# **CHAPTER II**

# **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

## **2.1 Theoretical Framework**

### **2.1.1 The Definition of Writing**

 Writing can be used for many purposes, in many contexts, and what qualifies as quality writing can differ across those contexts. In fact, some scholars have argued that ‘writing’ in the absence of the social context is too vague a construct to ever be measured beyond basic technical skills such as grammatical construction and proper use of vocabulary. However, while different types of writing may require different forms of knowledge and skill, there may still be some overlap in writing ability across domains and contexts for a lucid discussion of different theoretical approaches to construct validity. While the context of the present writing proficiency tasks is clearly for assessment, which is normally seen as artificial, students were given the latitude to choose subjects that they were familiar with and write to audiences that they would interact with in real world social contexts.

 This research measures several types of timed writing proficiency, persuasive opinion writing proficiency and expository writing proficiency, and the context noted applies to both. While aspects of the context were similar, the constructs measured in each of the two tasks are significantly different. Our focus here is on clarity of writing, and successful achievement of the stated goal of the constructed response task. Our construct further focused on quick writing with no revisions.

It is worth noting that for logistical purposes our measurement strategy involved pen and paper rather than computer based composition, which can affect writing output (Oppenheimer, 2016:33). While this element of the construct was not grounded in theoretical interest, it is nonetheless a contextual factor, which could influence writing and thus interpretation of the findings.

### 2.1.2 Written Corrective Feedback (WCF)

Providing corrective feedbacks (CF) is a common practice and function of writing teachers especially writing in a foreign or second language (Chen et al, 2016:4). Though it is a time consuming, tedious and painstaking task, teachers keep doing this since they believe that learners will be able to improve their writing with their feedback. Theoretically, feedbacks have roles in both second language learning and language pedagogy. Behaviorist and cognitive theories suggest that feedbacks contribute to language learning, while structural and communicative approaches view feedbacks as a means of fostering learners’ motivation and ensuring linguistic accuracy (Ellis, 2012:18).

Feedback is provided not only for the purpose of assessment but also for assisting learners to work out of text’s potential. It assists learners to comprehend the writing context and to provide a sense of audience and their expectation of the texts (Hyland, 2010:12). It contributes to learners’ progress, the engagement of students in learning process, and the revision responses expected from the learners. Feedback provision may also serve as a means of creating effective teacher-learner and learner-learner interactions in teaching-learning context which finally can trigger revisions for language improvement.

Edward (2018:16) states that written corrective feedback (WCF) is also called error correction or grammar correction, refers to the “correction of grammatical errors for the purpose of improving a student’s ability to write accurately”. It means that written corrective feedback has been regarded as a normal way of improving students’ writing accuracy and a necessary part of the writing curriculum. It originated from the field of second language acquisition (SLA).

The proliferation of written corrective feedback research is driven by its significant theoretical and pedagogical implications for second language acquisition research and instruction (Ellis 2012:22). It means competing second language acquisition theories have made different claims about the roles of error correction in language acquisition. Written corrective feedback research has served as an effective means of testing these competing claims. While theories derived from Chomsky’s universal grammar tend to reject the role of corrective feedback in facilitating language acquisition, cognitive interactionist theories such as interaction hypothesis and noticing hypothesis propose that error correction assists language acquisition by helping learners to establish form meaning mappings. WCF research has also been motivated by practical and pedagogical concerns (Bitchener, 2016:13). Error correction plays a central role in classroom discourse; its amount and form are closely related to the efficiency of L2 instruction. This is particularly true for written corrective feedback since many L2 writing researchers are concerned with whether WCF is able to assist L2 students to improve the overall effectiveness of their writing.

Writing is not a novelty for students, but writing linguistically correct is novel to them. Especially for those who have majored in English, inevitably they must learn and focus on how they should write. Students that learn native language like English will have difficulty to understand grammar, punctuation, spelling error and also vocabulary. That’s why error always occur when they writing English. To improve their ability in writing, corrective feedback holds a very crucial part in it. Corrective feedback is any teacher behavior following an error that minimally attempts to inform the learner of the fact of error. This department means that there will be several outcomes and responses from the students whether a realization of self-correction or not. It is to find out either correcting the inaccurate application or giving information about where the error has occurred and how it may be corrected. Therefor, if corrective feedback is given to them at least it will improve their writing skill.

Language experts who believe in the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis claim that learners make errors in the second language because they are affected by their first language. In other words, their errors can be avoided if they realize the differences between the two languages. Error correction is needed for this reason Also, the audio lingual approach encourages the teaching of a second language by memorizing dialogues, studying all the grammatical rules, and avoiding the making of errors. SLA scholars found that even first language (L1) students would make a lot of errors during their first language acquisition. Therefore, they believed that students’ errors were just a natural part of their language learning process. It means that teachers should tolerate some of students’ errors so as to help them become more confident in expressing themselves using the second language. Also, errors are just as a signal which shows students’ progress in the language learning process. In the field, usually teacher give feedback to student in direct and indirect way, sometimes they giving direct feedback maybe if the time is enough, and indirect when it is a take home task. Which one the most effective one is still debatable.

There are on the other hand countless compelling reasons for teacher now not only to proceed the practice of giving error feedback and imparting editing-strategy education however to are trying to find approaches to enhance the effectiveness of these practices. The first motive is that some works of research have proved that written correction can also make contributions to the learners’ development in a brief duration of time. In a these days completed study, it was published that ninety two second language writers, having acquired their teachers’ feedback, managed to right the mistakes they had committed. It additionally correctly point out that there is little proof that error comments helps college students enhance their accuracy over the lengthy term and that if students do exhibit improvement, this may probably be attributed to different elements such as additional writing exercise and publicity to the L2. Indeed, it is difficult to measure long-term improvement in students’ written accuracy and to attribute such development, if any, in the main to trainer feedback. Nonetheless, it obviously might also be argued that long time period development is unlikely except observable short term improvement, at least in the capacity to attend to and right blunders when pointed out by way of teachers. Thus, this small but booming research line, whilst it does now not reply all theoretical questions related to error correction, ought to no longer be overlooked. In the second place, as some researchers point out, college students think about their teachers’ feedback on their mistakes as necessary and assume that it contributes to their writing improvement considers this argument and responds that “students consider in correction but that does not suggest that teachers ought to provide it to them” and that teachers should, as an alternative than giving into this scholar desire, assist students find options for the absence of grammar correction. Finally language writing teachers ought to dig deep some strategies contributing the novices to grow independent. It can be due to the fact accuracy is essential in the actual world to which scholar writers go. Both anecdotal and lookup proof suggests that at least in some settings, university professors and employers find ESL errors distracting and stigmatizing. Student writers’ lexical, morphological, and syntactic accuracy is necessary due to the fact a lack of accuracy may both intrude with the comprehensibility of their message and mark them as insufficient users of the language. Writing instructors surely have some duty to arm their college students with the knowledge, techniques and recourses they will need to feature efficaciously outside of the ESL writing classroom. Though research can also nevertheless be inconclusive as to the quality approaches to accomplish these goals, it looks clear that if L2 writing teachers do no longer take the responsibility, college students are no longer in all likelihood to advance their modifying abilities and established accuracy. In fact, while it is fundamental to admit that the research database on error correction is not comprehensive yet and that researchers have drawn oppositions to error correction in EFL, most instructors nevertheless count on that error correction, grammar instruction, and editing-strategy coaching to are useful to improve the students’ writing ability. As it was mentioned earlier, there is disagreement amongst the students on the necessity and usefulness of instructor feedback. It take problem with remembering that whether comments and formal instruction can end result in the students’ improvement in written accuracy over time. Some factors out that primarily based on the adequacy of trainer feedback, it is vital to tackle a charge that has been leveled by means of numerous researchers and reviewers: that a essential purpose why research have failed to show high-quality consequences for error correction on scholar accuracy is that the comments given with the aid of teachers is incomplete, idiosyncratic, erratic, and inaccurate. Some located that over three-quarters of the error corrections and advice about shape and content proposed with the aid of teachers have been incorporated into subsequent drafts. This factors to the reality that students take trainer comments and remarks very seriously. Even go so a long way as to lament that the excessive stages of incorporation of teacher feedback and the diligence with which these remarks will now not be ignored, locations a burden on instructors to make sure that, “feedback is helpful, or at least does no harm!”. While the find out about conducted by means of indeed makes the case that trainer commentary is valued and taken significantly by means of some students, other researchers have remarked that some students may not even read the recommendation and comments furnished with the aid of the trainer unless explicitly suggested to do so. These extensive levels of uptake strategies by way of students’ factor to the want for instructors to carefully consider the sorts of comments that are being supplied and whether or not it is critical to explicitly instruct college students to take time to read the comments. There is nothing more disheartening for a trainer who has spent hour’s carefully crafting feedback than to pass by lower back a venture and watch as his or her students casually tuck their papers away into a file without taking extra than a moment to casually look at the purple marks on the page. What is it that makes comments in one case so profitable while in another case an exercise in futility? Until recently, much of the research into students’ perceptions of feedback, as properly as the outcomes of trainer feedback, has been in a decontextualized manner. So, while we comprehend that students have a tendency to see trainer remarks as useful and a means to assist enhance their writing, we know almost as lots about the kind of feedback being supplied by using teachers as we do the contexts in which they are being presented. That is to say, we know very little about either. It illustrate, a extensive range of elements can contribute to the success or failure of teacher’s feedback. Classroom contexts such as category size and grade level; educational contexts such as product or procedure oriented writing classes; even the sort of writing itself, whether it be journals, essays or tests, have to be considered when making an attempt to decide the efficacy of teacher feedback. Other research has pointed to the kind of feedback being furnished as having a vital position in shaping students’ perception. Local or global feedback, peer or self-evaluation and direct or oblique error remarks have all been shown to contribute extensively to students’ perceptions of teacher comments practices. Perhaps the most tough elements to consider when evaluating the success of comments are person learner traits such as linguistic and educational backgrounds, cultural differences, proficiency with the target language and even motivations for taking a class, even points to the quantity of exposure to the goal language (unrelated to L2 proficiency) as effecting students’ attitudes and utilization of trainer commentary.

Contextual variables in written corrective feedback can be divided into three broad categories: learner, methodological, and situational variables (Chen et al. 2016:7). The learner variables refer to students’ individual differences. These include their L1 background, their perceptions of WCF, and their individual learning style. The methodological variables include different designs of WCF activities. Situational variables are associated with the institutional context – curriculum design, class size, frequency of class meetings, and teacher variables. It made a distinction between “form-and-accuracy contexts” and “meaning-and-fluency contexts”. The study suggested that error correction is more likely to occur in form-and-accuracy contexts. Among the variable categories, the situational variables may be the most important yet the least studied variables. Although previous studies have demonstrated that WCF is effective in FL, L2, and immersion settings, we do not yet know to what extent situational contexts are able to mediate the effectiveness of WCF in various contexts.

Ferris (2004:29) states that the definition of Written Corrective Feedback (henceforth WCF) Through language teaching, particular in writing, when giving comments for learners’ text, second language (L2) writing teachers give feedback on a wide range of problems. They have to focus on writing’s content in which ideas are existed and organized, and how to choose appropriate vocabulary, or better structures in their writing and so on. Thus, the kind of WCF has made the big attention on researchers, these ways in order to response to L2 learners were known as example of WCF or error correction. Some define corrective feedback as “any feedback provided to a learners, from any source that contains evidence of learner error of language form. It may be oral or written, implicit or explicit”. Although the term ‘error correction’ has also been used instead of ‘error treatment’ to refer to teachers’ responses to learner errors, students prefer the terms feedback on error, corrective feedback, or error treatment, which reflect the observations that what the teacher can do is to provide information to the learner, but it is the learner who will (or will not) eventually `correct´ the error.

Also, WCF can be in an electronic form, where the teacher indicates an error in the learner’s soft copy work, and provides a hyperlink to a concordance file that provides examples to correct usage (Ellis, 2012:26). Electronic feedback seems modern and current but it has several drawbacks. One, it can only work in an environment where both the teacher and the learner are computer literates and have access to computers. Two, for this CF to work effectively and efficiently, there should be constant and effective access to the Internet. This is so because the teacher may have to provide a hyperlink to an Internet source which provides information about the error. Three, in an environment like Ghana, where there is frequently power outage, this type of CF might not be successful in terms of providing speedy CF. Four, providing electronic feedback on the soft copies of scripts of large numbers of students could be a Herculean task. Again, WCF can be in direct or indirect form.

Ellis (2012:15) explored the effect of direct and metalinguistic feedback and found a stronger effect for the former than the latter. It reported that the students who received direct corrective feedback with written and oral meta-linguistic feedback, along with the group that received direct corrective feedback with no meta-linguistic feedback, outperformed the control group who did not receive any feedback whatsoever. Similarly, Abualsha’r and AbuSeileek (2014:3) found that the students who received corrective feedback delivered via computer about error types while writing essays performed significantly better than those who did not receive any corrective feedback whatsoever. It found that students receiving direct error correction and metalinguistic feedback outperformed students receiving only metalinguistic feedback. For example, the students who received direct error correction made fewer pronoun and lexical errors.

Specifically, little is known about the interaction among situational, methodological and Chen et al. Asian-Pacific Journal of Second and Foreign Language Education (2016) 1:5 Page 4 of 17 learner variables and how, collectively or individually, each of these factors mediate the effectiveness of feedback. For example, factors such as curriculum design and class size may constrain how WCF activities are implemented. Their effects, however, may be closely related to learner variables. Learner variables, such as motivation, are dynamic phenomena driven by learners’ personal emotions. These variables are also driven by instructional settings. In their interviews with EFL learners from Mainland China, it illustrated how learner engagement with WCF is mediated by the interactions between individual and contextual factors. Situational contexts may also influence how learners and teachers understand WCF activities. Previous studies have extensively shown the discrepancies between students’ and teachers’ beliefs of WCF. For instance, in their examination of ESL learners’ metalinguistic reflections. Although previous studies have underscored learners’ positive attitude vis-à-vis (or in regard to) WCF, these studies have also found that students have their own preferences and opinions about certain types of WCF.

Based on the explanation above, written corrective feedback is there to help students to understand their error and established their skill in writing and diminish the same mistake, which written corrective feedback (WCF) has 6 type, such as:

1. Direct
2. Indirect
3. Metalinguistic
4. Focus
5. Electronic
6. Reformulation

This research will focus on the first type of WCF that is direct feedback, direct feedback is a strategy of providing feedback to students to help them correct their errors by providing the correct linguistic form (Ferris, 2006:5) or linguistic structure of the target language. A feedback strategy usually used by teachers is direct feedback.. Direct feedback is usually given by teachers, upon noticing a grammatical mistake, by providing the correct answer or the expected response above or near the linguistic or grammatical error. Direct feedback has the advantage that it provides explicit information about the correct form that adds that direct feedback may be appropriate for beginner students, or in a situation when errors are ‘untreatable’ that are not susceptible to self-correction such as sentence structure and word choice, and when teachers want to direct student attention to error patterns that require student correction. There are several studies employing the use of direct feedback on student errors have been conducted to determine its effect on student writing accuracy with variable results. Robb conducted a study involving 134 Japanese EFL students using direct feedback and three types of indirect feedback strategies. Results of their study showed no significant differences across different types of feedback but the results suggested that direct feedback was less time-consuming on directing students’ attention to surface errors.

The example of direct feedback is when the lecturer ask the students to make a narrative or report about the news within certain time. The lecturer will directly give correction of the students. It can be like crossing the word that is wrong and then give the correct word above it. This case of direct CF the teacher giving the student with the correct form. This might take a number of different forms—crossing out the unnecessary word, phrase, or morpheme, inserting a missing word or morpheme, and writing the correct form above or near the erroneous form. Example 1 illustrates direct correction based on Ellis (2012:17)



Direct CF has the advantage that provides learners with vivid guidance about how to correct their errors. This is clearly desirable if learners do not know what the correct form is (i.e. are not capable of self-correcting the error).

The advent of the manner strategy in L1 and L2 writing guidance led to a reduced focal point on student errors. Since then, a variety of scholars have wondered the appropriateness of this trend, some conservatively noting that L2 writers can also be wonderful enough from L2 writers to advantage extraordinary pedagogical strategies argues that there is no convincing lookup proof that error correction ever helps pupil writers, as error correction as generally practiced overlooks SLA insights about how special elements of language are acquired, and that sensible troubles associated to teachers and students ability and willingness to give and obtain error correction might also differ. It response to others that argues that his conclusions are premature, especially due to the fact the body of lookup evidence he cites is inadequate and inconsistent in its methodology and concern characteristics, and that in addition research on error correction is essential before ultimate guidelines can be made to ESL writing teachers.

From the explanation above, we could see the error oftenly done by students in order to write in English. Thus, corrective feedback is expected to assit student in fixing their mistakes and also to improve their ability in writing. The next explanation will talk about the type of written corrective feedback which is also very vital to understand for this lookup due to the fact the research need to be rich of information and it can additionally exhibit the perception of written corrective feedback that the students desire the most. Having come up with the reality that error correction is incredibly effective; researchers have targeted on exclusive types of feedback. There are various methods through which teachers can supply their students with feedback.

**2.1.2.1 Types of WCF**

Based on Rod Ellis (2016), there are 6 types of Written Corrective feedback, such as:

1. Direct CF means that the teacher provides the students with the correct form, this case of direct CF the teacher giving the student with the correct form. This might take a number of different forms—crossing out the unnecessary word, phrase, or morpheme, inserting a missing word or morpheme, and writing the correct form above or near the erroneous form. For instance direct CF has the advantage that provides learners with vivid guidance about how to correct their errors. This is clearly desirable if learners do not know what the correct form is (i.e. are not capable of self-correcting the error). Ferris (2001:65) suggest direct CF is probably better than indirect CF with student writers of low levels of proficiency. Thus, the disadvantage is that it requires minimal processing on the part of the learner and thus, although it might help them to produce the correct form when they revise their writing, it may not contribute to long-term learning. However, Sheen (2007:14) suggests that direct CF can be effective in promoting acquisition of specific grammatical features.
2. Indirect CF means that the teacher indicates that an error exists but does not provide the correction for the students, this type divided into two, (a) indicating plus 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, for instance, indirect CF involves indicating that the student has made an error without actually correcting it. This can be done by underlining the errors or using cursors to show omissions in the student’s text or by placing a cross in the margin next to the line containing the error. In effect, this involves deciding whether or not to show the precise location of the error.
3. Metalinguistic CF means the teacher provides some kind of metalinguistic clue as to the nature of the error, this type divided into two, (a) Use of error code: Teacher writes codes in the margin, for instance, 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 compared the effects of direct corrective feedback and direct corrective feedback plus metalinguistic corrective feedback. For instance, metalinguistic CF involves providing learners with some form of small or explicit comment about the nature of the errors they have made. The explicit comment can take two forms. Thus, the most common is the use of error codes. These consist of abbreviated labels for different kinds of errors. The labels can be placed over the location of the error in the text or in the margin. The latter case, the exact location of the error may or may not be shown. In the former, the student has to work out the correction needed from the clue provided while in the latter the student needs to first locate the error and work out the correction.. A major issue in error codes is how delicate the categories should be.
4. The focus of the feedback means this concerns whether the teacher attempts to correct all of the students’ error or selects one or some specific types of error to correct. This distinction is applied to every of the higher than choices. This type divided into two, (a) Unfocused CF: means it is extensive; (b) Focused CF: means it is intensive. Most studies have investigated unfocused CF, about traditions in SLA studies of CF, used focused CF. For instance the teachers can elect to correct all of the students’ errors, which used the unfocused CF. Alternatively they can select specific error types for correction. For instance, in the above examples the teacher could have chosen to correct just article errors. The differences between unfocused and focused CF applies to all of the previously discussed options. Processing corrections is likely to be more difficult in unfocused CF as the learners are required to attend to a variety of errors and thus is unlikely to be able to reflect much on each error. In focused CF may prove more effective as the learner is able to examine multiple corrections of a single error and thus obtain the rich evidence they need to both understand why what they wrote was erroneous and to acquire the correct form. If learning is dependent on attention to form, then it is reasonable to assume that the more intensive the attention, the more likely the correction is to lead to learning. Focused metalinguistic CF may be especially helpful in this respect as it promotes not just attention but also understanding of the nature of the error. However, unfocused CF has the advantage of addressing a range of errors, so while it might not be as effective in assisting learners to acquire specific features as focused CF in the short term, it may prove superior in the long run. The bulk of the CF studies completed to date have investigated unfocused CF.
5. Electronic feedback means that the teacher indicates an error and provides a hyperlink to the concordance file that provides an example of correct usage, for instance, extensive corpora of written English (either carefully constructed or simply available via search engines such as Google) might be used to provide students with assistance in their writing. This assistance can be open by means of software programs while students write or it can be utilized as a form of the feedback. Electronic resources provide learners with the means where they can appropriate the usage of more experienced writers. It stated an approach based on a software program called Mark My Words. This provides teachers with an electronic store of approximately 100 recurrent lexico-grammatical and style errors that he found occurred frequently in the writing of Chinese students.
6. Reformulation means that it is consists of a native speaker’s reworking of the students’ entire text to make the language seems as native-like as possible while keeping the content of the original intact, which compared the effect of direct correction and reformulation on students’ revision of their text. For instance, the final option we will consider is similar to the use of concordances in that it aims to provide learners with a resource that they can use to correct their errors but places the responsibility for the final decision about whether and how to correct on the students themselves. It involves a native-speaker rewriting the student’s text in such a way as ‘to preserve as many of the writer’s ideas as possible, while expressing them in his/her own words so as to make the piece sound native-like.

### 2.1.3 Error in Writing

Making errors in writing is a natural thing for every student, this is because of the limitations of science by these students. The thing that can be done is to provide feedback on the students' writing, so they can improve it in the future. Therefore each student has their own preference for what method they prefer to receive the feedback. Errors in writing is the most natural thing and it is evidently attached to the mankind. But, how do we define an error. There are different definitions of the word and as Ellis (2012:77) explains learners make errors in both comprehension and production, the first being rather scantly investigated. Children learning their first language (Ll), adult native speakers, and second language learners, they all make errors which have a different name according to the group committing the errors. Children's errors have been seen as ‘transitional forms’, the native speakers' ones are called ‘slips of the tongue’ and the second language (L2) errors are considered ‘unwanted forms’.

An error is a linguistic form or combination of forms which in the same context and under similar conditions of production would, in all likelihood, will not produced by the' native speakers’ counterparts. In the second language teaching learning process the error has always been regarded as something negative which must be avoided. As a consequence, teachers have always adopted a repressive attitude towards it.

The study of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) can be said to have passed through a series of phases defined by the modes of inquiry researchers have utilized in their work: *contrastive analysis, error analysis, performance analysis, and discourse analysis.* As we look into the roots and development of error analysis, we can first overview contrastive analysis to gain better insight into how error analysis became more popular among SLA researchers.

**2.1.4 English as a Foreign Language**

English as a Foreign Language, or EFL, refers to learning and using English as an additional language in a non-English speaking country. It can be compared with ESL and ESOL, which refer mainly to learning English as a new resident in an English-speaking country. EFL materials tend to be written for learners either studying English in their own country or on a short course in an English-speaking country. ESL materials tend to focus on ‘survival English' for people now living in an English-speaking country.

ESL is based on the premise that English is the language of the community and the school and that students have access to English models. EFL is usually learned in environments where the language of the community and the school is not English.

Wenden (2016:8) states that using learners' retrospective reports to investigate and classify learners' metacognitive knowledge about their language learning experiences. In her interviews with 25 adult ESL students about their English learning in varied social settings, it found that, in addition to their own language learning strategies,

 Others developed an instrument, Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) to assess students' beliefs about language learning. Recent researchers have examined learners' beliefs and metacognitive knowledge about language learning for different purposes. Second language learners' metacognitive knowledge and developed a questionnaire to measure students' metacognitive knowledge in language learning. The questionnaire for learner training in a self-directed program. They focused on learners' beliefs about effective strategy.

* + 1. **EFL Learner**

EFL is regarded as English as a Foreign Language. EFL means learning English in non-English-speaking countries. Iwai (2011:5) defined that EFL learner refers to those who learn English in non-English speaking countries. (E.g. Japanese people who learn English in their country are EFL learners. From the above, EFL is mainly used by non-native English learners, such as, Chinese learners of English in China. The English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learner is someone who is learning English Language in a country where English is not the official or the dominant language used by everybody.

* 1. **Conceptual Framework and Relevant Research**
		1. **Conceptual Framework**

As discussed above, writing in English as is very important for a learner, especially for EFL learners. A foreign language is considered as a difficult skill to acquire by most learners. That is why many students are not really interested to the writing activity. Therefore, many of the students cannot write in English, even the simplest one. Most of the learners only got a little exposure from this language. They either find it difficult to know the real example of English or the practice of this language in class. All of those conditions should be improve, one of the way is by giving them corrective feedback when they do the writing so they can reflect and their mistake through the feedback.

EFL learners’ perception of Written Corrective Feedback presents a key variable influencing the role of WCF for two major reasons. First, if students may construe instructional techniques in different ways than the teacher may have expected. This disconnect can impair learning effectiveness. However, students’ general favorable attitude toward WCF, as evidenced by previous studies, informs instructional best practices. This observation offers more supporting evidence in terms of the value of WCF in the ongoing academic debates

## 2.2.2 Relevant Research

Relevant research are used as the references to conduct the research. There are several relevant studies used as the references in this research.

First, a study conducted by Sibo Chen, Hossein Nassaji and Qian Liu (2016), “*EFL learners’ perceptions and preferences of written corrective feedback: a case study of university students from Mainland China”*. The paper reports on an exploratory study that investigated learners’ perceptions and preferences of WCF in an EFL setting. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected from 64 intermediate, advanced-intermediate, and advanced English learners across three proficiency levels (intermediate, advanced-intermediate, and advanced) in a major provincial university of Mainland China.

 Second, Shintani *et al.* (2014) explore “*The effect of direct and metalinguistic feedback and found a strong effect for the former than the latter”*. Reported that the students who received direct corrective feedback with written and oral metalinguistic feedback, along with the group that received direct corrective feedback with no meta-linguistic feedback, outperformed the control group who did not receive any feedback whatsoever.

 Third, Mawlawi Diab (2015)*, “Effectiveness of Written Corrective Feedback: Does Type of Error and Type of Correction Matter?* *Research Gate*.” found that students receiving direct error correction and metalinguistic feedback outperformed students receiving only metalinguistic feedback. For example, the students who received direct error correction made fewer pronoun and lexical errors.

 From the third relevant studies reviewed by the researcher, it is found that fourth studies were conducted in Universities and one was conducted in High School. In other words, the participants of the studies were the university students and lower education students.