in the last sentence in the introductory paragraph. Just as the topic sentence sets forth the main idea of the paragraph, so the thesis statement sets forth the main idea of the essay. This means that the thesis statement must be general enough to include every topic sentence in the body in the body of paragraphs. Here, every topic sentence should support the thesis statement. The introductory paragraph of an essay should start with several sentences that attract the readers' interest. It should then advance the central idea that will be developed in the essay. An introductory paragraph has two functions in an essay. First, it contains the thesis statement, and therefore, tells the readers what control idea will be developed in the rest of the paper. Second, it has to interest the readers enough so that they want to continue reading the essay. The introductory paragraph or introduction is usually one paragraph that introduces the topic to be discussed and the central idea (the thesis statement) of the essay. The main purpose of an introductory paragraph is to capture the readers' attention. Another function is to present the purpose and main idea of the essay (Gillespie, 1986, p.175). There are characteristics of a wellwritten introductory paragraph: (a) an introductory paragraph should introduce the topic. Don't forget that the introductory paragraph is the first thing that a reader sees; (b) introductory paragraph should indicate a plan of development or generally how the topic is going to be developed; (c) A good introductory paragraph should indicate whether the essay is going to discuss causes, effects, reasons, or example; whether the essay is going to classify, describe, narrate, or explain a process. (d) An introductory paragraph should supply any background information needed to understand the essay; (e) An introductory paragraph should present the

thesis statement. This clear direct statement of the main idea to be developed in the paper usually occurs near the end of the introductory paragraph; and (f) Ideally, an introductory paragraph should be inviting; that is, it should be interesting enough to make the readers want to continue reading (Smalley and Ruetten, 2001, p.142).

b. The body paragraphs.

The body paragraphs are the second major part of an essay. In the body paragraphs, the main idea of an essay, which was presented in the introductory paragraph, is supported or explained (Littell, 2005, p. 201). Each of the body paragraphs should begin with a topic sentence that states the point to be detailed in that paragraph. Just as the thesis statement provides a focus for the entire essay, the topic sentences provide a focus for each body paragraphs (Langan, 2004, p. 8). The purpose of the body paragraphs is to present all the detail that supports, explains, defends, describes, illustrates, or develops the idea given in the thesis statement. Each body paragraphs has two parts: the topic sentence and the supporting detail. The topic sentence presents the point of the body paragraph will deal with. This point will be one aspect of the thesis statement. The topic sentence can appear anywhere in the body paragraph. After the topic sentence, comes the supporting detail. This is all information that explains, illustrates, or develops the idea presented in the topic sentence (Clouse, 1986, p. 41). These supporting points must be developed with specific details. The body paragraph should also be unified and coherent. For our essay to be successful, our supporting detail must be adequate. There must be enough of it in any given body paragraphs to enable our readers to fully appreciate the point raised in the topic sentence. In the other words, we must have enough body paragraphs so that the readers appreciate the points presented in our thesis statement. The following are points to remember about the body paragraphs: (a) Each body paragraphs discusses one aspect of the main topic. (b) The body paragraphs function to explain, illustrate, and prove the thesis statement. Therefore, the topic sentences of the body paragraph must relate to the thesis statement and tell what the body paragraph is about. (c) The controlling idea in the body paragraphs should relate to the central idea in the thesis statement, and provide specific evidences. (d) The body paragraphs should have coherence and unity. (e) The purpose of the body paragraphs is to present detail information that demonstrates the validity of the point made in the thesis statement. (f) The idea presented in the topic sentence must be relevant to the thesis statement. (g) The body paragraph also functions to develop the thesis statement.

These paragraphs develop various aspects of the topic and the central idea. They may discuss cause, effect, reasons, examples, processes, classifications, or points of comparison and contrast. They may also describe or narrate (Smalley, 2001, p. 105).

c. Conclusion/ Concluding Paragraph.

After finishing writing the body paragraphs, the next step is to write the conclusion. The conclusion should be brief and accurately reflect or review the content of the essay (Kirszner and Mandel, 2003, p. 23). The concluding paragraph indicates to the readers that the essay is finished. It can restate the main idea of the essay, summarize the ideas that have been presented in the body paragraphs, or make comment about the information that has been given. The conclusion is the final idea that our readers will take from our writing. Therefore, it should be as interesting as the introduction. A conclusion signals the end of the essay and leaves the reader with a final thought. Here are five ways to conclude an essay. First is to end with a call to action. Second is to end with a final point. Third is to end with a question. Fourth is to draw a conclusion. Fifth is to summarize the main points of the essay. The following are the examples of conclusion methods: (a) End with a call to action. It says that the readers should do something. (b) End with a final point. It can tie together all the other ideas in the essay. It provides the readers with the sense that the entire essay has been leading up to this one final point. (c) End with summary and final thought. (d) Include a thought-provoking question or short series of questions. A question grabs the reader's attention. It is a direct appeal to our readers to think further about what we have written. A question must deal with one of these areas: why the subject is important; what might happen in the future; what should be done about this subject; and which choice should be made. (e) End with a prediction or recommendation. Like questions, predictions and recommendations also involve the readers. A prediction states what will or may happen in the future. Conclusions round off the essay. They remind the reader of all the main points and explain the significance of the argument.

In many ways, an essay is like an extended paragraph. If a paragraph has a topic sentence, body or supporting details and conclusion sentence; an essay has the introductory paragraph of an essay, the body paragraphs of an essay, and the concluding paragraph of an essay. The structure of an essay looks like this, as described in Figure 2.1.

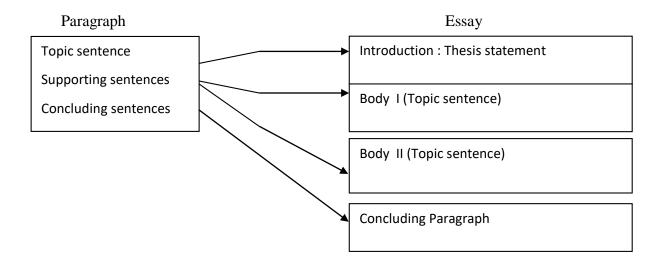


Figure 2.1 The structure of an essay

7. The Elements of an Essay

The elements of an essay include unity and coherence. A good essay must meet the two requirements.

a. Unity

Unities in writing means that the entire points make are related to the main point; they are *unified* in support of the main point. As the draft a paragraph or an essay, it may detour from the main point without even being aware of it, as the writer of the following paragraph did with the underlined sentences. The diagram after the paragraph shows what happens when readers read the paragraph (Anker, 2010, p. 107). As we write an essay, we should check to see that each body paragraph directly relates to the introductory paragraph. Then we should make sure that the supporting details in each paragraph relate directly to the topic sentence. Unity in an essay requires consistent development of the idea that our essay intends to explain. Unity is achieved when every sentence in the essay relates to one main idea (Littell, 2005, p.218). All the details in the essay are on target; they support and develop each of the essay's topic sentences. To achieve unity is to have all the details in our paper related to the thesis statement and the supporting topic sentences (Langan, 2004, p66). In an essay, topic sentences usually begin the body paragraphs and generally reflect the major divisions of the outline. Here we can use the transitional devices.

There are points about unity: (a) Maintain a definite physical point of view and mood. (b) Choose details carefully. Make sure that the sentences in each paragraph relate to the topic sentence. Also make certain that each paragraph relates back to the introductory paragraph. (c) Use the word 'however' to show opposite points of view. This is an essay, which has unity:

Attendance should not be required

Required class attendance is so common at this Islamic College that many students and even lecturers simply assume it is a good thing. In fact, for a number of reasons, college lectures should not require attendance.

First, college students are adult and should be treated like adults. Allowing each student to decide when and how often to attend class encourages responsible behavior. The opposite is also true. Requiring attendance is a form of babying that promotes irresponsibility.

Second, rigid attendance policies can penalize some students unfairly. Muhammad, for example, got a C on the writing final just because of 'poor attendance.'

Finally and most important, there is no proven correlation between attendance and performance in a course. Dr. Coen, dean of students at the college, admits that there is no study proving that compulsory attendance improves course performance.

Required attendance is like an old custom; people still do it without asking why. However, when we examine the facts, required attendance in college courses doesn't make sense (Adapted from Evergreen: A Guide to Writing by Susan Fawcett, p.212).

In the essay above, every topic sentence supports the thesis statement. Every paragraph in the body discusses one reason why attendance should not be required.

b. Coherence

Coherence in writing means that all of the support connects to form a whole. In other words, even when the points and details are assembled in an order that makes sense, they still need "glue" to connect them. Coherence in writing helps readers see how one point leads to another. Individual ideas should be connected to make a clear whole. A good way to improve coherence is to use transitions.

A good essay should be coherence. Coherence is the logical arrangement of ideas. The supporting ideas and sentences in a paper must be organized so that they cohere or stick together. Coherence is achieved though the logical arrangement of ideas. Here, coherence can be increased through three devices. First, we can repeat key words to carry concepts from one sentence to another and to relate important terms. Second, we can use pronouns to refer back to key nouns in previous sentences. Third, we can use transitional expressions to show chronological sequence (then, next, afterward, and so forth), cause and effect (as a result, therefore), addition (first, second, third, furthermore), and contrast (however, but, nevertheless).

8. Using transitional expressions or signals

Transitional expression- words like therefore, for example, and later on- is used within a paragraph to show the relationship between sentences. Transitional expressions can also be used within an essay to show the relationship between paragraphs. Transitions are signals that help readers follow the direction of the writer's thought. Here are some common transitional words and phrases, grouped according to the kind of signal:

Additional signals: first of all, second, the third reason, next, another, in addition, moreover, furthermore, last of all.

Time signals: first, then, next, after, as, while, meanwhile, now, during, finally.

Space signals: next to, across, on the opposite, to the left, to the right, above, nearby, below.

Change-of-direction signals: but, however, yet, in contrast, otherwise, nevertheless, on the contrary, on the other hand, and so forth.

Illustration signals: for example, for instance, specifically, as an illustration, once, such as.

Conclusion: therefore, consequently, thus, then, as a result, to conclude, last of all, finally.

Transition occurs not only within the supporting paragraphs in an essay but also between the paragraphs. Transitional or linking sentences are used to help tie together the supporting paragraphs in an essay. They enable the readers to more smoothly and clearly from one idea and paragraph in an essay to the next idea and paragraph (Langan, 2004, p. 45). In addition to transitions, there are three other kinds of connecting words that help tie together the specific evidence in a paragraph: repeated words, pronouns, and synonyms. This is a model of an essay.

About My Parents

The most important religious values I learned from my parents are the importance of religious services regularly, of family support, of hard work, and of a good education.

First, my parents taught me to pray five times a day regularly in a mosque, to have fasting two days in a week, and to recite the Qur'an every night. This enables me to schedule my daily activities regularly.

Second, my parents taught me that family members should stick together, especially in time of trouble. We, all family members, should help each other whenever we need. This includes advice, and even financial aids.

In addition to teaching me about the importance of hard work, my parents taught me the value of time. They always wake up in the early morning, went to the mosque, then, went to farm, and came back before sunset.

Along with the value of education, my parents emphasized the benefits of mastering science and technology. They always encouraged me to complete my study to undertake a master degree (Adapted from **College Writing Skills** by John Langan, p. 46).

9. Expository Essay

Exposition is one of the four basic types of essays (narration, description, and argumentation are the three). The purpose of exposition is to clarify, explain and inform (Eschholz and Rosa, 2003, p.637). An expository essay is sometimes called explanatory composition (Littell, 2005, p.224). It presents a certain amount of information about a subject. The aims of expository essay are to explain, to inform, or to give directions. It is usually arranged in time order. It gives factual detail about a particular topic. It can be stated that an expository essay is a kind of an essay, which clarifies, explains and informs something Exposition is one of the four basic types of essays (narration, description, and argumentation are the three). The purpose of exposition is to clarify, explain and inform (Eschholz and Rosa, 2003, p.637). The methods of developments in expository essay are cause and effect, comparison and contrast, definition, examples, classification and division, and process. An expository essay is sometimes called explanatory composition. It presents a certain amount of information about a subject. The aims of expository essay are to explain, to inform, or to give directions. It is usually arranged in time order. It gives

factual detail about a particular topic. It can be stated that an expository essay is a kind of an essay, which clarifies, explains and informs something. An expository essay opens with an introductory paragraph, which catches the readers' attention, and gives an indication what will follow. The body paragraphs of an expository essay explain or support the ideas presented in the opening paragraph. A concluding paragraph signals the end of the essay. The well-written expository essay is characterized by unity, coherence, and emphasis. Unity is created by a structure in which all the parts work together, by using precise details and transitional devices. Coherence is achieved by logical arrangement of ideas. The third quality, emphasis, is achieved by selecting a central idea that dominates the other ideas presented in the essay. An expository essay may be divided into three types. They are, first of all, the type in which the details are arranged inductively. This order is called inductive order. Second is the type in which the details are arranged deductively. This order is called deductive order. Third is the type in which the details are arranged climactically. The following is an expository essay, which explains a process.

How to read faster

When I was studying in the Islamic boarding school in my home- town, I had to read every Islamic book ever published. I zipped through all of them in a couple of days, and reread the good ones until the next issues arrived. From this reading habit, I find three ways, which are very helpful in reading faster.

The first way to read faster is previewing. It is especially useful for getting a general idea of heavy reading like Islamic Journal, magazine, newspaper articles and nonfiction books. To preview, read the entire first two paragraphs of whatever you've chosen. Next read only the first sentence of each successive paragraph. Then read the entire last two paragraphs. This will give you a quick, overall view of the long unfamiliar material.

The second way is skimming. It is a good way to get a general idea of light reading such as popular Islamic magazines or the sports and entertainment sections of the newspaper. It is also a good way to review material you've read before. To skim, think of your eyes as magnets. Force them to move fast. Sweep them across each and every line of type. Pick up only a few key words in each line. You will end up reading about half the words in less than half the time.

The third way is clustering. It trains you to look at groups of words rather than one at a time. For most of us, clustering takes constant practice because it is totally different way of seeing what we read. To practice clustering, begin with something

easy to read. Read it as fast as you can. Concentrate on seeing three to four words at once rather than one word at a time. Then reread the piece at your normal speed to see what you missed the first time. Practice fifteen minutes everyday, then you can read clusters without missing much the first time.

So now you have three ways to read faster. Previewing to cut down on unnecessary heavy reading. Skimming to get a quick general idea of light reading. Clustering to increase your speed and comprehension. With enough practice, you will be able to handle more reading at college and at home in less time. You should even have enough time to read your favorite Islamic books (Adapted from **Building English Skills** by Joe Littell, p.225).

Dealing with the methods of developing exposition, some experts have different opinion. D'Angelo (2000, p.29), for example, divides the methods of development into ten models, namely: analysis, description, classification, exemplification, narration, process, definition, comparison, contrast, and cause and effect. In contrast, Gould, et al., (2009, p.151) mention six patterns of exposition: causal analysis, illustration, classification, exemplification, process analysis, comparison. Furthermore, Wahab and Lestari (1999, p.76) classify it into four main methods: definition, exemplification, analysis, and comparison. In the present study, an expository essay is developed in six methods of development such as illustration, classification, process, definition, comparison and contrast, and cause and effect expositions.

a. The Illustration Exposition

The illustration essay is a kind of an expository essay, which provides illustration or examples to develop or support the explanation. It is also called the exemplification essay. To exemplify means to give an example or examples. Examples illustrate a larger idea or represent something of which they are a part. The logic of exemplification is the relationship of the specific to the general. An example is a basic means of developing or clarifying an idea (Eschholz and Rosa, 2003, p.636). Examples enable the writers to show and not simply tell readers what they mean. It is a vital component of clear expression. The purpose is to influence the reader or make the reader understand the writers' ideas. Here, the examples and details should be organized according to time, familiarity, and importance. The development paragraphs must be connected so that they flow smoothly. When the writers develop an illustration essay, they must decide how many examples to use. The examples can come from a variety of sources, such as experiences, observation, personal reading, or television viewing. The illustration essay

is one of the most frequently used in college writing and in business. There are points to remember about illustration essay (Clouse, 2006, p.188). First, illustrations should be selected to provide clarity, concrete, and interest. Second, illustrations should be appropriate to the audience and purpose. Third, illustrations can be drawn from personal experience, observation, reading, and the like. Fourth, the writers use enough illustrations to clarify the generalization. The transitional signals used in the illustration essay are: for instance, another instance of, an illustration of this, for example, another example of, in case in point is, to illustrate, specifically, here are a few examples, in fact, and as a matter of fact.

b. The Classification Exposition

Classification is the process of organizing information into groups or classes. The classification method divides people, places, things and ideas into parts or groups to a common basis. The aim is to determine the relationship or the nature of parts. The logic of analyzing a class is more complicated because it involves not only something similar to the part-whole relationship, but also the specific-general relationship. Classifying is the process of grouping similar ideas or objects, and the systematic arrangement of things into classes (D'Angelo, 2000, p.143). Here, classification is also the means by which the mind groups experiences into types. The mind cannot handle very many unrelated ideas, objects, or events. It is necessary to find some patterns, some common properties in order to catalog many separate things into a smaller number of types of things. For example, a writer can discuss terrorism because he or she can classify terrorism as individual terrorism, grouped terrorism, state terrorism, and inter-state terrorism. Thus, classification is really a basis skill of analysis.

Classification is also a creative analytical procedure. Ultimately, then, classification can be a powerful tool for invention. Here, the classification essay is useful in college and business. When classifying, the writer arranges, and sorts people, places or things into categories according to their differing characteristics, then making them more manageable for the writer and more understandable for the reader (Eschholz and Rosa, 2003, p. 633). The purpose of classification is to take many of the same type of things and organize them into categories. Following Rolloff and Brosset (2000 in Salija, 2004, p39), to classify people, things, or ideas into logical groups, a writer must have three principles of classification. First, the writer must have something in mind of things classified according to certain common qualities. Second, the division of items into

group must have a consistent basis. Third, the writer must continue the classification until it is completely done. This is an example of classification essay.

The Three Passions of My Life

Three passions, simple but overwhelmingly strong, have governed my life: the longing for love, the search for knowledge, and unbearable pity for the suffering of mankind. These passions, like great winds, have blown me hither and thither, in a wayward course, over a deep ocean of anguish, reaching to the very verge of despair.

I have sought loving, first, because it brings ecstasy- ecstasy so great that I would often have sacrificed all the rest of life for a few hours of this joy. I have sought it, next, because it relieves loneliness- that terrible loneliness in which one shivering consciousness looks over the rim of the world into the cold unfathomable lifeless abyss. I have sought it, finally, because in the union of love I have seen, in a mystic miniature, the prefiguring vision of the heaven that saints and poets have imagined. This is what I sought, and though it might seem too good for human life, this is what- at last- I have found.

With equal passion I have sought knowledge. I have wished to understand the hearts of men. I have wished to know why the stars shine. A little of this, but not much, I have achieved.

Love and knowledge, as far as they were possible, led upward toward the heavens. But always pity brought me back to earth. Echoes of cries of pain reverberate in my heart. Children in famine, victims tortured by oppressors, helpless old people a hated burden to their sons, and the whole world of loneliness, poverty, and pain make mockery of what human life should be. I long to alleviate the evil, but I cannot, and I too suffer.

This has been my life. I have found it worth living, and would gladly live it again if the chance were offered me (Adapted from **Patterns: A Short Prose Reader** by Mary Lou Conlin, p.117)

c. The Process Exposition

A process essay is a type of an expository essay, which tells how to do something or how something works. It is a method of analysis and explanation in which the writers examine phenomena in their steps or stages to observe how they develop or to provide instructions. In the other words, the process method gives instructions or explanations. A process is also a sequence

of operations or actions by which something is done or made (Mc Crimmon, 2000, p.78). A process is also a series of actions, changes, functions, steps, or operations that bring about a particular end (D'Angelo, 2000, p.214).

Moreover, a process is a series of actions leading to an expected or planned end. There are two types of process essays. They are those that instruct or direct, and those that explain or analyze. Directional process essays tell how to do something. The purpose of this type of essay is clarifying the steps in the procedure so that the readers can recreate the steps and the result. For example, a process might explain how to cook fried chicken. On the other hand, a process essay explains or analyzes a process telling how something works, how something happened, or how something was done. For example, a process essay might explain how the Second World War got started. The purpose of this type of process essay is to inform, explain, or analyze something. Here, the reader is gaining an understanding of the process. This is an example of process essay.

How to Prepare For a Final Test

At the end of my first semester at the Islamic College, I postponed thinking about final tests, desperately crammed the night before, drank enough coffee, and got C's or D's. I have since realized that the students who got A's on their final tests were not just lucky. They knew how to prepare. There are many different ways to prepare a final test, and each individual must perfect his or her own style, but over the years, I have developed a method to prepare that works for me.

First when our professor announces the date, time, and place of the final-usually at least two- weeks before-ask questions and take careful notes on the answer. What chapter will be covered? What kinds of questions will the test contain? What materials and topics are most important? The information we gather will help us study more effectively.

Second, survey all the textbook chapters the test will cover, using a highlighter or colored pen to mark important ideas and sections to be studied later. Many textbooks emphasize key ideas with boldface titles or headlines. Pay attention to these guides as you read.

Third, survey your class notes in the same fashion, making important ideas. If your notes are messy or disorganized, you might want to rewrite them for easy reference later.

Fourth, decide approximately how many hours you will need to study. Get a calendar and clearly mark off the hours each week that you will devote to in-depth studying. Schedule your study time as serious as you are about getting good grades.

Fifth, begin studying systematically, choosing a quiet place free from distractions

in which to work- the library, the dorm room, whatever helps you concentrate. Be creative in studying the study material. It could be on cassette tapes, pocket notes, and so forth.

Finally, at least three days before exam, start reviewing. At the last opportunity, refer to your notes, even if you are not prepared to digest all the material. Use the moments just looking at the material can promote learning. Last of all, you should pray to God every midnight.

By following these simple procedures, you may find, as I do, that you are the most prepared person in the exam room, confident that you studied thoroughly enough to do well on the exam (Adapted from Evergreen: A Guide to Writing by Susan Fawcett, p. 258).

d. The Definition Exposition

The definition essay is a type of an expository essay that explains the meaning of a word by bringing its characteristics into sharp focus. To define is to set bounds or limits to a thing, to state its essential nature (D'Angelo, 2000, p. 159). The definition method is a method in which paragraphs of an essay are developed by defining key terms or words, which is, stating the meaning of them. Definition may be thought of as description of words, or as setting limits to the meaning of words. The other important kind of definition for the writer of exposition is extended definition. This type is most often used with words that have uncommon significance. Such words as poverty, freedom, happiness, and love may have as much definition as there are people to define them. Definition of such words can form the basis of a whole essay. In general, the function of definition is to provide a necessary explanation of a word or concept. Its length and complexity depend on the writer's purpose. In addition, the purposes of the definition essays are to make clarification, to inform, and to increase awareness of the nature of something. The other purpose of definition is to provide a new understanding of a familiar subject and to make a statement about an issue related to the subject defined. This is a definition essay:

Map

A map is a conventional picture of an area of land, sea or sky. Perhaps the maps most widely used are the road maps given away by the oil companies. They show the cultural features such as states, towns, parks, villages, and roads, especially paved roads. They show also natural features, such as rivers, and lakes, and sometimes mountains. As simple maps, most automobile drivers have on various occasions used sketches drawn by service station men, or by friends, to show the best automobile route from one town to another.

The distinction usually made between 'map' and 'chart' is that a chart is a representation of an area consisting chiefly of water; a map represents an area that is predominantly land. It is easy to see how this distinction arose in the days when there was no navigation over land, but a truer distinction is that charts are specially designed for use in navigation, whether at sea or in the air.

Maps have been used since the earliest civilizations, and explorers find that people who are accustomed to traveling use them in rather simple civilizations at the present time. For example, Arctic explorers have obtained considerable help from maps of the coastlines showing settlements, drawn by Eskimo people. Occasionally maps show not only the roads, but also pictures of other features. One of the earliest such maps dates from about 1400 B.C. It shows not only roads, but also lakes with fish, and a canal with crocodile and a bridge over the canal. This is somewhat similar to the modern maps of a state, which show for each large town some feature of interest or the chief product of that town (Adapted from Patterns: A Short Prose Reader by Mary Lou Conlin, p. 273).

e. The Comparison and Contrast Exposition

Comparison is the process of examining two or more things in order to establish their similarities or differences (D'Angelo, 2000, p. 176). The comparison method compares (showing similarities) and contrasts (showing differences) of two things. Comparison and contrast are two thought processes that the writers constantly perform in everyday life. When the writers compare two things, they show how they are similar. When the writers contrast two things, they show how they are different. The purpose of comparing or contrasting is to understand each of the two things more clearly and to make judgment about them, or to look a fresh insight into something that is similar, or to demonstrate that one thing is superior to another.

One way to develop a thesis statement for a comparison and contrast essay is to state the subject that the writers are considering and indicate whether they are comparing or contrasting or

doing both. For example: I expected college to be vastly different from high school, but I soon discovered they are not much different at all (high school and college will be compared).

Dealing with the types of organization, there are two types of organization for comparison and contrast essays. These are point-by-point and subject-by-subject. It is a strategy for analysis and explanation in which the writer considers important similarities and differences between two or more subjects in order to understand them in depth (Knefel, 2001, p. 374). In comparison and contrast, the writer points out the similarities and differences between two or more subjects in the same class or category. Furthermore, to compare two subjects, Wahab and Lestari (1999, p. 92) state that the subjects must be similar in kind and on the same level of generalization. The function of any comparison and contrast is to clarify and to reach some conclusion about the items being compared and contrasted. The transitional signals commonly used in the contrast essay are: although, on the other hand, on the contrary, whereas, in contrast, in spite of, however, unlike, it must be confessed, conversely, after all, despite, but, yet, and still. The transitional signals commonly used in the comparison essay are: in the same way, just as ... so, in a similar manner, as well as, both, neither, the same, equally, likewise, and, also, each of, again, similarly, like, too, and in addition. This an example of *Comparison and Contrast Essay*.

Between Ahmad and Yusuf

I have two close friends when I am studying in the Islamic College. They are Ahmad and Yusuf. They come from the same state, but different town. Ahmad comes from Makkah, while Yusuf comes from Madinah. Both of them are Muslim, and can speak Arabic well. Both of them are studying English now. But Ahmad and Yusuf have different types in several things, so that I am very impressed with them.

How long before the plane leaves do they arrive at the airport? Early plane-catcher, Ahmad, packs his bag at least a day in advance, and he packs neatly. If he is booked on a flight that leaves at four in the afternoon, he gets up at 5:30 that morning. If he hasn't left the house by noon, he is worried about missing the plane. On the other hand, late plane-catcher, Yusuf, packs hastily at the last minute and arrive at the airport too late to buy a newspaper. He is not worried about missing the plane. He, sometimes, gets up late.

What do they do with a new book? Ahmad reads more carefully and finishes every book, even though it isn't any good. He reads all chapters of the book, especially English books. On the other hand, Yusuf skims through a lot of books and is more apt to write the margins with a pencil. He sometimes prefers to watch television than read a book.

Ahmad eats s good breakfast; while Yusuf grabs a cup of coffee. Ahmad turns off the lights when leaving a room and locks the doors when leaving a house. He goes back to

make sure he has locked it, and he worries about whether he left the iron on or not. Yusuf, on the contrary, leaves the lights burning and if he locks the door at all when he leaves the house, he is apt to have forgotten his keys.

Ahmad sees the dentist twice a year, has annual physical check up and thinks he may have something. Yusuf, however, never sees the doctor. He wants to live naturally. When he is sick, he drinks a lot of fresh water.

Ahmad squeezes a tube of toothpaste from the bottom, rolls it very carefully as he uses it and puts the top back on every time. On the other hand, Yusuf squeezes the tube from the middle, and he has lost the cap under the radiator. Ahmad will marry Hafshah, her classmate, next June, while Yusuf will marry Zainab next September. All in all, Ahmad and Yusuf are really different.

f. The Cause and Effect Exposition

A cause is a force or an influence that produces an effect (D'Angelo, 2000, p. 225). An effect is anything that has been caused. It is the result of a force or an action. Here, effect is something worked out, accomplished or produced. The word effect calls to mind such related words and expressions as consequence, result, outcome, production, and so forth. Cause and effect are correlative terms. The one always implies the other. The cause and effect method refers to a method of developing an essay that shows casual relationship of events: something causes something else. This method deals with investigation why things are as they are, or why something happens and the effects of the things. When a writer analyzes the causes, he or she attempts to understand the relationship of events that bring about an end. For example, if a tire on our car blows out and our car hits a light pole, there is a correlation between the blow out and the accident. It can be said that one causes the other.

In addition, a cause and effect essay is a kind of exposition used primarily to answer the questions "Why does this occur?" and "What will happen next?" It explains the reasons for an occurrence or the consequence of an action. It is a strategy for analysis and explanation in which the writer considers the reasons for, or the consequence of an event or decision. The structure of a cause and effect essay is a series of events or conditions the last of which (the effect) cannot occur without the preceding ones (causes). When the writers write a cause and effect essay, it may be helpful to keep chronologically clearly in mind. It should be noted that causes always create effects and that effects are derived from causes.

The purpose of cause and effect essay is to justify or condemn actions, to prove or disapprove an idea, to explain or to give an account of something, to produce a feeling, to investigate, and to draw a conclusion. Cause and effect essay answers such fundamental questions as why did it happen? What are its causes? It tells why something turns out the way it does. In some cases, a single cause may contribute heavily to a single effect or result. The transition signals used in cause and effect essay are as a result, for this reason, consequently, by mean of, in effect, accordingly, on account, and so forth. Here is a cause and effect essay.

The Effects of the Civil War on the South

The immediate ravages of war most deeply affected the South, since most of the fighting took place there with the usual consequences. Crops were destroyed, homes and farm buildings went up in flames and towns were occupied. Even before he took Atlanta and began his march through Georgia to the sea, Sherman wrote to his wife: "We have devoured the land... All people retire before us and desolation is behind. To realize what war is one should follow our tracks." But this was only the most dramatic example of the misery wrought by the war.

The relentless pressure of the federal naval blockade of Southern ports, the presence on Southern soil of Union armies, the cutting of Texas and Arkansas by Grant's campaign along the Mississippi River, the steady shrinking of Southern resources chewed up by military demand-all these combined to ruin the Southern economy and make miserable the lives of the people. The transportation system broke down, shortages of many goods developed, coffee disappeared, salt became scarce, and inflation by 1864 led to butter selling at \$25 a pound and flour at \$275 a barrel. Impoverishment was the fate of many, and disease the byproduct of poverty. Women and children tried to carry on the work of the farms and the shops, but by 1864 the task had become too great for many, the penalties in suffering too high.

Intellectual and cultural life in the South suffered devastating blows under the impact of war. Many private plantation libraries were destroyed; the importation of books was severely limited by the blockade; book publishing was greatly restricted by the lack of paper, some of the books published came out on coarse brown paper or even wall paper, and in all cases the number of copies was far below the demand. Newspaper and periodicals were equally hard hit, some being forced to suspend publication, others coming out on half-sheets, mere slips of paper, or wallpaper. Except for a few isolated instances, the public school system broke down, private academies closed or survived on a day-to-day basis, colleges closed for lack of private or public funds.

The war was clearly an economic, social, and cultural disaster for the South. Scarcely a single aspect of life remained unaffected.

10. Writing Assessment

Assessment is an integral part in the teaching of writing. It is a process of getting information about students' development and their achievement in the teaching and learning activity. It has an important role to know the students' progress in learning activity.

In line with this, O'Malley and Pierce (2006, p. 239) mention that these four types of knowledge used in writing have at least two implications for writing assessment. First, writing assessment should evaluate more aspects of writing than just mechanics and grammar. Second, writing assessment should capture some of the processes and complexity involved in writing so that teachers can know in which aspects of the writing process students are having difficulty.

a. Process Assessment

Process assessment is the assessment that is done while the teaching and learning process. It is a kind of ongoing assessment used to keep track of students' progress in writing or to monitor the students' progress in writing. In this case, Tompkins states that process assessment is designed to probe how the students write, the decision they make as they write, and the strategies they use (Tompkins, 2006, p. 379).

b. Product Assessment

Product assessment is defined as giving score to the students' final composition. It focuses on assessing the students' final composition. To assess the students' writing product, there are three methods of scoring. These are holistic, primary trait, and analytic scoring (Weigle, 2002, p. 120).

Holistic scoring is a procedure in scoring students' writing on the basis of the general impression of the composition as a whole. It looks at the piece of writing as a whole and assesses its ability to communicate to the reader. The second type is primary trait scoring. The primary trait scoring is a way of scoring a piece of writing by focusing on the specific feature or characteristics. The trait could be a language-based feature emphasizing any one or more of the criteria such as idea development, organization or fluency. The third type is analytic scoring. Analytic scoring is a procedure in scoring a piece of writing by referring to a list of features or sub skills on which a rater bases his or her judgment. In addition, analytic scoring identifies the specific needs in a piece of writing. A list is made of the prominent features that should appear in the piece of writing. In analytic scoring, the rater (scorer) gives their score on the basis of the

marking scheme that contains some features or components of writing, such as content, organization, sentence structure, and grammar, usage and mechanics. Each component is scored separately and sometimes given different weights to reflect their importance in instruction. Unlike the holistic system, the analytic scoring separates the features of a composition into components. There are two advantages of this type of scoring. It provides feedback to students on specific aspects of their writing and gives teachers diagnostic information for planning instruction.

The scoring method applied in the study was developed by the researcher himself by considering the scoring method developed by O'malley and Pierce (2006, p. 43) and scoring standard of Palangka Raya State Islamic College (2005, p. 15). It was done to produce the right criteria to score the idea development aspects of students' essay writing.

The method was aimed at assessing the subjects' composition both using and not using an outline. The focus of the assessment was on idea development. The rubric consisted of four aspects: score, level, range of score and criteria. Each aspect was divided into five bands with criteria for each band, ranging from the highest to lowest.

The scores were classified into A, B, C, D, and E. A referred to excellent; B referred to fair; C referred to Average; D referred to poor; and E referred to fail. Accordingly, the range of score was divided into five bands and each band contained nine point scores. For this method, a score depended on the level of composition criteria of the students fulfilled. The more the essay fulfilled the criteria, the higher the score got. The primary trait scoring method applied in the study was as shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Primary Trait Scoring Method: Idea Development

Score	Level	Range	Criteria
A	Excellent	80-100	The ideas are: about a topic selected, relevant to the
			outline, clearly stated, well developed, presented in logical
			sequencing, clearly supported and cohesion.
В	Fair	70-<80	The ideas are: about a topic selected, relevant to the outline, clearly stated, adequately expressed, adequately organized, generally well developed, sufficient sequencing, mainly clearly supported and adequate cohesion.
С	Average	60-<70	The ideas are: about a topic selected, mostly relevant to the outline, sufficient, rather clearly stated, adequately expressed, a little bit loosely organized but the main ideas stand out, generally developed, in some logical

			sequencing, enough supported and few sentences break out
			cohesion.
D	Poor	50-<60	The ideas are: about a topic selected, somewhat relevant to
			the outline, somewhat choppy, not fluent, not clearly
			stated, limit supported, confused and disconnected, a little
			bit loosely organized but the main ideas stand out, lack of
			development, lack of logical sequencing, and in adequate
			cohesion
Е	Fail	0-<50	The ideas are: about a topic selected, not relevant to the
			outline, not enough to evaluate, no details, no organization
			of ideas, incoherent, poor development, merely copies the
			topic, and no communication of ideas.

11. Teaching EFL Writing

When language learners learn a foreign language, they learn to communicate with each other, to understand them, to talk to them, to read what they have written, and to write to them. Here, in the context of teaching English as a foreign language, students need to learn how to communicate with other people. By communicating, the students can express ideas, thoughts, and feelings to others in the form of oral and written language. In written communication, the students use graphic symbols to express ideas or feelings through indirect communication. This is one of the reasons that writing should be included as an integral part of foreign language learning activities in the classroom.

Dealing with the teaching of writing, Raimes (2003, p. 3) stated that writing can help students learn. First, by doing writing, students can reinforce the grammatical structures, idiom, and vocabulary. Second, when writing, they also have a chance to be adventurous with the language. Third, when students write, they necessarily become very involved with the new language and the effort to express ideas.

Dealing with learning writing, beginning level of the EFL writers need to learn from simple writing to complex writing. Gebhard (2000, p.223) stated:

"Beginning EFL writers need to learn the basic conventions of writing. This includes being able to identify and write down letters, words, and simple sentences, as well as learning spelling and punctuation conventions."

Furthermore, Gebhard (2000, p. 223) suggested that the writing teachers can use a number of different types of activities to teach these conventions. One basic activity is tracing letters, words, and sentences. Although such task may seem trivial, it can teach students letter

recognition and discrimination, word recognition, and basic spelling, punctuation, and capitalization rules. Here, teachers may ask students to trace letters and words.

The second activity is copy and change. In this activity, students are given a passage and asked to copy it. They are also required to change one aspect of the passage, for example, to change the subject from "he" to "they". This activity can be done with other grammatical features, such as changing verb tense from present to past time and changing the subject from singular to plural form.

The third activity is to have students unscramble muddled sentence parts. Here, students are given a list of words, such as -school, go, friends, every day, my, and to. They are asked to form a sentence. After gaining some of the grammatical rules, mechanics, spelling, punctuation, and other conventions of written English, students can take on more demanding assignments.

Furthermore, Gebhard (2000, p. 225) explains that after students have gained some control over the convention of writing, they can focus more easily on communicating their ideas through writing. They can do a variety of writing activities such as; short story; description of people, places, or objects, comparison, elaborate definitions, arguments, and so on. To accomplish this, EFL writing teachers are encouraged to have students work through a process of prewriting, drafting, revising, and editing.

Dealing with the EFL writing class, Brown mentions five major categories of writing activity (Brown, 2000, p. 343). They are imitative, intensive (controlled), self-writing, display writing, and real writing. At the beginning level, the students write down English letters, words, and sentences in order to learn the basic convention of writing. In the imitative writing, the students reproduce in the written from something, which has been read or heard.

The other activity is controlled writing. A common form of controlled writing is to present a paragraph to students in which they have to alter a given structure throughout. For example, the students are asked to change the present tense to past tense. Another form of controlled writing is that a text is read at normal speed. Afterward, the teacher asks the students to rewrite the text. The next activity is self-writing. It is a form of writing in which only the self in mind as an audience, such as diary, journal, dialogue journal, and note taking during a learning process.

The next activity is display writing. The display writing includes writing essay examinations, research reports, and short answer exercises. Here, students need to master the display writing techniques.

The last activity is real writing. It is a kind of writing performance, which aims at the genuine communication of messages to an audience in need of those messages. There are three kinds of real writing. They are academic, vocational, and personal. In line with the teaching of writing at the university level, especially in the English Education Study Program, the writing subject is taught separately from other skills. The four writing courses: Paragraph Writing, Essay Writing, and Argumentative Writing. In the present study, the class of Essay Writing is focused on writing various types of English essays: examples, comparison and contrast, cause and effect, classification, and process analysis of expository essays.

12. Approaches in Teaching Writing

Based on the theory of L2 writing, there are two approaches to teaching writing.

a. Product Approach

Product approach as its name indicated gives emphasis on the final product of writing. It is characterized by four stages: familiarization; controlled writing; guided writing; and free writing. The familiarization stage aims to make learners aware of certain features of a particular text. In controlled and guided writing sections, the learners practice the skills with increasing freedom until they are ready for the free writing section, when they use writing skill as part of a genuine activity such as a letter, story or essay (Hyland, 2003, p. 3). In short, product-based approaches view writing as mainly concerned with knowledge about the structure of language, and writing development as mainly the result of the imitation of input in the form of text provided by the teacher.

b. Process Writing Approach

The process writing approach emphasizes on writing activities which shift learners from generating ideas and collecting data through to the publication of a complete text. It takes more attention to the process a writer's experiences in the process of text making rather than the final product comprises several stages. There are different views on the stages that the writers go through in producing a piece of writing. Christenson (2001, p. 5)comprises five stages of process writing approach, i.e., prewriting, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing. According to Gebhard, Tomkins and Smalley et.al, there are four stages involved in the process of text

making. They are prewriting, drafting, revising, and editing. These four stages are the typical model of process writing approach.

The activities at the prewriting stage includes activating schemata, generating ideas, and making plan for approaching the writing task that can be done through brainstorming. At the composing/drafting stage, learners would select and structure the result of the brainstorming session to provide a plan of description. After discussion, the learners might revise the first draft working individually or in group. Finally, the learners would edit or proof-read the text.

c. Genre-based Approach

The genre-based approach believes that learners do not just write. They write something to achieve some purposes by following certain social conventions for organizing messages because they want the readers recognize their purpose. The genre approach comprises three stages, namely modeling the target genre, constructing the text by learners and teacher, constructing the text independently by learners. In short, genre-based approach see writing as essentially concerned with knowledge of language, and as being tied closely to a social purpose, while the development of writing is largely viewed as the analysis and imitation of input provided by the teacher.

d. Process Genre-based Approach

Writing development happened by drawing out the learners' potential (as in process approach) and by providing input to which the learners' respond (as in product and genre approaches). According to Badger & White the model of process genre approach may be described in terms of a view of writing and a few of the development of writing. The fundamental thought of this approach is that writing involves knowledge about language (as in the product and genre approaches), knowledge of the context in which writing happens and especially the purpose the writing (as in genre approach), and skills in using language (as in process writing approach). One of the advantages is that as the genre-based emphasizes on the purpose of writing, language and context, the process approach provides a framework for the teaching of text production skills. In this learning environment the students are facilitated to achieve better result in writing since they are assisted with the content and practice.

13. The Problems of EFL Teachers in Teaching Writing

Writing as one of the four language skills is regarded as the most difficult. Writing activity involves some components such as grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics as the prerequisite of the written language rule. In this case, sometimes students have problems in those components. Consequently, it is hard for them to follow the writing class. They are not interested in writing compositions. Here, they cannot manipulate the language well and they lack confidence. Most of them do not know what to say and if they do, they do not know how to say it. They are confronted with the problems of content and language. Dealing with problems in writing, Byrne (2001, p.5) mentions the three main problems in writing, namely: psychological problem, linguistic problem, and cognitive problem. The psychological problem means that writing is a solitary activity, without the possibility of interaction or directly feedback from a reader. Therefore, when someone is assigned to write, sometimes he or she loses ideas.

The linguistic problem refers to the context of writing itself in which the writers need to express ideas carefully through sentence structures that have been linked together and sequenced, so that those sentences are easy to understand. The cognitive problem means that writing is learned through a process of instruction. In this case, the writers need to master the written form of language and to learn certain structures, which are less used in speech in order to make the communication more effective. Besides, the writers need to learn how to organize ideas. In addition to the problems in teaching writing, Gebhard (2000, p. 235) mentions that there are three problems faced by EFL teachers in teaching writing, namely: "the less-proficient writer" problem, the "I can't write English" problem, and the "the teacher response" problem. Each is discussed in details below.

In the "the less-proficient writer" problem, some students use ineffective writing strategies, and the teacher is faced with showing these students how to write. To teach less-proficient writers, the writing teacher should help them to identify how they process writing different from proficient writers. Knowing the students' differences in learning writing is very important. It is because EFL less-proficient writers and EFL proficient writers have different composing behaviors as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1. The Composing Behaviors of EFL Writer

 Start off confused, without using prewriting strategies. Have vague or little awareness of audience. Take much time to get ideas onto paper. Work primarily at the sentence level, struggling with form.
 Have vague or little awareness of audience. Take much time to get ideas onto paper. Work primarily at the sentence level, struggling
Take much time to get ideas onto paper.Work primarily at the sentence level, struggling
4. Work primarily at the sentence level, struggling
with form
WILLI TOTHI.
5. Concerned with vocabulary choice and sentence
structure.
6. Will revise primarily at the word and sentence
level. Revise surface level items (spelling,
grammar, punctuation, and so on).
7. Are bothered by confusion over revision. Tend to
avoid adding, deleting, and recording ideas.
B. Revise primarily only the first draft.

(Gebhard, 2000, p. 236)

Here, the writing teacher needs to give full attention to them, to show them how to plan a piece of writing through prewriting activities, how to draft and revise, and how to read their writing as an editor. The teacher may also create interesting and real writing challenges for them.

In the "I can't write English" problem, some students have negative attitudes about writing or lack confidence in themselves as writers. The teacher is faced with changing their attitudes and building confidence. Some students simply do not like to write. Negative statements such as "I really don't like to write, it's boring, writing is so difficult, I always feel my English is terrible" are problematic in EFL writing classroom. To identify who have negative attitudes toward writing is important for writing teachers.

According to Gebhard (2000, p.238) teachers should do personal approach to students, such as listen to their experiences and their views in doing writing as writers and talk to students informally about writing. This can make students aware of themselves and their attitudes, possibly leading to change. Teachers can also point out that no one's writing is perfect, that writing is often hard work, and that the point of writing is to express our ideas. Besides, asking students to put together their best writing into a portfolio can also provoke their positive perspective toward writing. When students can see their best work together in one place, they feel very good about themselves, even proud of their efforts. By doing this, students can see that writing is indeed a process of development that takes time and effort. Here, the teachers can give a reward to students for doing the best to develop a piece of writing.

In the "the teacher response" problem, students do not always understand or pay attention to the content of the teachers' response to their written work. Teachers often spend many hours reading and marking students' paper, offering revision suggestions and feedback on grammatical errors. However, students quite often do not pay attention to the comments and corrections. Therefore, teachers need to explore different ways for the students to get feedback on their writing.

To begin with, teachers can do several ways such as working with students on developing their written work through one-to-one conferences, peer response groups, and providing a model that can help students to clarify what they are expected to do. Teachers show draft with specific written comments on an overhead projector, as well as have the whole class read and respond to the same draft of an essay. Teachers can also provide students with guidelines that include advice for the draft reader and the author. By doing so, teachers can overcome the classroom writing problems.

14. Steps in Planning Writing Course

Designing syllabus for teaching writing determine how effective the teaching and learning process of writing is. Raimes in Richards and Renandya (2002, p. 306) outlines ten steps in planning a writing course. The first step is ascertaining goals and institutional constraints. The teacher should decide what goals that her/his students have to reach in her/ his writing class. Ascertaining goals is a necessary first step in designing a course. The teacher should also find out what constraints imposed upon teachers by their institution. Such constraints include assigned curricula, approved textbooks, and designed proficiency examinations. By knowing the institutional constraints, the teacher can do some actions for maximizing her/his ability in teaching writing in order to pursue the goals that have been decided.

The second step is deciding on theoretical principles. Richards and Renandya (2002, p. 307) points out that "all forms of ESL instruction are ideological, whether or not educators are conscious of the political implications of their instructional choices". She claims that all writing is ideological. Thus, the teacher first needs to confront her/his ideological position and recognize her/his perceptions of the relationship between the type of writing she or he teaches and the roles she or he is preparing students for in academia and the wider world of work.

The third step is planning content. The teacher should understand the value of writing that it is a valuable tool for learning not only about subject matter but also about language. The teacher is more than just selecting content that is not based on rhetorical models of form. The teacher also involves what content will actively encourage students to use writing as a tool for learning and for communication and to become engaged enough with their writing to have an investment in examining it, improving it, and revising it for readers.

The fourth step is weighting the elements. Writing consists of many elements and the teacher needs to consider which ones will be the most important for a course: content, organization, originality, style, fluency, accuracy, or using appropriate rhetorical forms of discourse. The teacher has to form priorities and weight the elements according to the students' needs and her/his point of view.

The fifth step is drawing up a syllabus. After deciding on content and weighting the elements, the teacher should organize the content and the learning experiences in the classroom. She/ he should adapt the types of syllabus organization for writing courses, such as structural, functional, topical, situational, skills and processes, and task syllabus. A combination of approaches is often used. What they are and in what proportion they are used depends on the students, goals, theoretical principles, and institutional constraints. She/ he has to make principles selections every time she or he plans a lesson or a course.

The sixth step is selecting materials. There are seven features that a teacher should considered if she or he decides to use an ESL writing textbooks and not books and articles written for authentic purposes. They are topics, types of writing, opportunities for and instruction in methods of generating ideas, instruction on principles of rhetorical organization, opportunities for collaboration, opportunities for revision, and instruction in editing and proofreading.

The seventh step is preparing activities and roles. The teacher has to make sure that she or he does not try to bank too much in the students' brains all at once. It helps the teacher thinks about what students will be doing and learning in the classroom rather than the comprehensiveness of the information she or he will be imparting.

The eighth step is choosing types and methods of feedback. A teacher should know the purpose of her/his response. First, in the case of the large class, not every piece of writing has to be corrected or even seen by the teacher. Second, whoever responds has a variety of physical methods of responding: a comment to or a conversation with the writer; an interlinear response

with computer software; an audio taped response; or a written response. Third, the teacher has to select the type of response she/he prefers to give. Fourth, teacher and students need to agree the purpose of the response.

The ninth step is evaluating the course. A popular evaluation in the writing course is the combination of student evaluation and course evaluation that is the use of portfolio. The tenth step is reflecting the teacher's experience. The teacher should reflect upon her/his experiences during the teaching learning process. She or he has to ponder why one class or activity works and another does not. Through this reflective teaching, the teacher can plan a new strategy in teaching, with the hope that it will be better.

Those ten steps above are used to make an effective teaching of writing. The teacher should follow those steps so that the teaching learning process will be effective especially in writing.

15. Cultural Background

Dealing with cultural background and writing, Indonesia is the multicultural country. It automatically makes Indonesia becoming a multilingual country. In Indonesia, each culture has its own language and dialect, for example, Banjarese culture has Banjarese Language; Javanese culture has Javanese language; Dayak culture has Dayak language, and so on. According to (Gebhard, 2000, p. 134) Culture is the shared values and beliefs of a group of people and the behaviours that reflect them. (Brown, 2007) defined that culture is a way of life. It is the context within which people exist, think, feel and relate to others. In the present study, there are only three ethnic cultural backgrounds being discussed: Javanese, Banjarese, and Dayaknese.

Here, according to (Gebhard, 2000, p. 119) there are four concepts to EFL students: (1) cross-cultural communication includes adapting behavior, (2) cross-cultural communication involves problems solving, (3) to understand a culture, get to know individuals, and (4) to understand another culture, study your own culture.

According to (Brown, 2007, pp. 133-134) there are four guidelines on accounting for cultural issues in EFL classroom: (1) a students' cultural identity is often a deeply seated bundle of emotion, (2) recognize the cultural connotations and nuances of English and of the first language of your students. Capitalize on them in your teaching, (3) use your classroom as an opportunity to educate your students about other cultures and help them to see that no one culture is 'better' than another. Practice in words and deed your respect for your students' deeply ingrained

emotions that stem from their cultural schemata, and (4) as cultural differences emerge, help your students to appreciate and celebrate diversity.

(Hyland, 2003) states that cultural factors are reasons for writing differences, and that there are numerous ways to form meanings. Indonesia is the multicultural country. It automatically makes Indonesia becoming a multilingual country. In Indonesia, each culture has its own language and dialect, for example, Banjarese culture has Banjarese Language; Javanese culture has Javanese language; Dayak culture has Dayak language, and so on. Also, Mulholland, 1991 in (Belshek, n.d) Culture is a complex concept. According to (Brown, 2007), culture is a way of life. In the present study, there are only three ethnic cultural backgrounds being discussed: Javanese, Banjarese, and Dayaknese. In my opinion, the students' cultural background makes the writing differences, and can influence the way of the appropriate feedback.

a. Influence of Cultural Background in L2 Writing

Culture provides a set of values writers use in choosing how they write about a given topic. Based on the researcher's experience in L2 writing class, some IAIN EFL students are hard to write certain topics about Western culture, since they are negatively regarded as liberal and contrary to the learners belief. In this case, (Hyland, 2003) states as cultural factors shape students' background understandings and it is likely to have a considerable impact on their writing performance. In addition, (Made & Fitriati, 2017) the cultural aspect constraints appeared more frequently than social aspect constraints. Culture is a likely reason why feedback is not so effective, wherever it is from. According to (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998) different cultures, collectivists, or individual may bring about different contribution. In my opinion, teachers and students from different cultures may misunderstand their communication in the writing process, which cause ineffective feedback. To sum up, cultural background indicates many things from a contextual point of view. It may also touch upon the background of an individual apart from where he/he stays. This is to understand the effect of upbringing, education, family atmosphere and other such factors, on the thinking and views of an individual. In my opinion, cultural background consists of the ethnic, religious, racial, gender, and values that shape an individual's upbringing.

Javanese Cultural Background

According to Koentjaraningrat, 2005 a characteristic of Javanese culture is very complex. Javanese" is not a monoculture term for people on central and eastern side of the island of Java. Central Javanese in general are overly polite people. They rarely if never say something directly. They also (mostly) hold their traditions and customs so tight to the point.

Banjarese Cultural Background

According to (Farid, 2015), Banjarese people as reflected in their proverbs have some characteristics such as; (1) carefulness in doing something. The other characteristics of Banjarese people is (2) diligent, (3) Hard-worker, (4) Low-profile, (5) Strong-willed and (6) Wise.

Dayaknese Cultural Background

Dayak is a term for natives of the island of Borneo. Borneo Island consists of: the capital city of Samarinda in East Kalimantan, South Kalimantan capital Banjarmasin, the capital of Central Kalimantan Palangka Raya, and West Kalimantan capital Pontianak, the capital city of North Kalimantan Tanjung Selor (Darmadi, Dayak and their daily life, 2017). Dayak tribe has a culture or customs of its own that also are not exactly the same with other tribes in Indonesia. Dayak culture is the whole system of ideas, actions and results of human work in the context of community life of Dayak. Dayak culture is very meaningful and very important role, which is an integral part of the life process of the Dayaks. (Alqadrie, 1991) states that attitude, behavior, and socio-economic activities of the Dayaks of daily guided, supported by and connected not only with systems of belief or religion and customs or customary law, but also by cultural values and ethnicity.

16. Pilot Study

A pilot study, involving 25 students (11 males, 14 females), was done at English Study Program of IAIN Palangka Raya, which located at Jalan Raya G. Obos No 24 Palangka Raya. The participants were the EFL writing students who were joining writing class. This class consisted of three big ethnic groups (Javanese, 8 students; Banjaresse, 5 students; and Dayaknese, 12 students). The class was designed to train the students to write an essay writing. First, the class provided them some knowledge of writing such as thesis statement, body

paragraphs and concluding paragraph. Then, the class provided them two model of written corrective feedback: direct and indirect and sources of written corrective feedback: teacher.

C. Framework of the Study

In this part, the researcher explains about framework of the study. First, it is about argumentative essay as proposed by (Smalley, 2008). Second, written corrective feedback according to (Ducken, 2014) is model of written feedback provided by the teacher on a student paper essay to improve grammatical accuracy. Moreover, the study also applies the two types of feedback as proposed by (Ellis, 2009), direct and indirect feedback. Third, the areas of revision as proposed by (Bitchener, Basturkmen, & East, 2010). They divide into several areas' revision, namely; content, language forms, and organization. Fourth, theory on multicultural class by (Firestone, 2010) states that multicultural education is a philosophy of education focusing on celebrating cultural differences.

The writing lecturer practices direct corrective feedback. The teacher provides the learners with the correct form. Here, he classifies the errors as those classified by (Bitchener et al., 2010) All participants of different cultures (Banjarese, Javanese, and Dayaknese) are treated using Direct feedback in L2 writing class. Then, the lecturer practices indirect corrective feedback. Here, the teacher did not provide the learners with the correct form, but only show the errors. The writing lecturer practiced indirect written corrective feedback and using sources of feedback from teacher. The teacher did not provide the learners with the correct form. Here, he classified the errors as those classified by (Bitchener et al., 2010) covering language forms, contents and organization. The writing lecturer practiced indirect corrective feedback using teacher feedback in revision emphasizing on content, language form and organization. All participants of different cultures (Banjarese, Javanese, and Dayaknese) are given treatment using Indirect Feedback. The last, all participants of control group of different cultures (Banjarese, Javanese, and Dayaknese) are not given treatment in L2 writing class (No feedback). The theoretical framework of this study is described in Figure 2. 2.

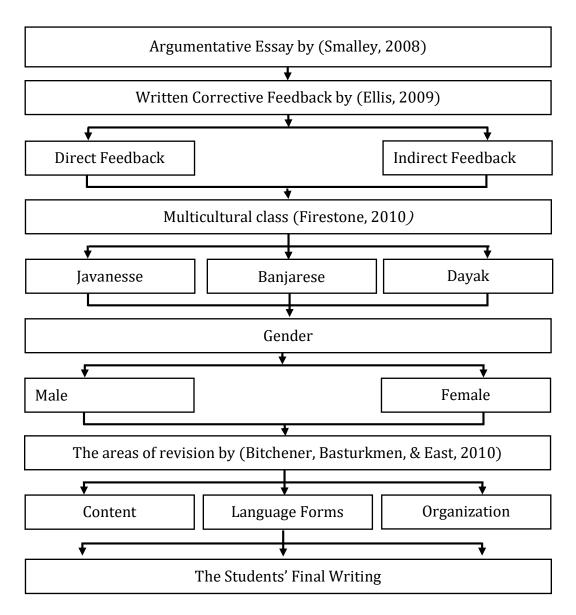


Figure 2.2. Framework of the Study

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHOD

This part discusses the research design, Population and Sample, research instrument and procedures of collecting data, procedures of analyzing data, and technique of reporting data.

A. Research Design

The design of the study is an experimental design using factorial design. Experimental Design is a plan for an experiment that specifies what independent variables will be applied, the number of levels of each, how subjects are assigned to groups, and the dependent variable (Ary, 2010, p. 641). The design is appropriate since the study investigates three categorical independent variables, namely: gender (male- female), learners' cultural background (Dayaknese, Banjarese, and Javanese), and types of feedback (Direct Feedback (DF), Indirect Feedback (IF) and No feedback (NF); and one dependent variable: learners' writing score. Since the variables of the study consisted of three categorical independent variables and one dependent variables, the study applied a three Way ANOVA to test the hypotheses.

B. Population and Sample

Population is the group to which a researcher would like the results of a study to be able to generalize (Gay, 2001, p. 101). In the present study, the population of the study is all the essay writing class students of the third semester English department of Palangka Raya State Islamic Institute of 2019/2020 academic year. They are class A, B, and C. The total population was 111 students. This study used all population as the sample of the study. Therefore, it was called research population. The number of the sample is 111 students. In the present study, the participants are assigned randomly into two groups based on gender (male 48 and female 63); and three groups based their cultural background: (Dayaknese 32, Banjarese 37, and Javanese 42. They are also clustered into three groups consisting of two experimental classes: the first treatment class (n=38), the second treatment class (n=37), and one control class (n=36). The distribution of the participants is described in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1. The distribution of the Participants

Types of Feedback	Learners' cultural background					Total	
	Dayaknese		Banjarese		Javanese		-
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	-
Direct Teacher Feedback (FDF)	5	7	4	6	7	9	38
Indirect Direct Feedback (UDF)	5	5	6	7	6	8	37
No feedback (NF)	4	6	6	8	5	7	36
Sub total	14	18	16	21	18	24	111
Total	32		37		42		111

C. Instrumentation

1. Test Type

The type of the test used to collect the data was in the form of writing test, especially expository writing test. The test consisted of the instructions/ directions and statements the subjects addressed in their writing and the alternative topics to be chosen. In this sense, the participants were assigned to choose one of topics that interest them. They are asked to develop the topic into an essay containing about 450 to 500 words. The allocated time is about 100 minutes.

2. Test Construction

The test construction was based on the objectives of the study. The study was aimed at measuring the effect of direct and indirect feedback with involving different gender and learners' cultural background as potential factors for successful learning. To investigate the effectiveness of direct and indirect feedback in L2 writing multicultural class, the participants were assigned to write expository essay. The results of the two tests were investigated using a three Way ANOVA statistical analysis and the outcomes are compared to see the effects of direct and indirect feedback in L2 writing multicultural class.

3. Test Validity and Reliability

Validity is the degree to which a method actually measured what it claimed to measure (Hellriegel, et.al., 1998, p. 632). The validity is classified into content, construct, and face validity. In this study, the validation of instrument is mainly directed to the face and content

validity, that is, to make the test items (contents) match with what is supposed to measure. Related to writing test, the content validity can be checked by examining the agreement between the objectives of the course and the test used to measure the objectives. In this case, the students are assigned to write expository essay, which is matched with the syllabus of Essay Writing course. Then, in terms of the face validity, the test assigns the students to write an expository essay. Then, the topics to be selected are also familiar to students. Next, construct validity meant that the test really measure the intended construct (Ary, 2010, p.235).

In this sense, there are some efforts to make the test construction and content valid (test of validity). First, the researcher makes the test be true measure. It means that the test match with what supposed to measure. Here, the test shows agreement between the test scores and objectives. Second, the researcher determines that the test types matches with test objectives. After determining the test types, the researcher determines the test content suitable with the syllabus. In this sense, the primary concern is focused on the topics of the essay. The topic selection is based on the objectives of test, students' background knowledge and interests.

Afterwards, the writing test is constructed. It contains the directions that the students have to do the test. Then, the test try out is done to the students having the same characteristics with the subjects of the study. It is done for the improvement and clarification of the instructions. The revision of test instruction is made after having the test try out. Finally, the final form of writing test is done to the experiment class.

In addition, reliability is the accuracy of measurement and the consistency of results (Hellriegel, et.al., 2008, p. 631). It is the degree of consistency with which it measures whatever it is measuring (Ary, 2010, p. 236). Similarly, Sekaran (2002, p. 367) states that reliability is the extent of consistency and stability of the measuring instrument. In this case, to score composition as fairly and consistently as possible, the researcher uses inter-rater method (test of reliability). Inter-rater reliability is the consistency of the judgment of several raters on how they see a phenomenon or interpret the responses of the subjects.

In this case, two raters are employed to score the bright and poor students' writing. The two raters are the researcher and the English teachers who have a lot of experience in teaching English at English Department of Palangka Raya State Islamic institute. One important thing in using the inter rater method in rating process is focused with the training of the raters (Weigle, 2002, p. 36). It can maximize the accuracy of the writing assessment. This makes the raters be

consistent in scoring and avoid subjectivity of the raters in scoring. For this purpose, the training is done to get inter rater agreement in order to give reliable scores to students' writing product. Relevant to this, Nunan (2002, p 56) states that the acceptance reliability on composition scores are possible to get through careful training of raters. Moreover, Latief (2001, p. 214) argues that reliability on composition scoring is affected by both raters and writers of the essay. Raters' reliability refers to the accuracy of the raters' judgment. Meanwhile, writers' reliability refers to the accuracy of the writers' performance. In this study to make test item has validity and reliability. The try out will be carried out in Writing Essay of the other class.

4. Rater Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency with which a test measured whatever it measured (Hopkins and Richard, 2000, p. 295). Similarly, Latief (2001, p. 214) states that reliability refers to the preciseness of the language skill assessment results in representing the actual level of the examinee's skills. In this study, reliability of the writing test mainly focuses on the rater reliability since the scores are obtained from the judgment of two different raters. Here, the consistency in rating scores is very important in measuring the students' writing skill. The consistency can be achieved through rater training.

In rater reliability, there are inter-rater and intra-rater reliability. Inter-rater reliability indicates accuracy in scoring compositions of different raters. Meanwhile, intra-rater reliability refers to the consistency of the rater in scoring the same paper at two different points of time. It points out an individual accuracy in scoring a particular composition.

To obtain inter rater reliability; the scores of the two raters are correlated using SPSS 16 program using Product Moment Correlation calculation. In this case, the researcher applied the coefficient correlation and the interpretation of inter-rater reliability proposed by Winkle et al. (2009, p. 35) as shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Inter-rater Coefficient Correlation and Interpretation

Correlation Coefficient	Interpretation
.90 to 1.00 or90 to -1.00	Very high positive or negative correlation
.70 to .89 or70 to89	High positive or negative correlation
.50 to .69 or50 to69	Moderate positive or negative correlation
.30 to .49 or30 to49	Low positive or negative correlation
.00 to .29 or00 to29	Little if any correlation

D. Data Collection Procedure

The entire study is spread over one semester in writing essay class. Each meeting is done a week for 16 meetings. At the early beginning, all participants are given pretest to observe the existing ability in writing essay. During the class, the treatment group 1 is given treatment using Direct Feedback (DF). Direct feedback is a feedback given to the learners using the correct form done by the language instructors. It includes the giving of cross out to the incorrect words, phrases, or morphemes, the giving of insertion of a missing words, phrases, or morphemes, or providing correct forms directly (Ellis, 2008; Ferris, 2006). In direct feedback, the language instructors gave the correct forms of the learners' errors. Here, the teacher provides the feedback by (1) identifying the errors by crossing the errors of a linguistic error (for example observing pronoun agreement for the first writing product, examining verb agreement for the second writing product, and examining singular plural forms for the third writing product) and (2) giving the apropriate forms. Then, the treatment group 2 is given treatment using Indirect Feedback (IF). indirect feedback is a feedback indicating that there was a linguistic; however, the teacher did not provide the correct form directly (Ferris, 2003). In this type, language instructors only show the errors but they do not give learners with the correct form (Lee, 2008). On the contrary, the control group is not given any treatments. The teacher assigns the participants to write an essay. Then, the teacher hands the participants' writing to be assessed without providing feedback or No Feedback (NF). At the last session, all participants are given writing posttest. They should write an essay about 450-500 words. The students' composition are scored using the scoring method as developed by Wiegle (2002, p. 116) and scoring standard of IAIN Palangka Raya (2011, p. 15). It is done to produce the right criteria to score the idea development aspects of students' essay writing.

This experiment study attempts to answer the seven research questions. The null hypotheses are: (a) there are no differences in the population mean of writing score due to the types of corrective feedback factor (direct and indirect feedback); (b) there are no differences in the population mean of writing score due to the gender factor; (c) there are no differences in the population mean of writing score due to the learners' cultural background factor; (d) there are no interaction effects between the gender and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score; (e) there are no interaction effects between the learners' cultural background and

types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score; (f) there are no interaction effects between the gender and learners' cultural background factors in the population mean of writing score; and (g) there are no interaction effects among gender, learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score. To response the seven research questions; a three-way ANOVA test will be applied. It is used to measure the interaction effect between three independent variables toward a dependent variable. Here, there are three categorical independent variables being investigated, namely: gender (male- female), learners' cultural background (Dayaknese, Banjarese, and Javanese), and types of feedback (Direct Feedback (DF), Indirect Feedback (IF) and No feedback (NF); and one dependent variable: learners' writing score. The scores of the three groups are analyzed with a three-way ANOVA and the outcomes are compared to see the interaction effect of direct and indirect feedback on the students' writing accuracy with involving gender factors (male and female), learners' cultural background (Dayaknese, Banjarese, and Javanese). All statistical procedures were calculated using SPSS software.

In addition, the steps in collecting, analyzing, and hypothesis testing can be described below. In the first step, the subjects were divided into three categorical variables based on gender (male- female), learners' cultural background (Dayaknese, Banjarese, and Javanese), and types of feedback (Direct Feedback (DF), Indirect Feedback (IF) and No feedback (NF). Then, they are assigned to write essay before and after the implementation of Direct Feedback (DF), Indirect Feedback (IF) of corrective feedback. Then, the normality of the data are tested using Shapiro-Wilk Test; and the homogenity of variance are tested using levene statistics.

In short, the procedure to collect the data is as follows:

- 1. Conducting preliminary study. Here the researcher observes the class that is being researched. The observation covers the syllabus of essay writing, the class schedule, materials, and the learning process.
- Determining the subject of research. Here, the subjects are divided into three categorical variables based on gender (male- female), learners' cultural background (Dayaknese, Banjarese, and Javanese), and types of feedback (Direct Feedback (DF), Indirect Feedback (IF) and No feedback.

- 3. Giving a try out test in order to see the validity and reliability of the test. The test assigns the students to write an essay. The validity covers face and content validity. The reliability of the test is done using product moment correlation calculation.
- 4. Giving treatment. Here, the researcher gives treatment Direct Feedback (DF), Indirect Feedback (IF) to the class. First, he socializes the use of Direct Feedback (DF), and Indirect Feedback (IF) corrective feedback. Then, he demonstrates to use Direct Feedback (DF), and Indirect Feedback (IF) corrective feedback in writing process.
- 5. Giving writing test. After doing the treatment, the researcher gives posttest in order to measure the interaction effects among gender, learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score.

The method of data collection used in the present study and how the research problems would be answered are summarized in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 The Source of data, instruments, and data needed

Source of data	Instruments	Data needed
Students of piloted study	try out test	To give try out test in order to find the validity and rater reliability of the test
Students of experiment and control groups	pretest	To know the learners' early writing peformance
Students of experiment and control groups	Post test	To know the learners' writing performance after given the treatment.

As already known, this study has seven research questions. To answer the research questions, the data are collected from the writing test. Before starting the corrective feedback class, the learners are classified into gender (male- female), learners' cultural background (Dayaknese, Banjarese, and Javanese), and types of feedback (Direct Feedback (DF), Indirect Feedback (IF) and No feedback. In the first step, the writing lecturer gives pretest in order to know the early ability of their writing performance. Then, the researcher gives treatment to the experiment group. After the treatment, the participants are given posttest, as described in Figure 3.1.

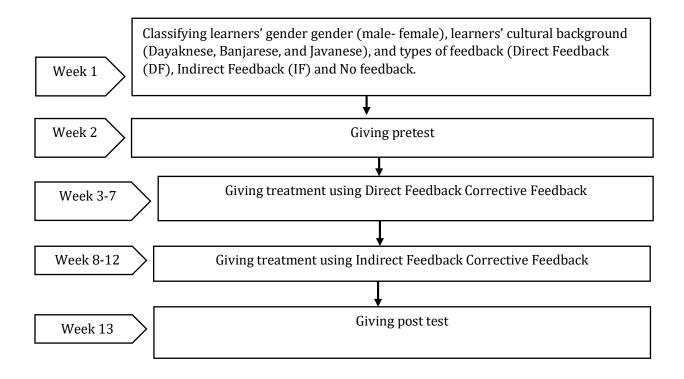


Figure 3.1. Design Data Collection Procedure

E. Data Analysis Procedure

The null hypotheses are: (a) there are no differences in the population mean of writing score due to the types of corrective feedback factor (direct and indirect feedback); (b) there are no differences in the population mean of writing score due to the gender factor; (c) there are no differences in the population mean of writing score due to the learners' cultural background factor; (d) there are no interaction effects between the gender and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score; (e) there are no interaction effects between the learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score; (f) there are no interaction effects between the gender and learners' cultural background factors in the population mean of writing score; and (g) there are no interaction effects among gender, learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score. To response the seven research questions; a three-way ANOVA test will be applied. It is used to measure the interaction effect between three independent variables toward a dependent

variable. Here, there are three categorical independent variables being investigated, namely: gender (male- female), learners' cultural background (Dayaknese, Banjarese, and Javanese), and types of feedback (Direct Feedback (DF), Indirect Feedback (IF) and No feedback (NF); and one dependent variable: learners' writing score. The scores of the three groups are analyzed with a three-way ANOVA and the outcomes are compared to see the interaction effect of direct and indirect feedback on the students' writing accuracy with involving gender factors (male and female), learners' cultural background (Dayaknese, Banjarese, and Javanese). All statistical procedures were calculated using SPSS software.

The data of the study are the students' writing scores. In this case, the data are in form of quantitative data. The data are analyzed by means of inferential statistics. This statistical analysis is suitable to use to answer the research questions, since the measurement scale is interval. In this case, the researcher applies a three Way ANOVA to examine the interaction effect between three independent variables toward a dependent variable. Here, there are three categorical independent variables being investigated, namely: gender (male- female), learners' cultural background (Dayaknese, Banjarese, and Javanese), and types of feedback (Direct Feedback (DF), Indirect Feedback (IF) and No feedback (NF); and one dependent variable: learners' writing score. A three way ANOVA is an inferential statistical test used for experimental designs with more than one independent variable or more than two levels of dependent variable (Ary, 2010, p. 636). In order to analyze the data, the researcher follows some procedures:

- 1. Collecting the learners' writing score (students' worksheet, portfolios, and revising checklists)
- 2. Tabulating the data into the distribution of frequency of the score table, then find out the mean of students' score, standard deviation, and standard error of variable by SPSS programs.
- 3. Measuring normality of score in order to know the normality of the data that is needed to test the hypothesis. Here, the Kolmogorov Smirnov test is applied to find the normality, since the subject is greater than 50.
- 4. Measuring homogeneity. It is used to know relatively same variant or not of the data. Here, the levene's test is applied to see the homogeneity.
- 5. Applying a three Way ANOVA statistical calculation using SPSS program in order to see whether there is an interaction effect between three independent variables toward a dependent variable.

6. Interpreting the result. The result of the three Way ANOVA test will be interpreted. If the F observed is higher than F table, the alternative hypothesis (Ha) stating that there is an interaction effect between three independent variables (gender, cultural background, types of feedback) ttoward a dependent variable (learners; writing score) is accepted, and the null hypothesis (Ho) stating that there is no interaction effect between three independent variables (gender, cultural background, types of feedback) ttoward a dependent variable (learners; writing score) is rejected. Meanwhile, if the F observed is smaller than F table, the alternative hypothesis (Ha) is rejected, and the null hypothesis (Ho) is accepted. Interpreting the result of statistical calculation by comparing the F observed with F table with the criteria:

If F _{observed} \geq F_{table}, Ha is accepted and Ho is rejected If F _{observed} \leq F_{table}, Ha is rejected and Ho is accepted

7. Making discussion and conclusion. The discussion will be made to clarify the research finding. Here, the researcher will quote some experts' theory to support the research findings, as described in Figure 3.1

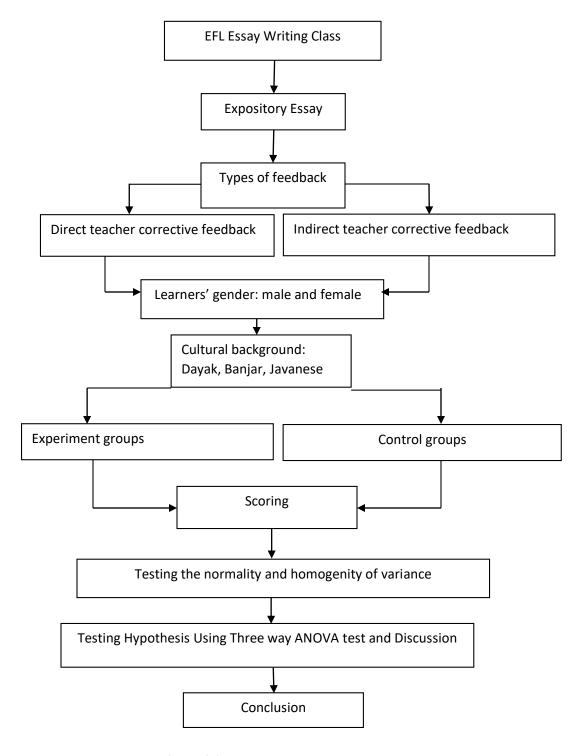


Figure 3.2 Step in Analyzing Data, and Testing Hypothesis

F. Summary

This experiment study attempts to answer seven research questions: (a) measuring the effect of direct and indirect corrective feedback factor on the learners' writing accuracy; (b)

measuring the effect of gender factor on the learners' writing accuracy; (c)measuring the effect of learners' cultural background factor on the learners' writing accuracy; (d) measuring the interaction effects between the gender and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing accuracy; (e) measuring the interaction effects between the learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing accuracy; (f) measuring the interaction effects between the gender and learners' cultural background factors in the population mean of writing accuracy; and (g) measuring the interaction effects among gender, learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing accuracy. To answer the research questions, the participants are divided based on gender (male-female), learners' cultural background (Dayaknese, Banjarese, and Javanese), experiment groups (direct and indirect teacher corrective feedback) and control group (no feedback). Then, they are given pretest to see the early ability on their writing performance. The experiment groups are given treatment using direct and indirect teacher corrective feedback. Meanwhile, the control group is not given treatment. After given treatment, the participants are given post test. The students' writing products are scored using the analytic scoring method covering four components: content, organization, vocabulary, language, and mechanics. Then, the normality of the data are tested Kolomogorv Smirnov Test; and the homogenity of variance are tested using levene statistics. Those tests are required as the assumption of ANOVA tests. The data of the study are analyzed using a three way ANOVA test provided by SPSS 16 program. Finally, the interpretation of the result from ANOVA test is done in order to see (1) whether there is a significant difference or not between direct and indirect corrective feedback on the learners' writing accuracy; (2) whether there is a significant difference or not between male and female on the learners' writing accuracy; (3) whether there is a significant difference or not among Dayak, Banjar and Javanese learners on the learners' writing accuracy; (4) whether there is any interaction effect or not between the gender and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing accuracy; (5) whether there is any interaction effect or not between the learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing accuracy; (6) whether there is any interaction effect or not between the gender and learners' cultural background factors in the population mean of writing accuracy; (7) whether there is any interaction effect or not among gender, learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing accuracy.

CHAPTER IV DATA PRESENTATION AND RESEARCH FINDINGS

This chapter presents the data presentation and research findings of the study. The findings are designed to answer the seven research questions. This section covers: research questions, results of learners' writing performance from experiment and control groups; Testing Assumption for ANOVA test; testing statistical hypothesis, interpretation of the results and discussion.

A. Research Questions

The problems of the study are: (1) Does the learners' writing accuracy differ significantly caused by types of corrective feedback factor (direct and indirect corrective feedback)? (2) Does the learners' writing accuracy differ significantly caused by gender factor (male and female)? (3) Does the learners' writing accuracy differ significantly caused by cultural background factor (Dayak, Banjar and Javanese)? (4) Are there any significant interactions effects between the gender and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score? (5) Are there any significant interactions effects between the learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score? (6) Are there any significant interactions effects between the gender and cultural background factors in the population mean of writing score? (7) Are there any significant interactions effects among gender, learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score?

To answer the research questions, the researcher gave pretest to both groups. The pretest was done in order to know the students' early ability in writing essay. The number of the participants was 111. They were assigned to write an expository essay about 450- 500 words. Based on the result of pretest, it was shown that the means score—was almost the same. Then, the experiment groups were given treatment using direct and indirect corrective feedback in L2 writing class. Meanwhile, the control group was not given treatment. They were taught to write an essay without given teacher corrective feedback. Then, the post test was given to both groups.

B. Scores of Learners' Writing Performance.

This section dealt with findings of the learners' score of essay writing performance. The number of the participants was 111. They were assigned to write an expository essay about 450-500 words. The score was shown in Table 4.1.

 Table 4. 1. The Scores of Learners' Writing Performance

Types of Feedback			ers' cultur		ig Periorma round			Total
• •		Dayak		Banjar		Javanes	se	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Direct Teacher Corrective		5	7	4	6	7	9	38
Feedback								
	1	65	80	62	72	61	78	
	2	73	75	71	85	68	75	
	3	80	82	70	80	70	85	
	4	74	64	66	71	75	81	
	5	68	73		63	73	72	
	6		80		82	72	74	
	7		86			72	71	
	8						83	
	9						79	
	10							
Total								
Average score								
Indirect Teacher Corrective		5	5	6	7	6	8	37
Feedback								
	1	60	74	60	75	62	82	
	2	70	82	62	81	64	78	
	3	63	76	72	78	72	81	
	4	71	82	80	71	71	79	
	5	64	70	61	65	72	70	
	6			72	80	70	71	
	7				77		73	
	8						70	
	9							
	10							
Total								
Average score								
N. F. W. J. C. T.						_	_	0.5
No Feedback (NF)		4	6	6	8	5	7	36
	1					F -		
	1	50	53	51	60	56	62	1
	2	53	60	54	52	40	57	
	3	60	55	62	45	51	52	
	4	55	63	50	52	63	58	
	5		50	55	61	50	63	1
	6		57	63	62		65	1
	7				53		50	

	8			50			
	9						
	10						
Total							
Average score							
Total		32	,	37	4	-2	111

C. Testing Assumption for ANOVA test

Before testing the statistical hypothesis, the assumption test for a three way ANOVA was done. There were two assumptions to be tested: normality and homogeneity of variance.

1. Testing the normality

To test the normality of data, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was applied, since the participants were 111 students. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to test whether the data were in normally distributed or not. If the significant value for Kolmogorov-Smirnov was greater than 0.050, the data were normally distributed. On the contrary, if the the significant value for Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was greater than 0.050, the data were not normally distributed. The output of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was explained in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Standardized Residual for learnerswritingperformance	.084	111	.051	.983	111	.183

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Based on the out put of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, it was found that the significant value (p-value) was 0.051. They were higher than 0.050. Since the sig was 0.051> 0.05 it was said the data were normally distributed. This study applied Kolmogorov-Smirnov for testing the normality since each subject was higher than 50.

2. Testing the homogeneity of variance

The next step was to test homogeneity of variance by applying Levene's test. It tested whether the variances in scores was the same for each of the four groups. If the the significant value for Levene's test was greater than 0.050, the assumption of homogeneity of variance not was violated. On the contrary, if the the significant value for Levene's test was smaller than 0.050, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated. The output of homogeneity of variance of Levene's test was as in Table 4.3:

Table 4.3 Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances^a

Dependent Variable:Learners' Writing Performance

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.887	17	93	.591

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Gender + culturalbackground + typesofcorrectivefeedback + Gender * culturalbackground + Gender * typesofcorrectivefeedback + culturalbackground * typesofcorrectivefeedback + Gender * culturalbackground * typesofcorrectivefeedback

Based on output of homogeneity of variance of Levene's test, it was found that the Sig was 0.591. Since the significant value was greater than 0.050, it indicated that the data were homogenous. It meant that the assumption of homogeneity of variance not was violated. Since, the data were in the normal distribution and homogenous, the statistical hypothesis could be continued to test using a three way ANOVA.

D. Testing Statistical Hypothesis

To test the statistical hypothesis, there were some steps to be done. First, both data were inserted in the SPSS program on a three way ANOVA test, were three categorical variables investigated in the study, namely gender (male- female), learners' cultural background (Dayaknese, Banjarese, and Javanese), and types of feedback (Direct Feedback (DF), Indirect Feedback (IF) and No feedback, being compared. Then, the significant level of F empiric was determined. The result of calculation or F value could be seen from the output. Next, to determine the F empiric, the F value was compared with the critical value or F table at 1% and 5% significant level. If the F value was smaller than F table, the null hypothesis (ho) stating that

there were no significant interactions effects among gender, learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score, could not be rejected and the alternative hypothesis (ha) stating that there are any significant interactions effects among gender, learners' cultural background and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score, was rejected. On the contrary, if the F value was higher than F table, the null hypothesis (ho) was rejected and the alternative hypothesis (ha) was accepted.

1. The out put of descriptive test.

The output of descriptive test was seen in Table 4.4

Table 4.4. Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable:Learners' Writing Performance

Gender	cultural background	Types of Corrective Feedback	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
male	Dayaknese	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	72.0000	5.78792	5
		Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	65.6000	4.72229	5
		no feedback	54.5000	4.20317	4
		Total	64.7143	8.60616	14
	Banjarese	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	67.2500	4.11299	4
		Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	67.8333	8.06019	6
		no feedback	55.8333	5.49242	6
		Total	63.1875	8.35239	16
	Javanese	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	70.1429	4.59814	7
		Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	68.5000	4.37035	6
		no feedback	52.0000	8.45577	5
	Total Total Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	64.5556	9.72699	18	
		70.0000	4.91257	16	
		Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	67.4118	5.77775	17
		no feedback	54.2000	6.15514	15
		Total	64.1458	8.80036	48
female	Dayaknese	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	77.1429	7.22100	7
		Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	76.8000	5.21536	5
		no feedback	56.3333	4.71876	6
		Total	70.1111	11.48344	18
	Banjarese	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	75.5000	8.26438	6
		Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	75.2857	5.61885	7
		no feedback	54.3750	6.02228	8
		Total	67.3810	12.18801	21
	Javanese	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	77.5556	4.90181	9
		Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	75.5000	5.04268	8
		no feedback	58.1429	5.63999	7

	•	Total	71.2083	9.92572	24
	Total	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	76.8636	6.40904	22
		Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	75.7500	5.04584	20
		no feedback	56.1905	5.51923	21
		Total	69.6190	11.10714	63
Total	Dayaknese	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	75.0000	6.90191	12
		Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	71.2000	7.53953	10
		no feedback	55.6000	4.37671	10
		Total	67.7500	10.52493	32
	Banjarese	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	72.2000	7.85706	10
		Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	71.8462	7.60314	13
		no feedback	55.0000	5.62959	14
		Total	65.5676	10.77172	37
	Javanese	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	74.3125	5.97460	16
		Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	72.5000	5.82765	14
		no feedback	55.5833	7.30452	12
		Total	68.3571	10.27624	42
	Total	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	73.9737	6.70009	38
		Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	71.9189	6.78388	37
		no feedback	55.3611	5.79237	36
		Total	67.2523	10.49023	111

From the table above, it was found the average writing scores of each group based on gender, learners' cultural background and the types of corrective feedback as follows. The mean score of male Dayaknese learners using Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback (DTCF) was 72.00; female 77.14; male Banjarese learners was 67.25; female 75.50; male Javanese learners was 70.14; female 77.55. Then, The mean score of male Dayaknese learners using Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback (ITCF) was 65.60; female 76.80; male Banjarese learners was 67.83; female 75.28; male Javanese learners was 68.50; female 75.50. On the contrary, the mean score of male Dayaknese learners without using feedback/ NF was 54.50; female 56.33; male Banjarese learners was 55.83; female 54.37; male Javanese learners was 52.00; female 58.14.

2. The out put from ANOVA test

The ANOVA table gave both between groups and whithin groups, sums of squares, degrees of freedom, and the significant value. If the significant value for ANOVA test was less than or equal to 0.050, there was a significant difference somewhere among the mean scores on the dependant variables for the groups. On the contrary, if the the significant value for ANOVA test

was greater than 0.050, there were no significant difference somewhere among the mean scores on the dependant variables for the groups. The Anova Table was explained in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 The Anova Table of the Students' Writing Score.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:Learners' Writing Performance

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	8915.090 ^a	17	524.417	15.289	.000
Intercept	469917.605	1	469917.605	1.370E4	.000
Gender	915.379	1	915.379	26.688	.000
Cultural background	23.778	2	11.889	.347	.708
Types of corrective feedback	6918.660	2	3459.330	100.857	.000
Gender * cultural background	21.090	2	10.545	.307	.736
Gender * types of corrective feedback	191.586	2	95.793	2.793	.066
Cultural background * types of corrective feedback	43.137	4	10.784	.314	.868
Gender * cultural background * types of corrective feedback	110.771	4	27.693	.807	.524
Error	3189.847	93	34.299		
Total	514143.000	111			
Corrected Total	12104.937	110			

a. R Squared = ,736 (Adjusted R Squared = ,688)

The output above explained that the corrected model was 0.000 < 0.050, it meant that the model was valid. The corrected model explained the influence of gender, cultural background and types of feedback toward learners' writing performance. The output indicated that It meant that the corrected model was 0.000 < 0.050, it meant that the model was valid. The value of intercept was the learners' writing performance, which contributed the performance itself without being influenced by independent variables. The significance value (Sig.) of intercept was 0.000 or less than 0.05. The intercept was significant.

a. There are no differences in the population mean of writing score due to the types of corrective feedback factor (direct and indirect corrective feedback).

To response the RQ1: "Does the learners' writing accuracy differ significantly caused by types of corrective feedback factor?", the three-way ANOVA table explained the answer. From the output on Table 4.5, it was seen that the F value of types of teacher corrective feedback was

100.857 and the significance value was 0.000. Since, the significance value was smaller than 0.05, it was said that null hypothesis expressing that there were no differences in the population mean of writing score due to the types of corrective feedback factor was not accepted, and the alternative hypothesis expressing that there were significant differences in the population mean of writing score due to the types of corrective feedback factor could not be rejected. Therefore, it was said that there were significant differences on the learners' writing accuracy caused by types of corrective feedback factor. The mean score of learners' writing accuracy using Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback (DTCF) was 73.27 and using Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback (ITDF) was 71.59 (see Table 4.6 for further detail). Meanwhile, the mean score of learners' writing accuracy without using feedback (NF) was 55.19. It was said that the learners' writing accuracy using types of feedback outperformed better than those who did not use feedback in control groups. However, students who received direct feedback performed the similar ability as those who received indirect feedback, as described in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Types of Corrective Feedback

Dependent Variable:Learners' Writing Performance

			95% Confidence Interval		
Types of Corrective Feedback	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	73.265	.983	71.314	75.217	
Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	71.587	.977	69.647	73.526	
no feedback	55.197	1.001	53.210	57.185	

b. There are no differences in the population mean of writing score due to the gender factor

To response the RQ2: "Does the learners' writing accuracy differ significantly caused by gender factor?" it was seen on the three-way ANOVA table. From the output on Table 4.5, it was found that the F value of gender was 26.688 and the significance value was 0.000. Since, the significance value was smaller than 0.05, it was said that null hypothesis expressing that there were no differences in the population mean of writing score due to the gender factor was not accepted, and the alternative hypothesis could not be rejected. Therefore, it was said that gender gave facilitative effect significantly on the learners' writing performance. The mean score of learners' writing accuracy for male was 63.74 and female was 69.63 (see Table 4.7 for further

detail). It was said that, in terms of gender, the learners' writing accuracy differed significantly different between male and female. In this case, female performed better than male on the writing accuracy.

Table 4.7 GenderDependent Variable:Learners' Writing Performance

			95% Confidence Interval		
Gender	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
male	63.740	.859	62.034	65.446	
female	69.626	.748	68.140	71.112	

c. There are no differences in the population mean of writing score due to the cultural background factor.

To response the RQ3: "Does the learners' writing accuracy differ significantly caused by cultural background factor?" it was seen on the three way ANOVA table. From the output on Table 4.5, it was found that the F value of cultural background was 0.347 and the significance value was 0.708. Since, the significance value was higher than 0.05, it was said that null hypothesis expressing that there were no differences in the population mean of writing score due to the cultural background factor was not rejected, and the alternative hypothesis could not be accepted. Therefore, it was said that learners' cultural background did not give facilitative effect significantly on the learners' writing accuracy. The mean score of learners' writing accuracy for Dayaknese was 67.06; Banjarese 66.01; and Javanese 66.97 (see Table 4.8 for further detail). It was said that, in terms of cultural background, the learners' writing accuracy did not differ significantly among Dayaknese, Banjarese and Javanese.

Table 4.8 cultural background

Dependent Variable:Learners' Writing Performance

		-	95% Confidence Interval		
cultural background	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
Dayaknese	67.063	1.051	64.975	69.150	
Banjarese	66.013	.985	64.057	67.968	
Javanese	66.974	.920	65.146	68.801	

d. There is no interaction effects between the gender and the direct and indirect teacher corrective feedback factors in the population mean of writing score.

To response the RQ4: "Are there any significant interaction effects between the gender and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score?", it was seen on the three-way ANOVA table. From the output on Table 4.5, it was found that the F value of gender and types of feedback was 2.793 and the significance value was 0.066. Since, the sig. value was higher than 0.05, it was said that null hypothesis expressing that there were no differences in the population mean of writing score due to gender and the types of corrective feedback factors was not rejected, and the alternative hypothesis was not accepted. Therefore, it was said that there were no differences significantly on the learners' writing accuracy caused by gender and the types of corrective feedback factors. The further detail explanation, as described in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9. Gender * Types of Corrective FeedbackDependent Variable:Learners' Writing Performance

	-			95% Interval	Confidence
Gender	Types of Corrective Feedback	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
male	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	69.798	1.503	66.813	72.783
	Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	67.311	1.426	64.480	70.142
	no feedback	54.111	1.533	51.067	57.155
female	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	76.733	1.266	74.219	79.247
	Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	75.862	1.335	73.210	78.514
	no feedback	56.284	1.287	53.728	58.839

e. There is no interaction effects between the gender and the learners' cultural background factors in the population mean of writing score.

To response the RQ5: "Are there any significant interaction effects between the gender and types of feedback factors in the population mean of writing score?", it was seen on the three-way ANOVA table. From the output on Table 4.5, it was found that the F value of gender and the learners' cultural background was 0.307 and the significance value was 0.736. Since, the sig. value was smaller than 0.05, it was said that null hypothesis expressing that there were no differences in the population mean of writing score due to gender and the learners' cultural

background factors was not rejected, and the alternative hypothesis was not accepted. Therefore, it was said that there were no differences significantly on the learners' writing accuracy caused by gender and the learners' cultural background factors. The further detail explanation, as described in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10. Gender * cultural background

Dependent Variable:Learners' Writing Performance

	-			95% Confidence Interval		
Gender	cultural background	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
male	Dayaknese	64.033	1.574	60.908	67.159	
	Banjarese	63.639	1.491	60.678	66.600	
	Javanese	63.548	1.393	60.780	66.315	
female	Dayaknese	70.092	1.393	67.325	72.859	
	Banjarese	68.387	1.287	65.831	70.942	
	Javanese	70.399	1.202	68.013	72.786	

f. There is no interaction effects between learners' cultural background and types of corrective feedback factors in the population mean of writing score.

To response the RQ6: "Are there any significant interaction effects between learners' cultural background and the direct and indirect corrective feedback factors in the population mean of writing score?", it was seen on the three-way ANOVA table. From the output on Table 4.5, it was found that the F value of cultural background and types of feedback was 0.314 and the significance value was 0.868. Since, the sig. value was higher than 0.05, it was said that null hypothesis expressing that there were no differences in the population mean of writing score due to cultural background and types of corrective feedback factors was not rejected, and the alternative hypothesis was not accepted. Therefore, it was said that there were no differences significantly on the learners' writing accuracy caused by cultural background and types of corrective feedback factors. The further detail explanation, as described in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11. cultural background * Types of Corrective Feedback

Dependent Variable:Learners' Writing Performance

cultural	Types of Corrective Feedback	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval

background	-			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Dayaknese	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	74.571	1.715	71.167	77.976
	Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	71.200	1.852	67.522	74.878
	no feedback	55.417	1.890	51.663	59.170
Banjarese	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	71.375	1.890	67.621	75.129
	Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	71.560	1.629	68.324	74.795
	no feedback	55.104	1.581	51.964	58.245
Javanese	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	73.849	1.476	70.919	76.780
	Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	72.000	1.581	68.860	75.140
	no feedback	55.071	1.715	51.667	58.476

g. There are no interaction effects among gender, learners' cultural background and types of corrective feedback factors in the population mean of writing score.

To response the RQ7: "Are there any significant interaction effects among the gender, learners' cultural background and types of corrective feedback factors in the population mean of writing score?", it was seen on the three-way ANOVA table. From the output on Table 4.5, the F value of the gender, learners' cultural background and types of corrective feedback was 0.807 and the Sig was 0.524. Since, the sig. value was higher than 0.05, it was said that null hypothesis expressing that there were no differences in the population mean of writing score due to gender, cultural background and the types of corrective feedback factors was not rejected, and the alternative hypothesis was not accepted. Therefore, it was said that there were no differences significantly on the learners' writing accuracy caused by gender, cultural background the types of corrective feedback factors. The further detail explanation, as described in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12 Gender * cultural background * Types of Corrective Feedback

Dependent Variable:Learners' Writing Performance

	_				95% Interval	Confidence
Gender	cultural background	Types of Corrective Feedback	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
male	Dayaknese	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	72.000	2.619	66.799	77.201
		Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	65.600	2.619	60.399	70.801
		no feedback	54.500	2.928	48.685	60.315
	Banjarese	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	67.250	2.928	61.435	73.065
		Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	67.833	2.391	63.085	72.581
		no feedback	55.833	2.391	51.085	60.581
	Javanese	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	70.143	2.214	65.747	74.539
		Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	68.500	2.391	63.752	73.248
		no feedback	52.000	2.619	46.799	57.201
female	Dayaknese	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	77.143	2.214	72.747	81.539
		Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	76.800	2.619	71.599	82.001
		no feedback	56.333	2.391	51.585	61.081
	Banjarese	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	75.500	2.391	70.752	80.248
		Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	75.286	2.214	70.890	79.681
		no feedback	54.375	2.071	50.263	58.487
	Javanese	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	77.556	1.952	73.679	81.432
		Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	75.500	2.071	71.388	79.612
		no feedback	58.143	2.214	53.747	62.539

To sum up, to see the effect of three independent variables toward a dependent variable was in the following output. The significance value (Sig.) of gender was 0.000 or smaller than 0.05. It meant that gender gave facilitative effect significantly to the learners' writing accuracy. The significance value (Sig.) of Cultural background was 0.708 or greater than 0.05. It meant that Cultural background did not give facilitative effect significantly to the learners' writing accuracy. It meant among Dayaknese, Banjareese, and Javanese learners had the similiar ability on their writing performance. Then, the significance value (Sig.) of types of corrective feedback was 0.000 or smaller than 0.05. It meant that types of corrective feedback gave facilitative effect significantly to the learners' writing accuracy. The significance value (Sig.) of Gender and cultural background was 0.736 or greater than 0.05. It meant that Gender and cultural background did not give facilitative effect significantly to the learners' writing accuracy. The significance value (Sig) of Gender and types of corrective feedback was 0.066 or greater than

0.05. It meant that Gender and types of corrective feedback did not give facilitative effect significantly to the learners' writing accuracy. Last, the significance value (Sig.) of Gender, cultural background and types of corrective feedback was 0.524 or greater than 0.05. It meant that Gender, cultural background and types of corrective feedback did not give facilitative effect significantly to the learners' writing accuracy. The next step to interpret the result of three-way ANOVA was to find Post Hoc test.

3. The out put from Multiple Comparisons

The Post- hoc test explained where the difference among the group occured. In the column labelled Mean Difference, there were asterisks (*) next to the values listed meaning that the two groups being compared were significantly different from one another at the significant value less than 0.050 level. The Multiple Comparisons Table was explained in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13 The Multiple Comparisons Table of the Students' Writing Score

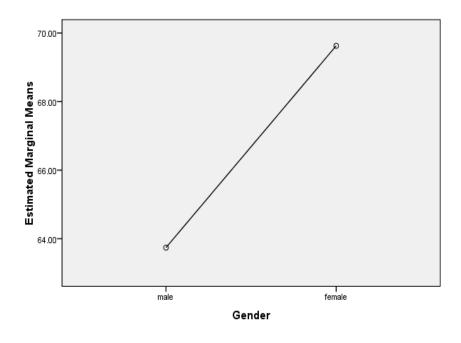
	(I) Types of Corrective Feedback	(J) Types of Corrective Feedback	Mean			95% Confidence Interval	
			Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	2.0548	1.35264	.287	-1.1670	5.2765
		no feedback	18.6126*	1.36212	.000	15.3683	21.8569
	Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	-2.0548	1.35264	.287	-5.2765	1.1670
		no feedback	16.5578*	1.37105	.000	13.2922	19.8234
	no feedback	Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback	-18.6126*	1.36212	.000	-21.8569	-15.3683
		Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback	-16.5578*	1.37105	.000	-19.8234	-13.2922

Based on the out put of Tukey Pos hoc test, it could be concluded that: (a) There was a significant difference between writing using Direct teacher corrective feedback and without using Direct teacher corrective feedback on the learners' writing performance. The mean difference was 18.6126 and the significant value was 0.000. It was smaller than 0.05. (b) There was a significant difference between writing using Indirect teacher corrective feedback and without using Indirect teacher corrective feedback on the learners' writing performance. The mean difference was 16.5578 and the significant value was 0.000. It was smaller than 0.05. (c) There was no significant difference between writing using Direct teacher corrective feedback and Indirect teacher corrective feedback on the learners' writing performance. The mean difference was 1.35264 and the significant value was 0.287. It was higher than 0.05.

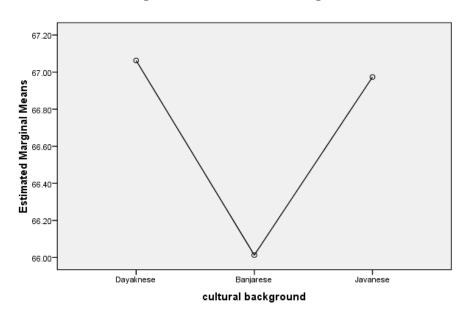
4. The out put from Mean Plots

The mean plot provided an easy way to compare the mean scores for the different group. The Mean Plots of the students' writing score was explained in Figure 4.1.

Estimated Marginal Means of Learners' Writing Performance



Estimated Marginal Means of Learners' Writing Performance



Estimated Marginal Means of Learners' Writing Performance

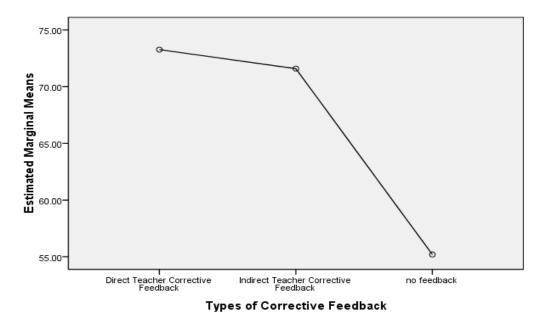


Figure 4.1.The Mean Plots of the Students' writing score based on Gender, cultural background and types of corrective feedback

Based on the output of Mean plots, it was seen that the mean score, based on gender, of the learners' writing performance: male 63.74 and female 69.63. The mean score, based on learners' cultural background, of the learners' writing performance: Dayaknese 67.06, Banjarese 66.03, and Javanese 66.94. The mean score, based on types of feedback given, of the learners' writing performance using Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback was 73.93 (group 1); the mean score of the learners' writing performance using Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback was 71.91 (group 2); the mean score of the learners' writing performance without using Direct/ Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback was 55.36 (group 3).

E. Conclusion

To sum up, a three way ANOVA test was conducted to explore the interaction effects among gender, learners' cultural background and types of corrective feedback factors in the population mean of writing score. Based on the out put, it was found that there was no statistically significant difference at the significant value (p- value) was higher than 0.05 level in writing scores for the groups of students (F=0.807, p= 0.524). Based on the output of Mean plots, it was seen that the mean score, based on gender, of the learners' writing performance: male 63.74 and female 69.63. The mean score, based on learners' cultural background, of the learners' writing performance: Dayaknese 67.06, Banjarese 66.03, and Javanese 66.94. The mean score, based on types of feedback given, of the learners' writing performance using Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback was 73.93 (group 1); the mean score of the learners' writing performance using Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback was 71.91 (group 2); the mean score of the learners' writing performance without using Direct/ Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback was 55.36 (group 3).

Moreover, based on the F value of the compare means in ANOVA Table, it was found that the F value was 0.807. Based on the outcomes, it was also found that the df (Degree of freedom) of the distribution observed was 111-3=108. Based on the Table of F value, if df was 108, the 1% of significant level of F value was at 3.930 and 5% of significant level of F value was at 2.095. It could be seen that the empiric F value at 0.807 was smaller than the F value theoretic. Therefore, F table $(1\%=3.930, 5\%\ 2.095) > F$ value (0.807) It meant that the F value empiric was smaller than F theoretic at the 1% and 5% significant levels.

F. Interpretation of the Results

Based on the results, it could be concluded that at the 1% and 5% significant level, there was a no statistically significant difference on students' writing performance based on gender, cultural background and types of feedback. This meant that Ha stating that there was an interaction effects among gender, learners' cultural background and types of corrective feedback factors in the population mean of writing score was rejected and Ho stating that there was no interaction effects among gender, learners' cultural background and types of corrective feedback factors in the population mean of writing score was accepted. It meant that gender, cultural background and types of feedback did not give significantly effect on the learner' writing accuracy.

G. Discussion

Based on the research findings, it could be stated that there was a statistically different effect for the types of feedback (F= 100.857, p= 0.000) and gender (F= 26.688; p=0.000) on the learners' writing accuracy. However, the learners' cultural background (F= 0.347; p=0.708) did not give effect on the learners' writing accuracy. On the contrary, the interaction between: gender and types of feedback (F=2.793, p= 0.066) gender and cultural background (F=0.183, p= 0.833); cultural background and types of feedback (F=0.314, p= 0.868); and among gender, cultural background and types of feedback (F=0.807, p= 0.524) did not give significant effect on the learners' writing accuracy.

This study was in accordance with Farjadnasab & Khodashenas, 2017; Amirani, Ghanbari, & Shamsoddini, 2013; Jamalinesari, Rahimi, Gowhary, & Azizifar, 2015; and Kassim & Ng, 2014). (Farjadnasab, Amir Hossein., & Khodashenas, Mohammad Reza, 2017). They revealed that direct feedback gives facilitative effect on students' writing accuracy. Then, (Amirani, Sara., Ghanbari, Batoul,. & Shamsoddini, Mohammad Rza, 2013) considered to be useful in methodological issues related to writing ability, grammar instruction and error correction techniques.

This finding was in line with Guénette, (2007). Ferris and Roberts (2001) revealed that there were no differences in the learners' writing performance between the two groups (direct and

Indirect Corrective Feedback). This finding was also consistent with Van Beuningan et al. (2012) and Bitchener and Knoch (2010) found a positive impact on both direct and indirect feedback. This finding was also consistent with (Karim, 2013). He confirmed that direct and indirect feedback could increase writing accuracy. The findings also indicated that feedback has the potential to improve grammar accuracy. In addition, Sheen & CF (2010) found that direct feedback gave influence than oral recast in helping learners improve their grammatical accuracy. There was no evidence showing that the oral recast group and the control group made any progress concerning the grammatical accuracy of English articles. This finding was also validated with some researchers (e.g. Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Sheen, 2007; Sheen, Wright, & Moldawa, 2009; and Evans, Hartshorn, and Strong-Krause, 2011). Dealing with gender factors, the result of this study was in line with Sadeghi, Khonbi and Gheitranzadeh (2013). They investigated the effect of gender and type of WCF on Iranian EFL learners' writing. Sadeghi et al. found gender gave significant on the learners' writing ability with females performing better than males. However, this finding was totally in contrast with Truscott's. Therefore, the finding of the study refuted (Truscott, 2004, 2007, 2009) arguments. To conclude, it was noted that gender and different types of corrective feedback had a vital thing in increasing learners' writing accuracy.

The findings strengthened the knowledge body by giving a recommendation on how different types of feedback could have different purposes. These findings also contributed many ongoing investigations for further researches. For example, what confounding variables involved in the study. In the next research, there was a need to add more variables affecting successful learning such as different gender, learners' learning styles, parents economic status, learners' cultural background, motivation, and preference. The issue of the influence of feedback in writing was so complicated as it involved many variables that could affect its results. The recent investigation was an effort to elaborate on an important issue of feedback. Based on the results, it was advisable for further researchers to conduct researches on feedback in order to aid writing teachers provide more effective feedback on learners' writing.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter presents conclusions and suggestions on the basis of the research findings and discussions. The conclusions deal with the results of the research findings. Meanwhile, the suggestions are addressed to other researchers and those who are interested in researching direct/indirect teacher corrective feedback to follow up the research findings of the study.

A. Conclusion

Based on the resaerach finding, it was concluded that:

- 1. There was a significant difference on the learners' writing accuracy caused by types of corrective feedback factor (F= 100.857, p= 0.000). The mean score of learners' writing accuracy using Direct Teacher Corrective Feedback (DTCF) was 73.27 and using Indirect Teacher Corrective Feedback (ITDF) was 71.59. Meanwhile, the mean score of learners' writing accuracy without using feedback (NF) was 55.19. It was said that the learners' writing accuracy using types of feedback outperformed better than those who did not use feedback in control groups. However, students who received direct feedback performed the similar ability as those who received indirect feedback.
- 2. There was a significant difference on the learners' writing accuracy caused by gender factor (F= 26.688; p=0.000). Gender gave facilitative effect significantly on the learners' writing performance. The mean score of learners' writing accuracy for male was 63.74 and female was 69.63 It was said that, in terms of gender, the learners' writing accuracy differed significantly different between male and female. In this case, female performed better than male on the writing accuracy.
- 3. There was no significant difference on the learners' writing accuracy caused by learners' cultural background factor (F= 0.347; p=0.708). Since, the significance value was higher than 0.05, it was said that learners' cultural background did not give facilitative effect significantly on the learners' writing accuracy. The mean score of learners' writing accuracy for Dayaknese was 67.06; Banjarese 66.01; and Javanese 66.97 (see Table 4.8 for further detail). It was said that, in terms of cultural background, the learners' writing accuracy did not differ significantly among Dayaknese, Banjarese and Javanese.

- 4. There was no significant difference on the learners' writing accuracy caused by gender and types of feedback factor (F= 2.793; p=0.066). Since, the sig. value was higher than 0.05, it was said that there were no differences significantly on the learners' writing accuracy caused by gender and the types of corrective feedback factors.
- 5. There was no significant difference on the learners' writing accuracy caused by gender and the learners' cultural background factor (F= 0.307; p=0.736). Since, the sig. value was higher than 0.05, it was said that there were no differences significantly on the learners' writing accuracy caused by gender and the learners' cultural background factors.
- 6. There was no significant difference on the learners' writing accuracy caused by cultural background and types of feedback factor (F= 0.314; p=0.868). Since, the sig. value was higher than 0.05, it was said that null hypothesis expressing that there were no differences in the population mean of writing score due to cultural background and types of corrective feedback factors was not rejected, and the alternative hypothesis was not accepted. Therefore, it was said that there were no differences significantly on the learners' writing accuracy caused by cultural background and types of corrective feedback factors.
- 7. There was no significant difference on the learners' writing accuracy caused by gender, cultural background and types of feedback factor (F= 0.807; p=0.524). Since, the sig. value was higher than 0.05, it was said that null hypothesis expressing that there were no differences in the population mean of writing score due to gender, cultural background and the types of corrective feedback factors was not rejected, and the alternative hypothesis was not accepted. Therefore, it was said that there were no differences significantly on the learners' writing accuracy caused by gender, cultural background the types of corrective feedback factors. Moreover, based on the F value of the compare means in ANOVA Table, it was found that the F value was 0.807. Based on the outcomes, it was also found that the df (Degree of freedom) of the distribution observed was 111-3= 108. Based on the Table of F value, if df was 108, the 1% of significant level of F value was at 3.930 and 5% of significant level of F value was at 2.095. It could be seen that the empiric F value at 0.807 was smaller than the F value theoretic. Therefore, F table (1%=3.930, 5% 2.095) > F value (0.807) It meant that the F value empiric was smaller than F theoretic at the 1% and 5% significant levels.

B. Suggestions

The suggestions were given to the students, the teachers and the future researchers.

1. For the students

First, it was recommended that the students follow the procedures of teacher's instruction in revising the composition based on teacher's comment and suggestion. Second, it was recommended that the students ask more explanation for the feedback given by the teacher when did not understand well the instraction. Finally, rewrite the composition immediately based on teacher's comment and suggestion.

2. For the teachers

First, it was suggested that the teachers consider the learners' level ability, gender, and cultural background when giving corrective feedback to the learners. Second, the teachers were recommended to use appropriate feedback in L2 writing multicultural class by considering the learners' level ability. Third, the teachers were recommended to examine the students' writing not only be seen as a product, but also more as a process. This meant that examining the students' process in writing strategy was the essential ones. Fourth, it was suggested that the teachers make a good preparation in the lesson plan, determine instructional goal, select up to date materials, prepare instructional media, design instructional procedures, and design the procedures of assessment before starting to teach writing, especially when they taught using corrective feedback to the learners. It was also recommended that the teachers correct the students' written work by underlining the grammatical errors, giving comments on the side of the paper, giving back the students' written work, and scoring the students' written work fairly, especially when they taught essay writing.

3. For Future Researchers

Since the study was a quasi experiment study, it was advisable that future researchers follow up the research findings using the wider scope and participants by adding vaious variables. In the next research, there was a need to add more variables affecting successful learning such as different gender, learners' learning styles, parents' economic status, learners' cultural background, motivation, and learners' preference of feedback.

References

- AbuSeileek, A., & Abualsha'r, A. (2014). Using peer computer-mediated corrective feedback to support EFL learners' writing. Language Learning & Technology, 18(1). Retrieved from http://llt.msu.edu/issues/february2014/abuseileekabualshar.pdf, 76–95. Andersson Bethany. (2007). Academic Essay: Academic Tip Sheet. Australia: Edith Cowan University. 2007.
- Anker Susan. (2010) Real Writing with Readings: Paragraphs and Essays for College, Work, and Everyday Life (Fifth Edition). Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's.
- Aisyah Hafshah Saffura. (2016). The Effectiveness of Graphic Organizer Toward The Students' Writing Ability at The Fourth Semester English Department Students of Palangka Raya State Islamic Institute 2015/2016 Academic Years. Unpublished Thesis. IAIN Palangka Raya.
- Ary, Donald, Lucy, C.J., Chris, S., and Asghar R. (2010). *Introduction to Research in Education*.(eighth edition).(United States: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- Ahmadi-Azad, S. (2014). The effect of coded and uncoded written corrective feedback types on Iranian EFL learners' writing accuracy. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4(5). https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.4.5, 1001-1008.
- Al-bakri, S. (2015). Written corrective feedback: Teachers' beliefs, practices and challenges in an Omani context. *Arab Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *1*(1), 44–73.
- Ali, A. M., & Mujiyanto, Y. (2017). The influence of cultural identities in second language acquisition: A perspective from secondary program (Semarang multinational school). *Retrieved from http://journal.unnes.ac.id/sju/index.php/eej*.
- Alimohammadi, B., & Nejadansari, D. (2014). Written corrective feedback: focused and unfocused. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4(3). https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.4.3, 581-587.
- Alnasser, Suliman Mohammed, & Alyousef, Hesham Suleiman. (2015). Investigating Saudi learners' preferences for giving and receiving macro and / or micro level peer feedback on their writing. *English Language Teaching Vol. 8, No. 6*, 57–68.
- Alqadrie, S. (1991). *Ethnic and Social Change in Dyaknese Society of West Kalimantan, Indonesia*. Departement of Sociology, University of Kentucky.
- Amara, Talal M. (2015). Learners' perceptions of teacher written feedback commentary in an ESL writing classroom. *International Journal of English Language Teaching The University of Zawia, Libya, 3*(2), 38–53.
- Amininik, S, Amami. S, Jalalpour. S, & Azodi. P. (2000). Survey of relation between lesson plan qualities with student views about Bushehr University of Medical Sciences faculty members. *The Journal of Medical School, fourth national conference on medical education Tehran Iran*, 84.
- Amirani, Sara., Ghanbari, Batoul,. & Shamsoddini, Mohammad Rza. (2013). The effect of written corrective feedback on Iranian EFL students' writing. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 83(2007). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.06.18, 1000–1005.

- Amirghassemi, A., Azabdaftari, B., & Saeidi, M. (2013). The effect of scaffolded vs. non-scaffolded written corrective feedback on EFL learners' written accuracy. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 22(2). https://doi.org/10.5829/idosi.wasj.2013.22.0, 256–263.
- Amrhein, H. R., & Nassaji, H. (2010). Written corrective feedback: What do students and teachers prefer and why? *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics.*, 13(2), 95–127.
- Anglesa, L., & Multiling, C. (2016). Written corrective feedback in secondary education: Learners' and teachers' preferences and perceptions. (*Master's Thesis*), (*June*).
- Aridah, A., Atmowardoyo, H., & Salija, K. (2017). Teacher practices and students' preferences for written corrective feedback and their implications on writing instruction. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 7(1), 112. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v7n1p112.
- Ary, Donald., Jacobs, Lucy Cheser., Sorensen, Christine K., & Walker, David a. (2014). *Introduction to Research in Education.*
- Badger, R & White, G. 2000. A Process Genre Approach to Teaching Writing. *ELT Journal*, 54 (2): 153-160.
- Bruner, J.S. (2006). Toward a theory of instruction. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Byrne, D. (2001). Teaching Writing Skills. London: Longman, Inc.
- Behrman, C.H. (2003). *Ready-to-use Writing Proficiency Lesson and Activities. First Edition.* San Francisco: John Wiley and sons.
- Brown, H.D. (2001). *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy.* Fourth Edition. White Plains, N Y: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.
- Bahrami, S. (2002). Feedback on students' writing: The comparison of three types of corrective feedback on writing in ESL. Tehran: Unpublished M.A. thesis, Allameh Tabatabaei University.
- Belshek, Jalal A L I. (n.d). The influence of culture on the negotiation styles of british students jalal ali belshek. 1-24.
- Bitchener, J. (2008). Evidence in support of written corrective feedback. . *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 17(2). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2007.11.004, 102-118.
- Bitchener, J., & Ferris, D. R. (2012). Research on written cf in language classes. *In Written Corrective Feedback in Second Language Acquisition and Writing*, 49–74.
- Bitchener, J., & Knoch, U. (2008). The value of written corrective feedback for migrant and international students. *Language Teaching Research*, 12(3). https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168808089924, 409–431.
- Bitchener, J., & Knoch, U. (2010). Raising the linguistic accuracy level of advanced L2 writers with written corrective feedback. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 19(4). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2010.10.002, 207–217.
- Bitchener, J., & Knoch, U. (2010). The contribution of written corrective feedback to language development: A ten month investigation. *Applied Linguistics*, 31(2) https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amp016, 193–214.
- Bitchener, J., Young, S., & Cameron, D. (2005). The effect of different types of corrective feedback on ESL student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 14(3). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2005.08.001, 191–205.
- Bitchener, John., Basturkmen, Helen., & East, Martin. (2010). The focus of supervisor written feedback to thesis/dissertation students. *International Journal of English Studies*, vol. 10 (2), 79-97.

- Black, D. A., & Nanni, A. (2016). Written corrective feedback: Preferences and justifications of teachers and students in a Thai context. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies*, 16(3), 99–114.
- Blomberg, Kelly L. (2015). Enhancing the effectiveness of focused corrective feedback on L2 English learners' written texts. *Malmö högskola Lärarutbildningen*, 1-35.
- Brown, J. (2007). Feedback: The student perspective. *Research in Post-Compulsory Education*, 12(1). https://doi.org/10.1080/13596740601155363, 33–51.
- Brown, J. D. (2010). Conference structure. Conference structure.
- Burden, P.R., & Byrd, D.M. (1999). *Methods for effective teaching*. Needham height: Allyn & Bacon.
- Cánovas Guirao, J., Roca de Larios, J., & Coyle, Y. (2015). The use of models as a written feedback technique with young EFL learners. *System*, *52*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2015.04.002, 63–77.
- Chandler, J. (2003). The efficacy of various kinds of error feedback for improvement in the accuracy and fluency of L2 student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12(3) https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(03)00038-9, 267–296.
- Calderonello, A.H. & Bruce L.E. (2006). *Roughdrafts: The Process of Writing*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Clouse, B.F. (2006). The Student Writer: Editor and Critic. Boston: Mc Graw-Hill, Inc.
- Christenson, T.A. (2002). Supporting Struggling Writers in the Elementary Classroom. New York: The International Reading Association, Inc.
- Chung, B. (2015). Written corrective feedback: The perception of Korean EFL learners. *Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 19(2). http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=EJ1092436&site=ehos, 75–88.
- Coomber, M. (2016). Promoting self-directed revision in EFL writing classes. *The Electronic Journal for English as a Second Language 20(3)*, 1-19.
- Coppola, A.J., Scricca, D.B., Conners, G.E. (2004). *Supportive supervision: Becoming a teacher of teachers*. CA, Thousand Oaks: Corwi press.
- Corks, D., & Park, E. S. (2016). Effects of direct feedback on grammatical accuracy and explicit/implicit knowledge of target forms. 영어어문교육/English Language & Literature Teaching, 22(1). Retrieved from http://www.riss.kr/link?id=A101856046, 1—22.
- Covert, R. (2000). *Cultural Diversity, (Manual for) A Two-Day Workshop.* Virginia: Unpublished Manuscript. Retrieved from the Author, 4/6/2004: University of Virginia.
- Daneshvar, E., & Rahimi, A. (2014). Written corrective feedback and teaching grammar. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 136.* https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.05.317, 217–221.
- D'Angelo, F. J. (2000). *Process and Thought in Composition with Handbook*. Cambridge: Winthrop Publisher, Inc.
- Darmadi, H. (2017). Dayak and Their Daily Life. *Journal of Education, Teaching and Learning Volume 2 Number 1 March 2017. p-ISSN: 2477-5924 e-ISSN: 2477-4878.*https://www.researchgate.net/publication/319567211_Dayak_and_Their_Daily_Life, 101-105.

- Dilâra, Ş., & Hakk, İ. (2017). Contribution of corrective feedback to English language learners' writing skills development through workfolio based tasks. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instruction* 9(1), 1–30.
- Ducken, Roy Daniel. (2014). Written corrective feedback in the L2 writing classroom. EWU Masters Thesis Collection.
- Eddington, Brooke Elizabeth Barton. (2014). A modified approach to the implementation of dynamic written corrective feedback. Brigham Young: Department of Linguistics and English Language Brigham Young University.
- Ezor, E. & Lewis, J. (2003). From Paragraph to Essay: A Process Approach for Beginning College Writing. New York: Mc Graw-Hill, Inc
- Eggen, P.D & D.P Kauchak. (1996). Strategies for teachers. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Ellis, R. (2012). *Language Teaching Research and Language Pedagogy*. London: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Ellis, R., Sheen, Y., Murakami, M., & Takashima, H. (2008). The effects of focused and unfocused written corrective feedback in an English as a foreign language context. *System*, 36(3). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2008.02.001, 353–371.
- Ellis, Rod. (2009). A typology of written corrective feedback types. *ELT Journal*, 63(2). https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccn023, 97–107.
- Elola, I., & Oskoz, A. (2016). Supporting second language writing using multimodal feedback. *Foreign Language Annals*, 49(1). https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12183, 58–74.
- Elwood, J. A., & Bode, J. (2014). Student preferences vis-à-vis teacher feedback in university EFL writing classes in Japan. *System*, 42(1). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.12.023, 333–343.
- Erfanian, M. (2002). The effect of self correction strategy on the development of learners' linguistic competence. Tehran: Unpublished master's thesis, Allameh Tabatabaei University.
- Erkkilä, M. (2013). *Teacher written feedback : Teachers' perceptions of given feedback.* University of Jyväskylä Department of Languages English.
- Esfandiar, F., Yaqubi, B., & Marzban, A. (2014). Learning corrected target forms: Students' corrective feedback through teacher's written corrective feedback in Iranian EFL context. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4(3). https://doi.org/10.4304/tp.
- Esfandiari, Rajab., & Meihami, Hussein. (2017). Impact of direct corrective feedback (DCF) through electronic portfolio (EP) platform on the components of Iranian EFL Learners' writing across levels of language proficiency. *Journal of Teaching Language Skills* (*JTLS*) 36(2), Summer 2017, ISSN: 2008-8191 DOI: 10.22099/jtls.2017.24570.2204, 39-74
- Esther Lee, E. J. (2013). Corrective feedback preferences and learner repair among advanced ESL students. *System*, 41(2). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.01.022, 217–230.
- Evans, K. James Hartshorn & Norman W. (2012). The differential effects of comprehensive corrective feedback on L2 writing accuracy. *ournal of Linguistics and Language Teaching Volume 3 Issue* 2, 217-248.
- Evans, N. W., Hartshorn, K. J., & Tuioti, E. A. (2010). Written corrective feedback: Practitioners' perspectives. *International Journal of English Studies*, 10(2). https://doi.org/1578-7044, 47-77.
- Farid, Rezqan Noor. (2015). Wisdom values in the banjarese proverbs. *Parole Vol.5 No.1, April* 2015, 50–66.

- Farjadnasab, Amir Hossein., & Khodashenas, Mohammad Reza. (2017). The effect of written corrective feedback on EFL students' writing accuracy. *International Journal of Research in English Education*, 30–42.
- Farrell, T. S. C. (2002). Lesson planning. In Richards, J. C. & Renandya, W. A. (Eds). *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice. New York: Cambridge University Press*, 30-39.
- Farrokhi, F. (2011). The Effects of Focused and Unfocused Written Corrective Feedback on Grammatical Accuracy of Iranian EFL Learners. Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 1, No. 12, pp., December 2011. *ACADEMY PUBLISHER Manufactured in Finland. doi:10.4304/tpls.1.12.1797-1803.*, 1797-1803.
- Farrokhi, F., & Sattarpour, S. (2012). The effects of direct written corrective feedback on improvement of grammatical accuracy of high-proficient L2 learners. *World Journal of Education*, 2(2). https://doi.org/10.5430/wje.v2n2p49, 49–57.
- Fazilatfar, A. M., Fallah, N., Hamavandi, M., & Rostamian, M. (2014). The effect of unfocused written corrective feedback on syntactic and lexical complexity of L2 writing. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98. https://doi.org/10.1016/j., 482–488.
- Ferreira, D. (2013). Written corrective feedback and peer review in the BYOD classroom. In L. Bradley & S. Thouësny (Eds.). 20 Years of EUROCALL: Learning from the Past, Looking to the Future. Proceedings of the 2013 EUROCALL Conference, Évora, Portugal. Dublin/Voillans: © Research-publishing.net, 86-92.
- Ferris, D. (1999). The case for grammar correction in L2 writing classes: A response to truscott (1996). *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8(1). https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(99)80110-6, 1–11.
- Ferris, D. (2003). *Response to Student Writing: Implications for Second Language Students*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Ferris, D. (2006). Does error feedback help student writers? New evidence on the short- and long- term effects of written error correction. *In Feedback in second language writing : contexts and issues. https://books.google.gr/books?hl=el&lr=&id=Xn0kwWNy-IoC&oi=fnd&pg=PA1&dq=error+feedback+in+L2&ots=tVbHwC2McF&sig=L3Chg7y l116Wb_rSXKOdl43Bt7U&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q=error feedback in L2&f=false, 81–100.*
- Ferris, D. R. (2002). *Treatment of error in second language writing classes*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Ferris, D. R. (2010). Second language writing research and written corrective feedback in SLA: Intersections and practical applications. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32(2). https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990490, 181–201.
- Ferris, D. R. . (2004). The "Grammar Correction" Debate in L2 Writing: Where are we, and where do we go from here? (and what do we do in the meantime ...?). *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 13(1). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2004.04.005, 49–62.
- Ferris, D. R. & Hedgcock, J. (1998). *Teaching ESL composition: purpose, process, and practice*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Ferris, D., & Roberts, B. (2001). Error feedback in L2 writing classes how explicit does it need to be? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 10(3). https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(01)00039-X, 161–184.

- Firestone, M. (2010, March Saturday). *What is Multicultural Education?* Retrieved from https://study.com/academy/lesson/multicultural-education-definition-approaches-quiz.html.
- Fong, N. S., Wan-Mansor, W. F. A., & Salam, A. R. (2014). Employing written corrective feedback in teaching writing. *In 1st International Education Postgraduate Seminar Proceedings Vol. 3*, 1–8.
- Foster, John. (2005). Effective writing skills for public relations.
- Frear, D. (2009). The effect of focused and unfocused direct written corrective feedback on a new piece of writing. *Third Conference on College English*, 59–71.
- Frear, David & Chiu, Y. H. (2015). The effect of focused and unfocused indirect written corrective feedback on EFL learners' accuracy in new pieces of writing. *System*, 53. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2015.06.006, 24–34.
- Fredriksson, C. (2015). The influence of group formation on learner participation, language complexity, and corrective behaviour in synchronous written chat as part of academic German studies. *ReCALL*, 27(02), https://doi.org/10.1017/S095834401400, 217–238.
- Fawcett, S & Sandberg, A. (2008). *Evergreen: A Guide to Writing. Third Edition*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Gay. L.R. (2001). Educational Research: Competencies for Analysis and Application. Second Edition. London: A Bell and Howell Company.
- Gillespie, S & Singleton, R. and Becker, R. (2006). *The Writer's Craft: A Process Reader*. Glenview: Scott, Foresman and Company.
- Gould, E., DiYanni, R. & Smith, W. (2009). The Act of Writing. New York: Random House.
- Gebhard, J.G. (2000). *Teaching English as a Foreign or Second Language: A Teacher Self-Development and Methodology Guide*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.
- Ghaith, G. (2002). *The Nature of The Writing Process*, (on line), (http://nadabs.tripod.com/ghaith-writing. Accessed on January 14, 2017.
- Grabe, B. (2007). Discourse analysis and reading instruction. T. Miller (Ed.), *Functional Approaches to Written Text: Classroom Applications* (pp. 2-15). Washington, DC: English Language Programs United States Information Agency.
- Gardner, H. (2007). *The five minds for the future*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Gebhard, J.G. (2000). *Teaching English as a Foreign or Second Language: A Teacher Self-Development and Methodology Guide*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.
- Gholaminia, I., Gholaminia, A., & Marzban, A. (2014). An investigation of meta-linguistic corrective feedback in writing performance. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 116. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.01.214, 316–320.
- Gitsaki, Christina. (2010). ESL teachers' use of corrective feedback and its effect on learners' uptake. *The Journal of Asia TEFL Vol. 7, No. 1, Spring 2010*, 197–219.
- Goo, J., & Mackey, A. (2011). Corrective feedback, individual variation in cognitive capacities, and L2 development: Recasts vs. metalinguistic feedback. *Department of Linguistics*. http://search.proquest.com/docview/1018382253?accountid=145.
- Gould, E., DiYanni, R. & Smith, W. . (1989). The Act of Writing. New York: Random House.
- Guénette, D., & Lyster, R. (2013). Written corrective feedback and its challenges for pre-service ESL teachers. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 69(2). https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.1346, 129–153.

- Harmer.J.(2004). How to Teach Writing. Edinburgh Gaze: Pearson Education Limited.
- Hyland, K. (2003). Second Language Writing. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hellriegel. (1998). Organizational Behavior. Ohio: South Western College Publishing.
- Hamouda, A. (2011). A study of students' and teachers' preferences and attitudes towards correction of classroom written errors in Saudi EFL context. *English Language Teaching*, 4 (3). doi:10.5539/elt.v4n3p128, 128-141.
- Han, Y. (2012). The intra- and inter-task effectiveness of direct and indirect written corrective feedback. *Journal of Asia TEFL*, *9*(2), 71–96.
- Han, Y, & Hyland, F. (2015). Exploring learner engagement with written corrective feedback in a Chinese tertiary EFL classroom. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 30. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2015.08.002, 31–44.
- Harmer, J. (2000). How to teach English: An introduction to the practice of English language teaching. Edinburgh: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Hartshorn., K. James. (2015). The effects of dynamic written corrective feedback: A 30-week study. *Journal of Response to Writing*, 1. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004, 6–34.
- Hastuti, Upik. (2014). Peer and teacher's editing to enhance the competence of active and passive learners in writing discussion texts. *English Education Journal 4 (1)*. http://journal.unnes.ac.id/sjw/index.php/eej, 31-37.
- Hattie, John., & Timperley, Helen. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 77, No. 1, DOI: 10.3102/003465430298487, 81–112.
- Haynes, A. (2010). *The Complete Guide to Lesson Planning and Preparation*. Continuum International Publishing Group.
- Hedge, T. (2003). The practice of English language teaching. *ELT Journal*. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/57.4.401.
- Hellriegel. (1998). Organizational Behavior. Ohio: South Western College Publishing.
- Herman Khunaivi, & Rudi Hartono. (2015). Teacher's and student's perceptions of corrective feedback in teaching speaking. *English Education Journal Article EEJ 5 (2)*. http://journal.unnes.ac.id/sju/index.php/eej, 14-20.
- Hosseiny, M. (2014). The role of direct and indirect written corrective feedback in improving Iranian EFL students' writing skill. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.466, 668–674.
- Houston, D. & Beech, M. (2002). *Designing lessons for the diverse classroom a handbook for teachers*. Florida Department of Education.
- Hyland, F. (2003). Focusing on form: Student engagement with teacher feedback. *System, 31(2). https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(03)00021-6*, 217–230.
- Hyland, F. (1998). The impact of teacher written feedback on individual writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 7, 255–286.
- Hyland, F. (2003). Focusing on form: Student engagement with teacher feedback. *System, 31*(2). https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(03)00021-6., 217–230.
- Hyland, K. (2003). Genre-based pedagogies: A social response to process. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12, 17-29.
- Hyland, K. (1990). Providing productive feedback. *ELT Journal*, 44(4). https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/44.4.279, 279–285.
- Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (2006). *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Jahin, J. H. (2012). The effect of peer reviewing on writing apprehension and essay writing ability of prospective EFL teachers. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *37*(11). *https://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2012v37n11.3*, 60–84.
- Jamalinesari, A., Rahimi, F., Gowhary, H., & Azizifar, A. (2015). The effects of teacher-written direct vs. indirect feedback on students' writing. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 192. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.06.018, 116–123.
- James Broke., & Keppel, Henry, Sir. (1846). The expedition to Borneo of H. M. S. Dido for the suppression of piracy 1809-1904.
- Jiang, L., & Xiao, H. (2014). The efficacy of written corrective feedback and language analytic ability on Chinese learners' explicit and implicit knowledge of English articles. *English Language Teaching*, 7(10). https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v7n10p22, 22–34.
- Jodaie, M., Farrokhi, F., & Zoghi, M. (2011). A comparative study of EFL teachers' and intermediate high school students' perceptions of written corrective feedback on grammatical errors. *English Language Teaching*, 4(4). https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v4n4p36.
- Jokar, M., & Soyoof, A. (2014). The influence of written corrective feedback on two Iranian Learners' grammatical accuracy. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.484, 799–805.
- Kahyalar, E. & Yilmaz, F. (2016). Teachers' corrective feedback in writing classes: The impact of collaborating with a peer during the editing process on students' uptake and retention. *The Reading Matrix:An International Online Journal*, 16(1). http://www.readingmatrix.com/files/14-4826614k.pdf, 148–160.
- Kang, E., & Han, Z. (2015). The efficacy of written corrective feedback in improving L2 written accuracy: A meta-analysis. *Modern Language Journal*, 99(1). https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12189, 1–18.
- Kao, C.-W. (2013). Effects of focused feedback on the acquisition of two English articles. *Tesl-Ej, 17(1). Retrieved from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1007571.pdf*, 1–15.
- Karim, Khaled. (2013). The effects of direct and indirect written corrective feedback (CF) on English-as-a-second- language (ESL) students' revision accuracy and writing skills. *University of Victoria In the Department of Linguistics*.
- Kartchava, Eva. (2016). Learners' beliefs about corrective feedback in the language classroom: Perspectives from two International contexts. *TESL Canada Journal 33*(2), 19–45.
- Kassim, Asiah., & Ng, Lee Luan. (2014). Investigating the efficacy of focused and unfocused corrective feedback on the accurate use of prepositions in written work. *English Language Teaching*, 7(2). https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v7n2p119, 119–130.
- Kazemipour, S. (2014). Comparing the outcomes of two types of corrective feedback on EFL classes' final exam. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.495, 876–881.
- Keh, C. (1990). Feedback in the writing process: a model and methods for implementation. *ELT Journal*, 44, 94-304.
- Koh, E. (2009). Online Education and Cultural Background Encyclopedia of Multimedia Technology and Networking, Second Edition.
- Krashen, S. D. (1981). Second language acquisition and second language learning. *Pidginization and Creolization as language acquisition. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2009.00554.x.*

- Kuncoro, H., & Sutopo, D. (2015). The ideology in the Indonesian-English translation of cultural terms. *English Education Journal EEJ 5* (2) (2015). http://journal.unnes.ac.id/sjw/index.php/eej, 8-13.
- Kuo, Ming-Mu., & Lai, Cheng-Chieh. (2006). Llinguistics across Cultures: The Impact of Culture on Second Language Learning. *Journal of Foreign Language Instruction v1 n1 Nov 2006*.
- Kurzer, Kendon. (2017). Dynamic written corrective feedback in developmental multilingual writing classes. *TESOL Quarterly*. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.366.
- Lake, W. (2016, October). *The Difference Between ESL and EFL: Teaching English*. Retrieved from ESL Teaching Tips & Strategies for Any Grade Level / Teaching English as a Second Language.: https://www.brighthubeducation.com/esl-teaching-tips/127984-the-difference-between-esl-and-efl/
- Lalande, J. F. (1982). Reducing composition errors: An experiment. *Modern Language Journal* 66 (2), 140-149.
- Lam, Sandra Tsui Eu. (n.d). A qualitative study of second language writers' respone to and use of teacher and peer feedback. Singapore: Nanyang Technological University.
- Lambert, J., & Mitrani, V. (2017). Standards for professional learning. https://learningforward.org/standards/implementation.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching. Second Edition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Latief, A. (2001). Reliability of Language Skills Assessment Results. *Jurnal Ilmu Pendidikan VIII No 3*, 214-224.
- Lavolette, Elizabeth. (2015). The accuracy of computer-assisted feedback and students 'responses to it. *Language Learning & Technology. June 2015, Volume 19, Number 2. http://llt.msu.edu/issues/june2015/lavolettepoliokahng.pdf*, 50–68.
- Lee, Icy. (2008). Student reactions to teacher feedback in two Hong Kong secondary classrooms. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 17(3), 144–164.
- Lee, Icy. (2014). Teachers' reflection on implementation of innovative feedback approaches in EFL writing. *English Teaching*, Vol. 69, No. 1, Spring 2014, 23-40.
- Leontjev, Dmitri. (2014). The effect of automated adaptive corrective feedback: L2 English questions. *Journal of Applied Language Studies*, 8(2). *Retrieved from http://apples.jyu.fi/article/abstract/301*, 43–66.
- Li, Haishan., & He, Qingshun. (2017). Chinese secondary EFL learners' and teachers' preferences for types of written corrective feedback. *English Language Teaching*, 10(3). https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v10n3p63, 63-73.
- Li, S. &. (2012). Individual differences in written corrective feedback: A multi-case study. . *English Language Teaching*, *5*(11). https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v5n11p38, 38–44.
- Li, Shaofeng. (2010). The effectiveness of corrective feedback in SLA: A meta-analysis. Language Learning Research Club, University of Michigan 60:2, June 2010. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00561.x, 309-365.
- Liu, Qiandi. (2016). Effectiveness of coded corrective feedback in the development of linguistic accuracy in L2 writing: Impact of error types and learner attitudes. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. etrieved from https://search.proquest.com/docview/1818535525?accountid=10673%0Ahttp://openurl.ac.uk/redirect/athens:edu/?url_ver=Z39.88-

- 2004&rft_val_fmt=info:ofi/fmt:kev:mtx:dissertation&genre=dissertations+%26+theses&si.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching. Second Edition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Latief, A, (2001). Reliability of Language Skills Assessment Results. Jurnal Ilmu Pendidikan VIII No 3, 214-224.
- Lewis, A and Thompson, A (2001) *Quick Summarizing Strategies to Use in the Classroom*. Cape: Henlopen School District. http://www.gcasd. org/Downloads/Summarizing_Strategies.pdf. Accessed, 8 August 2017.
- Littell, J. (2005). Building English Skills. Evanston: McDougal, Littell Company.
- Mackey, Alison., & Gass, Susan M. (2005). *Second language research methodology and design*. Zhurnal Eksperimental'noi i Teoreticheskoi Fiziki. 1-422. http://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&btnG=Search&q=intitle:No+Title#0.
- Mahfoodh, Omer, & Pandian, Ambigapathy. (2011). A qualitative case study of EFL students' affective reactions to and perceptions of their teachers' written feedback. *English Language Teaching*, 4(3). https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v4n3p14, 14-25.
- Mahmud, Norasyikin. (2016). Investigating the practice of providing written corrective feedback types by ESL teachers at the upper secondary level in high performance schools. *Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Sciences*, 4(4). *Retrieved from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1116322.pdf*, 48–60.
- Mahnaz Azizi, Fatemeh Behjat, Mohammad Amin Sorahi. (2014). Effect of metalinguistic teacher corrective feedback on writing performance of Iranian EFL learners.

 International Journal of Language and Linguistics. Special Issue: Innovations in Foreign Language Teaching. Vol. 2, No. 6-1. doi: 10.11648/j.ijll.s.2014020601.18, 54-63.
- Maleki, Ataollah., & Eslami, Elham. (2013). The effects of written corrective feedback techniques on EFL students' control over grammatical construction of their written English. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *3*(7). https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.3.7.1250-1257, 1250–1257.
- Mansourizadeh, K., & Abdullah, K. I. (2014). The effects of oral and written meta-linguistic feedback on ESL students writing. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature*, 20(2), 117–126.
- Mantle-Bromley, C. (1995). Positive attitudes and realistic beliefs: links to proficiency. *Modern Language journal*, 79(3), 372-386.
- Maryam Shafiee Sarvestani, Kian Pishkar. (2015). The Effect of Written Corrective Feedback on Writing Accuracy of Intermediate Learners. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies (TPLS, ISSN 1799-2591).DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0510.10*.
- Marzban, A., & Arabahmadi, S. (2013). The effect of written corrective feedback on Iranian EFL students' writing. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 83(2007). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.06.186, 1000–1005.
- Mawlawi Diab, N. (2015). Effectiveness of written corrective feedback: Does type of error and type of correction matter? *Assessing Writing*, 24. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2015.02.001, 16–34.
- Mayberry, Katherine. (2009). Everyday Arguments: A guide to writing and reading Effective Arguments. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company.

- Min, H. T. (2006). The effects of trained peer review on EFL students' revision types and writing quality. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 15(2). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2006.01.003, 118–141.
- Miranti, Ika., & Mujiyanto, Januarius. (2016). Sociocultural relations among participants in articles on teacher as researcher and teacher as educator. *English Education Journal. http://journal.unnes.ac.id/sju/index.php/eej*, 45-54.
- Mirzaii, Mostafa., Aliabadi, Reza Bozorg. (2013). Direct and indirect written corrective feedback in the context of genre-based instruction on job application letter writing. *Journal of Writing Research*, 5(2). http://dx.doi.org/10.17239/jowr-201 3.05.02.2, 191–213.
- Moazamie, Parvin., & Mansour, Koosha. (2013). The effect of CA-based vs . EA-based error correction on Iranian EFL intermediate learners' lexical errors of writing. *IJRELT Vol 1*. *No. 1. 2013*, 39–44.
- Moini, Mohammad Raouf., & Salami, Malihe. (2013). The impact of indirect focused and unfocused corrective feedback on written accuracy. *International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching and research Volume 2, Issue 4, Winter 2013*, 32–41.
- Mollestam, Emma., & Hu, Lixia. (2016). *Corrective feedback on L2 students' writing*. Degree project, English and learning 15 credits, advanced level.
- Montgomery, Julie L., & Baker, Wendy. (2007). Teacher-written feedback: Student perceptions, teacher self-assessment, and actual teacher performance. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 16(2). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2007.04.002, 82–99.
- Moradian, Mahmood Reza., Miri, Mowla., & Hossein Nasab, Mojgan. (2017). Contribution of written languaging to enhancing the efficiency of written corrective feedback. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics (United Kingdom)*, 27(2). https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12138, 406–426.
- Mubarak, Mohamed. (2013). Corrective feedback in L2 writing: A study of practices and effectiveness in the Bahrain context. the University of Sheffield.
- Mubaro, Husni. (2012). The use of peer feedback strategy to motivate students in narrative text writing. *English Education Journal EEJ 2 (2) (2012)*. http://journal.unnes.ac.id/sjw/index.php/eej, 162-168.
- Mufiz, Ali., Fitriati, Wuli., & Sukrisno, Alim. (2017). Patterns of interaction in peer feedback provision to the students' expository writings. *English Education Journal*, 7(1). *Retrieved from http://journal.unnes.ac.id/sju/index.php/eej*, 6-11.
- Mustafa, R. F. (2012). Feedback on the feedback: Sociocultural interpretation of Saudi ESL learners' opinions about writing feedback. *English Language Teaching*, *5*(*3*), 3-15.
- Naimie, Z.et al. (2012). Have You Heard About The New Fashion? (Tailoring Your Lesson Plan Based on Learners Preferences). *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences 46* (2012). *Retrieved from: www.sciencedirect.com*, 5840 5844.
- Nakanishi, Chiharu. (2007). The effects of different types of feedback on revision. *The Journal of Asia Tefl Vol. 4, No. 4, Winter 2007*, 213-244.
- Nassaji, Hossein. (2011). Correcting students' written grammatical errors: The effects of negotiated versus nonnegotiated feedback. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 1(3). https://doi.org/10.14746/ssllt.2011.1.3.2, 315–334.
- National Implementation Research Network. (2015). Implementation defined. The National Implementation Research Network, FPG Child Development Institute, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill. . Retrieved from https://nirn.fpg.unc.edu/learn-implementation/implementation

- Nunan, D. (2002). Research methods in language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100012924.
- Nunan, David. (1991). Language teaching methodology. Hemel Hemstead Herts: Prentice Hall.
- Omaggio-Hadley, A. (2000). Teaching language in context. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- O'Malley, J.M., & Pierce, L.V. (1996). Authentic assessment for English language learner: Practical approach for teacher. Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Leech, N. L. (2007). Sampling Designs in Qualitative Research: Making the Sampling Process More Public. *12*(2), 19–20.
- Orts Soler, Sara. (2015). *EFL students' attitudes and preferences towards written corrective feedback*. Departament d'Estudis Anglesos Universitat Jaume I.
- Oshima, Ann Hogue Alice., Carlson, Elizabeth., DiLillo, Gina., Edmonds, Christine., Le Drean Linda Moser, Laura., & Pullman, Edith. (2007). *Introduction to academic writing: Third edition.* New York: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Othman, Shamshad Begham., & Mohamad, Faizah. (2009). Multiple-draft compositions in ESL classroom. *Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference of Teaching and Learning (ICTL 2009)* (pp. 1-12). Malaysia: INTI University College.
- Oxford University. (2011). How ESL and EFL classrooms differ Oxford University Press ELT.
- Panova, Illiana., & Lyster, Roy. (2002). Patterns feedback and of corrective ESL classroom in an adult uptake. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36(4). https://doi.org/10.2307/3588241, 573-595.
- Peterson, Shelley., Childs, Ruth., & Kennedy, Kerrie. (2004). Written feedback and scoring of sixth-grade girls' and boys' narrative and persuasive writing. *Assessing Writing*, 9(2). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2004.07.002, 160–180.
- Poorebrahim, Fatemeh. (2017). Indirect written corrective feedback, revision, and learning. Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics, Vol. 6 No. 2, January 2017. https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v6i2.4843, 184-192.
- Prabasiwi, Evita Ardy. (2017). Employing self and peer editing techniques to teach writing recount texts for students with high and low motivation (the case of grade 5 of Mondial primary school in the academic year of 2015 / 2016). *English Education Journal EEJ 7* (3) (2017). http://journal.unnes.ac.id/sju/index.php/eej, 220–226.
- Rahimi, Mohammad. (2009). The role of teacher's corrective feedback in improving Iranian EFL learners' writing accuracy over time: Is learner's mother tongue relevant? Reading and Writing. Reading and Writing 22(2). https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-008-9139-5, 219—243
- Rahimi, Mohammad. (2014). Effect of different types of written corrective feedback on accuracy and overall quality of L2 learners' writing. *European Journal of Academic Essays*, 1(6), www.euroessays.org, 1–7.
- Rahimi, Mohammad. (2015). The role of individual differences in L2 learners' retention of written corrective feedback. *Journal of Response to Writing*, 1(1). http://www.journalrw.org/index.php/jrw/article/viewFile/18/8, 19–48.
- Raimes, Ann. (1998). Teaching writing. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 18. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190500003524, 142–167.
- Rejab, Habibah Mat., Ismail, Zawawi., & Jamaludin, Shahrir. (2015). Teacher's feedback on Arabic student writing process. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(2). https://doi.org/10.5901/mjss.2015.v6n2p608, 608–614.
- Richards, J. (2002). 30 Years of TEFL/ TESL: A personal reflection. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Center.

- Rifkin, B. (2003). Guidelines for Foreign Language Lesson Planning. Foreign Language Annals. Vol. 36, No. 2. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/272179372_A_CLOSE_L.
- Rose, M. (2018, March). *What is implementation*. Retrieved from http://searchcrm.techtarget. com/ definition implementation.
- Rouhi, Afsar., & Azizian, Elnaz. (2013). Peer review: Is giving corrective feedback better than receiving it in L2 writing? *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 93. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.10.042, 1349–1354.
- Ruegg, Rachael. (2014). The effect of peer and teacher feedback on changes in EFL students??? writing self-efficacy. *Language Learning Journal*. https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2014.958190.
- Rummel, Stephanie., & Bitchener, John. (2015). The effectiveness of written corrective feedback and the impact LAO learners' beliefs have on uptake. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 38(1). https://doi.org/10.1075/aral.38.1.04rum, 64–82.
- Russell, Jane., & Spada, Nina. (2006). The effectiveness of corrective feedback for the acquisition of L2 grammar. University of Toronto.
- Richard, J.C & Renandya, W.A. (2002). *Methodology in Language Teaching. An Anthology of Current Practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richard, J. (2001). *Curriculum Development in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Raimes, A. (2003). Techniques in Teaching Writing. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Rivers, W. M. (2001). *Teaching Foreign Language Skills. Second Edition*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Roloff, J.G. & Brosseit, V. (2000). Paragraphs. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, Inc.
- Salija, K. (2004). *The Effects of Using Formal Outlines in Writing Exposition*. Unpublished Dessertation. Malang: Program Pasca Sarjana Universitas Negeri Malang
- Sachs, R. & Polio, C. (2007). Learners' uses of two types of written feedback on a L2 writing revision task. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 29, 67-100.
- Saeb, Fateme. (2014). The effects of focused and unfocused written corrective feedback on the grammatical accuracy of beginner EFL learners. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature*, 3(2). https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.3n.2p.22, 22–26.
- Saito, K. (2012). Effects of form-focused instruction and corrective feedback on L2 pronunciation development of /r{turned}/ by Japanese learners of English. *Language Learning*, 62(2). https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2011.00639.x, 595–633.
- Sato, M. (2013). Peer interaction and corrective feedback: Proceduralization of grammatical knowledge in classroom settings. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section A:*Humanities and Social Sciences, 73(12–A(E)), No-Specified.

 http://ovidsp.ovid.com/ovidweb.cgi?T=JS&PAGE=reference&D=psyc10&NEWS=N&A N=2013-99110-528, 591-626.
- Sato, M., & Lyster, R. (2012). Peer interaction and corrective feedback for accuracy and fluency development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 34(04). https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263112000356, 591–626.
- Saukah, Ali., Made, Desak., Dewanti, Indah., & Laksmi, Ekaning Dewanti. (2017). The effect of coded and non-coded correction feedback on the quality of Indonesian EFL students' writing. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 7 No. 2, September 2017., 247–252.

- Sayyar, Safieh., & Zamanian, Mostafa. (2015). Iranian learners and teachers on written corrective feedback: How much and what kinds? *International Journal of Educational Investigations*, 2(2). *Retrieved from www.ijeionline.com/attachments/article/36/IJEIonline_Vol.2_No.2_2015-2-09.pdf*, 98–120.
- Schulz, Renate A. (2001). Cultural differences in student and teacher perceptions concerning the role of grammar instruction and corrective feedback: USA-Colombia. *The Modern Language Journal*, 85(2). https://doi.org/10.1111/0026-7902.00107, 244–258.
- Sekaran, U. (1992). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Shahrani, Abdul Aziz Al. (2013). Investigation of written corrective feedback in an EFL context: beliefs of teachers, their real practices and students' preferences.
- Sheen, Y. (2012, November). The effect of focused written corrective feedback of contrastive analysis on EFL learners' acquisition of verb tenses. *Journal of Educational and Instructional Studies in the World*, 2, 48–61.
- Sheen, Y. (2010). Differential effects of oral and written corrective feedback in the ESL classroom. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32(2). https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990507, 203–234.
- Sheen, Y. (2010). Introduction: The role of oral and written corrective feedback in SLA. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32(02). https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990489, 169–179.
- Sheen, Y., & CF. (2010). Differential effects of oral and written corrective feedback in the ESL classroom. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990507, 203–234.
- Sheen, Y., Wright, D., & Moldawa, A. (2009). Differential effects of focused and unfocused written correction on the accurate use of grammatical forms by adult ESL learners. *System*, 37(4). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.09.002, 556–569.
- Sheen, Younghee. (2007). The effect of focused written corrective feedback and language aptitude on ESL learners' acquisition of articles. *TESOL Quarterly*, 41(2). https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1545-7249.2007.tb00059.x, 255–283.
- Shintani, N., & Aubrey, S. (2016). The effectiveness of synchronous and asynchronous written corrective feedback on grammatical accuracy in a computer-mediated environment. *Modern Language Journal*, 100(1). https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12317, 296–319.
- Shintani, N., & Ellis, R. (2013). The comparative effect of direct written corrective feedback and metalinguistic explanation on learners' explicit and implicit knowledge of the English indefinite article. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 22(3), 286–30.
- Shintani, N., Ellis, R., & Suzuki, W. (2014). Effects of written feedback and revision on learners' accuracy in using two English grammatical structures. *Language Learning*, 64(1). https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12029, 103–131.
- Shirazi, M. A., & Shekarabi, Z. (2014). The role of written corrective feedback in enhancing the linguistic accuracy of Iranian Japanese learners 'writing. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research*, 2(1), 99–118.
- Shirotha, F. B. (2016). The effect of indirect written corrective feedback on students'. *Journal on English as a Foreign Language*, 6(2), 101–118.

- Simard, D., Guénette, D., & Bergeron, A. (2015). L2 learners' interpretation and understanding of written corrective feedback: Insights from their metalinguistic reflections. *Language Awareness*, 24(3). https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2015.107643, 233–254.
- Simon, By Marilyn. (2011). Assumptions, limitations, and delimitations.
- Smalley, L. R. (2008). Refining composition skills. Harvard Business Review.
- Sobhani, M., & Tayebipour, F. (2015). The effects of oral vs. written corrective feedback on Iranian EFL learners' essay writing. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(8). https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0508.09, 1601–1611.
- Soltanpour, F., Valizadeh, M., & Placement, Q. (2017). The effect of the collaboration of reflective notes with call on efl learners' writing accuracy. *European Journal of English Language Teaching*. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.495361, 22–52.
- Song, G., Hoon, L. H., & Alvin, L. P. (2017). Students' response to feedback: an exploratory study. *RELC Journal*. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688217691445.
- Sonja Huiying Sun. (2013). Written corrective feedback: Effects of focused and unfocused grammar correction on the case acquisition in L2 German. German: Journal of Chemical Information and Modeling (Vol. 53). https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004.
- Spratt, M., Pulverness, A., & Williams, M. (2005). *The TKT course*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Stefanou, C., & Révész, A. (2015). Direct written corrective feedback, learner differences, and the acquisition of second language article use for generic and specific plural reference. *Modern Language Journal*, 99(2). https://doi.org/10.1111/modl, 263–282.
- Storch, N. (2010). Critical feedback on written corrective feedback research. *IJES*, 10(2). *Retrieved from www.um.es/ijes*, 29–46.
- Storch, N., & Wigglesworth, G. (2010). Learners processing, uptake, and retention of corrective feedback on writing: Case studies. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990532.
- Smalley, R.L. & Reutten, M.K. (2001). *Refining Composition Skills: Rhetoric and Grammar for ESL Students*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.
- Tompkins, G.E. (2006). *Teaching Writing: Balancing Process and Product*. New York: Macmillan, Inc.
- Trimmer, J.F. & Sommer, N.I. (2004) *Writing with A Purpose*. Lawrenceville: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in Society*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Vockell, E.L. & Asher J.W. (2003). *Educational Research*. *Second Edition*. New Jersey: Merril of Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Wahab, A. & Lestari, L.A. 1999. *Menulis Karya Ilmiah*. Surabaya: Airlangga University Press.
- Weigle, S.C. Assessing Writing. (2002). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Winkle, Anthony C. and Jo Roy Mc Cuen. (2009). Writing the Research Paper. Orlando: Harcount Brace Jovanovich Publishers.
- Winn, W., & Snyder, D. (1996). *Cognitive perspectives in psychology*. In D. H. Jonassen (Ed.), Handbook of research for educational communications and technology (pp.115-122). New York: Simon and Schuster MacMillan.
- Wikibook (2015). What is ICT? https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/ICT_in_Education.

- Tam, S. T. C., & Chiu, E. (n.d). Using written corrective feedback to improve writing accuracy of junior secondary students. 105–130.
- Tangkiengsirisin, S., & Kalra, R. (2016). Thai students' perceptions on the direct vs. indirect written corrective feedback: A Thai university context. *Arab World English Journal Arab World English Journal (AWEJ)*, 7(33), 161–176.
- Thomas, U. (2015). *Handbook of Research on Educational Technology Integration and Active Learning*. DOI: 10.4018/978-1-4666-8363-1.ch013. https://www.igi-global.com/chapter/ipad/128050. Accessed on 3 March 2018.
- Tonekaboni, Ali Morshedi. (2016). Effective feedback in Second Language Acquisition: Oral feedback vs. written feedback. *International Research Journal of Applied and Basic Sciences*. 10(2) www.irjabs.com ISSN 2251-838X, 153–165, 153–165.
- Treglia, M. (2008). Feedback on feedback: Exploring student responses to teachers' written commentary. *Journal of Basic Writing*, 27(1), 105. http://o-proquest.umi.com.library.ecu.edu.au/pqdweb?did=1663258261&Fmt=7&clientId=7582&RQT=309&VNam.
- Truscott, J. (1996). The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes. *Language Learning 46(2)*. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1996.tb01238.x, 327–369.
- Truscott, J. (1999). What's wrong with oral grammar correction. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 55(4). https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.55.4.457, 437–456.
- Truscott, J. (2007). The effect of error correction on learners' ability to write accurately. *Journal of Second Language Writing. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2007.06.003.*, 255–272.
- Truscott, J. (2009). Arguments and appearances: A response to Chandler. *Journal of Second Language Writing*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2008.09.001.
- Tsui, Amy B.M. & Ng, Maria. (2000). Do secondary L2 writers benefit from peer comments? Journal of Second Language Writing 9 (2), 147 - 170.
- Unaldı, İ. (2017). Inconsistencies among EFL teachers in written corrective feedback. *10th International Technology, Education and Development Conference*, (p.). Valencia: Spain.
- Ur, Penny. (1996). A course in language teaching: Practice and theory. Cambridge University Press.
- Van Beuningen, C. (2010). Corrective feedback in L2 writing: theoretical perspectives, empirical insights, and future directions. *IJES*, 10(2). Retrieved from www.um.es/ijes, 1-27.
- Van Beuningen, C. G., De Jong, N. H., & Kuiken, F. (2008). The effect of direct and indirect corrective feedback on L2 learner's written accuracy. *ITL International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 156(0). https://doi.org/10.2143/ITL.156.0.20344, 279–296.
- Van Beuningen, C. G., De Jong, N. H., & Kuiken, F. (2012). Evidence on the effectiveness of comprehensive error correction in second language writing. *Language Learning*, 62(1). https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2011.00674.x, 1-41.
- Vyatkina, N. (2010). The effectiveness of written corrective feedback in teaching beginning German. *Foreign Language Annals*, 43(4). https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2010.01108.x, 671–689.
- Vyatkina, N. (2011). Writing instruction and policies for written corrective feedback in the basic language sequence. *L2 Journal*, *3*(*1*), 63–92.
- Wang, W., & Loewen, S. (2015). Nonverbal behavior and corrective feedback in nine ESL university-level classrooms. *Language Teaching Research, March 24*, 1362168815577239. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168815577239.

- Ware, P. D., & O'Dowd, R. (2008). Peer feedback on language form in telecollaboration. Language Learning & Technology, 12(1), 43–63.
- Wawire, B. A. (2013). The effect of direct and indirect corrective feedback taking a sociocultural approach. *ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1417775866?accountid=14598*.
- Weigle, S. (2002). Assessing Writing. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Westmacott, A. (2017). Direct vs. indirect written corrective feedback: Student perceptions. *Íkala, Revista de Lenguaje y Cultura 22(1).* https://doi.org/10.17533/udea.ikala.v22n01a02, 17–32.
- Wijayanti, P., Dwi, Linggar Bharati, A., & Mujiyanto, J. (2015). The use of written feedback technique to improve the practice of grammar for sentence writing competence. *English Education Journal. http://journal.unnes.ac.id/*, 1-6.
- Winkle, Anthony C. and Jo Roy Mc Cuen. (1989). Writing the research paper. Orlando: Harcount Brace Jovanovich Publishers.
- Yang, Y., & Lyster, R. (2010). Effects of form-focused practice and feedback on Chinese EFL learners acquisition of regular and irregular past tense forms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32(2). https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990519, 235–263.
- Yeganehfar, M. (2000). Responding to students written errors: teacher correction or student self-correction. Tehran: Unpublished master's thesis, Allameh Tabatabaei University.
- Yıldırım, A. (2003). Instructional planning in a centralized school system: Lessons of a study among primary school teachers in Turkey. *International Review of Education*, 49(5), 523-543.
- Yin, R. K. (1994). *Case study research: Designs and method*. Thousand Oaks London New Delhi: SAGE Publications International Educational and Professional Publisher.
- Yoke, S. K., Rajendran, C. B., Sain, N., Hidayah Kamaludin, P. N., Nawi, S. M., & Yusof, S. M. (2013). The use of online corrective feedback in academic writing by L1 Malay learners. *English Language Teaching*, 6(12), https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v, 175–180.
- Yoshida, R. (2008). Learners' perception of corrective feedback in pair work. *Foreign Language Annals*, 41(3). https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2008.tb03310.x, 525-541.
- Yu, S., & Lee, I. (2014). An analysis of Chinese EFL students' use of first and second language in peer feedback of L2 writing. *System*, 47. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2014.08.007, 28–38.
- Zabor, L., & Rychlewska, A. (2015). The effectiveness of written corrective feedback in the acquisition of the English article system by Polish learners in view of the counterbalance hypothesis. *Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 25. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-07686-7 8, 131–150.
- Ze, M., & Gholam, J. (2014). Feedback complexity and writing skill: The relative effectiveness of no feedback, error-flagging and response-contingent feedback types. *Teşhis Edici Dönüt ve Cevaba Bağlı Dönüt 'ün Karşılaştırmalı Geç,. https://doi.org/10.13114/MJH.201428450*, 373–382.
- Zhang, L. J., & Rahimi, M. (2014). EFL learners' anxiety level and their beliefs about corrective feedback in oral communication classes. *System*, 42(1), https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2014.01.012, 429–439.
- Zhang, S. (1995). Re-examining the affective advantage of peer feedback in the ESL writing class. *Journal of second language writing*, 4(3), 209-222.

Appendix 1

Research Schedule

No	Activity	Month											
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	Preliminary study												
2	Writing thesis												
	proposal												
3	Seminar on thesis												
	proposal												
4	Revision												
5	Pre-test												
6	Giving Treatment												
7	Giving Treatment												
8	Giving Treatment												
9	Post test 1												
10	Data analysis												
11	Seminar on the result												
12	Research Report												
13	Revision												
14	Publication												

Appendix 2

Research Instrument

Writing Test for Control Group

Subject Essay Writing

Credit 2 Sks Class 3 Date/Time -

Test Type Written test
Topic Expository essay

Instructions

- 1. This is a writing test for the purpose of experimentation.
- 2. Write an expository essay about 450-500 words
- 3. Choose one of the topics that interests you
 - a. How to be a proffessional English teacher
 - b. There are three models of IAIN Students
 - c. Between my home town and this city; different but alike
 - d. My mother is friendly to me
- 4. Then, develop the topic into a good essay.
- 5. Your paragraph should cover a thesis statement, body paragraphs, and a conclusion.
- 6. You should apply free writing strategy before starting to write.
- 7. Use appropriate transition signals (if necessary)
- 8. You have 120 minutes to write an essay.

Appendix 3

Research Instrument

Writing Test for Experiment Group

Subject Essay Writing

Credit 2 Sks Class 3 Date/Time -

Test Type Written test
Topic Expository essay

Instructions

- 1. This is a writing test for the purpose of experimentation.
- 2. Write an expository essay about 450- 500 words
- 3. Choose one of the topics that interests you
 - a. How to be a successful person
 - b. There are three kinds of Hotel in Palangka Raya
 - c. Between my college and that college; different but alike
 - d. My Father is very kind to me
- 4. Then, develop the topic into a good essay.
- 5. Your paragraph should cover a thesis statement, body paragraphs, and a conclusion.
- 6. Use appropriate transition signals (if necessary)
- 7. You have 100 minutes to write an essay.

BIODATA PENELITI

IDENTITAS PENELITI 1

Nama : Sabarun, M.Pd.

NIP : 19680322200801 1 005

NIDN 2022036801

Tempat dan Tanggal Lahir : Temanggung, 22-03-1968

Agama : Islam

Golongan / Pangkat : IVa/ Pembina

Jabatan Fungsional : Lektor Kepala/ TMT 1 Oktober 2019

Mata Kuliah Keahlian : Writing

Jabatan : Dosen FTIK Prodi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris

Unit Kerja : Fakultas Tarbiyah dan Ilmu Keguruan

Perguruan Tinggi ; IAIN Palangka Raya

Alamat Rumah : BTN G.Obos No. 20 Gang Pelangi, Jalan G. Obos,

Palangka Raya

Telp./Faks. : 085646483912

IDENTITAS PENELITI 2

Nama : Aris Sugianto, M.Pd. NIP : 19830819 201503 1 001

NIDN 2019088301

Tempat dan Tanggal Lahir : Tanjung Jaringau, 19-08-1983

Agama : Islam

Golongan / Pangkat : III d/ Penata Tk.1

Jabatan Fungsional : Lektor Mata Kuliah Keahlian : Writing

Jabatan : Dosen FTIK Prodi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris

Unit Kerja : Fakultas Tarbiyah dan Ilmu Keguruan

Perguruan Tinggi ; IAIN Palangka Raya

Alamat Rumah : Jalan Temanggung Jayakarti No. 44 Rt 001 Rw 014

Langkai, Pahandut, Palangka Raya

Email : Aris sugianto@iain-palangkaraya.ac.id.

SURAT PERNYATAAN KEASLIAN/ ORISINALITAS

Bismillahirrahmanirrahiem

Yang bertanda tangan di bawah ini:

Nama : Sabarun, M.Pd.

NIP : 19680322200801 1 005

NIDN 2022036801

Golongan / Pangkat : IVa/ Pembina/ Lektor Kepala

Jabatan : Dosen FTIK Prodi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris

Unit Kerja : Fakultas Tarbiyah dan Ilmu Keguruan

Perguruan Tinggi : IAIN Palangka Raya

Judul penelitian : The Effectiveness of Direct and Indirect Feedback on Learners'

Writing Performance within Different Gender and Cultural

Background

Menyatakan bahwa:

1. Penelitian individu ini adalah benar-benar hasil karya sendiri, bukan hasil plagiat dari karya orang lain.

- 2. Penelitian individu ini tidak mendapatkan dana dari lembaga manapun selain dari dana DIPA IAIN Palangka Raya Tahun 2020.
- 3. Peneliti bersedia menyelesaikan dan merevisi hasil penelitian sesuai dengan saran reviewer.
- 4. Peneliti bersedia memuat dalam jurnal (jika terpilih).
- 5. Jika di kemudian hari ditemukan bahwa penelitian ini hasil plagiat dari karya orang lain, peneliti bersedia menerima sanksi dari lembaga.

Palangka Raya, 05 Juli 2020 Ketua Peneliti

Sabarun, M.Pd. NIP. 196803222008011005

SURAT KETERANGAN

Ketua Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa Institut Agama Islam Negeri Palangka Raya menerangkan bahwa:

Nama : SABARUN, M.Pd NIP : 196803222008011005

Pangkat/ Gol. Ruang : Pembina/ IVa Jabatan : Lektor Kepala

Status : Dosen TBI IAIN Palangka Raya

telah mengajukan usul penelitian pengembangan Prodi tahun 2020 berjudul: " *The Effectiveness of Direct and Indirect Feedback on Learners' Writing Performance within Different Gender and Cultural'*". Usulan Penelitian tersebut sesuai dengan bidang ilmu yang bersangkutan.

Demikian Surat Keterangan ini dibuat dan diberikan untuk dapat digunakan sebagaimana mestinya.

Palangka Raya, 05 Juli 2020 Ketua Jurusan

Akhmad Ali Mirza, M.Pd. NIP. 198406222015031003

Gender		cultural B		types f. Writing score
2.0	1.0	1.0	80.0	
2.0	1.0	1.0	86.0	
1.0	2.0	1.0	62.0	
1.0	2.0	1.0	71.0	
1.0	2.0	1.0	70.0	
1.0	1.0	1.0	65.0	
1.0	1.0	1.0	73.0	
1.0	1.0	1.0	80.0	
1.0	1.0	1.0	74.0	
1.0	1.0	1.0	68.0	
2.0	1.0	1.0	80.0	
2.0	1.0	1.0	75.0	
2.0	1.0	1.0	82.0	
2.0	1.0	1.0	64.0	
2.0	1.0	1.0	73.0	
1.0	2.0	1.0	66.0	
2.0	2.0	1.0	72.0	
2.0	2.0	1.0	85.0	
2.0	2.0	1.0	80.0	
2.0	2.0	1.0	71.0	

2.0	2.0	1.0	63.0
2.0	2.0	1.0	82.0
1.0	3.0	1.0	61.0
1.0	3.0	1.0	68.0
1.0	3.0	1.0	70.0
1.0	3.0	1.0	75.0
1.0	3.0	1.0	73.0
1.0	3.0	1.0	72.0
1.0	3.0	1.0	72.0
2.0	3.0	1.0	78.0
2.0	3.0	1.0	75.0
2.0	3.0	1.0	85.0
2.0	3.0	1.0	81.0
2.0	3.0	1.0	72.0
2.0	3.0	1.0	74.0
2.0	3.0	1.0	71.0
2.0	3.0	1.0	83.0
2.0	3.0	1.0	79.0
1.0	1.0	2.0	60.0
1.0	1.0	2.0	70.0
1.0	1.0	2.0	63.0
1.0	1.0	2.0	71.0
1.0	1.0	2.0	64.0
2.0	1.0	2.0	74.0
2.0	1.0	2.0	82.0
2.0	1.0	2.0	76.0
2.0	1.0	2.0	82.0
2.0	1.0	2.0	70.0
1.0	2.0	2.0	60.0
1.0	2.0	2.0	62.0
1.0	2.0	2.0	72.0
1.0	2.0	2.0	80.0
1.0	2.0	2.0	61.0
1.0	2.0	2.0	72.0
	2.0		75.0
2.0		2.0	
2.0	2.0	2.0	81.0
2.0	2.0	2.0	78.0
2.0	2.0	2.0	71.0
2.0	2.0	2.0	65.0
2.0	2.0	2.0	80.0
2.0	2.0	2.0	77.0
1.0	3.0	2.0	62.0
1.0	3.0	2.0	64.0
1.0	3.0	2.0	72.0
1.0	3.0	2.0	71.0
1.0	3.0	2.0	72.0

1.0	3.0	2.0	70.0
2.0	3.0	2.0	82.0
2.0	3.0	2.0	78.0
2.0	3.0	2.0	81.0
2.0	3.0	2.0	79.0
2.0	3.0	2.0	70.0
2.0	3.0	2.0	71.0
2.0	3.0	2.0	73.0
2.0	3.0	2.0	70.0
1.0	1.0	3.0	50.0
1.0	1.0	3.0	53.0
1.0	1.0	3.0	60.0
1.0	1.0	3.0	55.0
2.0	1.0	3.0	53.0
2.0	1.0	3.0	60.0
2.0	1.0	3.0	55.0
2.0	1.0	3.0	63.0
2.0	1.0	3.0	50.0
2.0	1.0	3.0	57.0
1.0	2.0	3.0	
			51.0
1.0	2.0	3.0	54.0
1.0	2.0	3.0	62.0
1.0	2.0	3.0	50.0
1.0	2.0	3.0	55.0
1.0	2.0	3.0	63.0
1.0	3.0	3.0	51.0
1.0	3.0	3.0	63.0
1.0	3.0	3.0	50.0
2.0	3.0	3.0	62.0
2.0	3.0	3.0	57.0
2.0	3.0	3.0	52.0
2.0	3.0	3.0	58.0
2.0	3.0	3.0	63.0
2.0	3.0	3.0	65.0
2.0	3.0	3.0	50.0
2.0	2.0	3.0	60.0
2.0	2.0	3.0	52.0
2.0	2.0	3.0	45.0
2.0	2.0	3.0	52.0
2.0	2.0	3.0	61.0
2.0	2.0	3.0	62.0
2.0	2.0	3.0	53.0
2.0	2.0	3.0	50.0
1.0	3.0	3.0	56.0
1.0	3.0	3.0	40.0