

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL REVIEW

A. WRITING

a. Definition of Writing

In English language learning, there are four basic skills, i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Those skills are divided into receptive skills and productive skills. The receptive skills are reading and listening, because learners do not need to produce language to do these, they receive and understand it. They can be contrasted with the productive skills of speaking and writing. In the process of learning new language, learners begin with receptive understanding of the new items, then later move on to productive use. Learners usually learn to listen first, then to speak, then to read, and finally to write.

According to Sokolik (2003), writing can also be defined by series of contrast. It is both physical and mental activity that is aimed to express and impress. It means that writing is the physical activity of committing words or ideas into passage and also a mental work of inventing ideas, thinking about how to express and organize them into statements and paragraphs which enables the readers as the audience in understanding the ideas of the written work. Besides, writing is also both a process and product since the writers experience cyclical process of writing, which is by imagining, organizing,

drafting, editing, reading and rereading. It means that in order to produce a good writing, the students have to experience the writing process itself.

According to Axelrod and Coopers' (1985), "Writing is a complex process and as such contains element of mystery and surprise. But we know and believe that writing is a skill that anyone can learn to manage".

Marianne (1991) said, writing is "the ability to express one's ideas in written form in a second or foreign language". It means that writing is an activity to express our ideas in written form.

On the other side, Barnet and Stubbs (1983) said that writing as a physical act, it requires material and energy. And like most physical acts, to be performed fully, to bring pleasure, to both performer and audience, it requires practice".

From definitions above, it can be said that writing can be distinguished from other skills as the most difficult one. There are many factors influencing writing to be a good one such as grammatical, vocabularies, punctuation, and spelling knowledge which must be integrated to be a paragraph.

From the ideas previously, the researcher conclude that writing is more than a medium communication. It is a way of remembering and a way of thinking. Because of that, writing is not easy. It needs a hard work. In writing we have to produce words, phrase, sentences, and paragraph at the same time. It is a way of learning. None of us can write much of interest without first thinking, probing, observing, asking question, experimenting, and reading.

b. Writing Process

Writing is never a one-step-action; it is a process that has several steps. According to Blanchard and Root (2003: 41), there are at least three steps involved in a writing process.

1) Step one: Prewriting

Prewriting is the thinking, talking, reading, and writing we do about our topic before we write a first draft. Prewriting is a way of warming up our brain before we write, just as we warm up our body before we exercise. On the other hand said that pre-writing is any activity in the classroom that encourages students to write. It stimulates thoughts for getting started. In fact, it moves students away from having to face blank page toward generating tentative ideas and gathering information for writing.

2) Writing

When we write the first draft of our paragraph, use the ideas we generated from prewriting as a guide. As you write, remember to: (a) begin with a topic sentence that states the main idea, (b) include several sentences that support the main idea, (c) stick to the topic, (d) arrange the sentences so that the order of ideas makes sense, (e) use

signal words to help the reader understand how the ideas in your paragraph are connected (Blanchard & Root: 2003).

3) Revising

It is almost impossible to write a perfect paragraph on the first try. The first try is called the first draft. After you complete the first draft, you must look for ways to improve it. This step is called revising (Blanchard & Root: 2003).

When students revise, they review their text on the basis of the feedback given in the previous stage. They reexamine what was written to see how effectively they have communicated their meanings to the reader.

c. Purposes of Writing

When the writers do their writing, of course they have some purposes. They have to consider the purpose of their writing since this will influence, not only the type of text they wish to produce, but including the language which they use, and the information that they choose. In addition, there are really only four common purposes in writing they are: *to inform*, *to explain*, *to persuade*, and *to amuse others* (Robert, 2006).

1) *to inform*

To inform is to transmit necessary information about the subject to the readers, and usually this means just telling the readers what the facts are or what happened.

Although informative writing is the simplest kind of writing, it is also one of the most important, because information lays a foundation for other writing purposes.

2) *to explain*

Writing to explain means writing to take what is unclear and make it clear. In explanatory writing, a writer who understands a complex topic must take sure that his readers understand it as well. All of us use several common methods of explaining something to another person in our everyday conversation, and these same techniques can provide basic strategies for organizing an explanation in writing (Robert, 2006).

3) *to persuade*

Complaints to the rent board about our landlord, letters of application for jobs, essay on examinations are all likely to involve writing persuasively. Your task in persuasion is to convince your readers to accept the main idea, even though it may be controversial (Robert, 2006).

4) *to amuse others*

Writing to amuse gives you an opportunity to bring pleasure to others. If you find pleasure in writing to amuse, it will come from knowing that you succeed in bringing pleasure to others. You can be funny, but you should

also be good-humored. This means having sympathy for human frailty rather than a contempt for anyone or anything that seems different from what you are accustomed to (Robert, 2006).

B. DESCRIPTIVE TEXT

a. Definition of Descriptive Text

According to Oshima and Hogue (1997:50), descriptive writing appeals to the senses, so it tells how something looks, feels, smells, tastes, and/ or sounds. In addition, a good description is like a “word picture”; the reader can imagine the object, place, or person in his or her mind. A writer of a good description is like an artist who paints a picture that can be “seen” clearly in the mind of the reader. The following list contains descriptive words for each of the five senses. Note that some of the words are more specific than others.

Table 2.1. List of descriptive words (George Brain, 1996)

Sight	Sound	Smell	Touch	Taste
Light	Noise	Musty	Soft	Salty
Glare	Bang	Fresh	Velvety	Sweet
Moonlight	Tinkle	Rain washed	Sharp	Sour

Based on the table above, we can convey the essence of the subject by using sensory details to appeal to our reader’s imagination. As much as possible, we should try to evoke all five senses.

b. Purposes of Descriptive Text

As social beings, we want to share our experience, so we write to others to describe things such as vacations, childhood homes, and people who we encounter. We even use description to persuade others to think or act in particular ways. Description enables us to entertain, express feelings, relate experience, inform, and persuade. Although it can serve a variety of purposes, description is most often expressive, so it most often helps writers share their perceptions. As human beings, we have a compelling desire to connect with other people by sharing our experiences with them.

c. Kinds of Descriptive Text

1) Description of people

People are different, and writing description of people is different. You are probably already aware of some of the complications because you have often been asked, “What’s so-and-like?” In replying, you might resort to identification, an impression, or a character sketch, depending on the situation. (Michael and Jean, 1996)

2) Description of places

The description must be organized so that the reader can vividly imagine the scene being described. To make the paragraph more interesting, you can add a controlling idea that states an attitude or impression about the place being described. The arrangement of the details in your description depend on your subject and purpose. (Michael and Jean, 1996)

3) Description of Things

To write a description about something, the writer must have a good imagination about the thing that will be described. Besides, to make our subject as interesting and as vivid to our readers as they are to us: using proper nouns and effective verbs. (Michael and Jean, 1996)

4) The Structure of Descriptive Text

Wardiman (2008) stated that there are some aspects in the structure of descriptive text, they are:

The generic structures of a description are as follows:

- (1) Identification: identifies the phenomenon to be described.
- (2) Description of features: describes features in order of importance.
 - a. Parts/things (physical appearance)
 - b. Qualities (degree of beauty, excellence, or worth/value)
 - c. Other characteristics (prominent aspects that are unique).

The generic features of description are:

- (1) Verb in the present tense
- (2) Adjective to describe the features of the subject
- (3) Topic sentences to begin paragraphs and organize the various aspects of the description.

The factual description scaffold

- (1) A general opening statement in the first paragraph

- a. This statement introduces the subject of the description to the audience.
- b. It can give the audience brief details about the when, where, who, or what of the subject.

(2) A series of paragraphs about the subject

- a. Each paragraph usually begins with a topic sentence.
- b. The topic sentence previews the details that will be contained in the remainder of the paragraph.
- c. Each paragraph should describe one feature of the subject.
- d. These paragraphs build the description of the subject

(3) A concluding paragraph (optional)

- a. The concluding paragraph signals the end of the text.

C. DIRECT CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

a. Definition of Direct Corrective Feedback

According to Ferris (2010) (as cited in Bitchener & Knoch, 2009), direct corrective feedback is the provision of the correct linguistic form or structure by the teacher to the student above the linguistic error. It is a form of written feedback in which teachers provide correct form by crossing out an unnecessary word, phrase or morpheme, inserting a missing word, and writing the correct form or structure above or near to the erroneous form. As already noted, there is another type of direct corrective feedback named indirect corrective feedback.

This indirect corrective feedback is the one given by the teacher to indicate that an error exists but does not provide the correction. This takes the form of underlining and use of cursors to show omissions in the student's text. However, Ferris and Roberts (2001) suggested that direct corrective feedback is probably better than indirect written corrective feedback with writers of low levels of language proficiency since it provides the learners with explicit guidance about how to correct their errors.

b. Purposes of Direct Corrective Feedback

Ahmed (2012) stated that there are three main purposes of direct corrective feedback. The first one is to enable students to revise their own writing. The second is to assist students to acquire correct English. Then, the third is to provide learners to correct errors. Besides, Freedman (1987) also believes that if students fail in well performance in writing, further feedback is necessary to help the students take correct actions about their writing in order to improve it and reach an acceptable level of performance. It is clear that written corrective feedback is used to provide students with explicit guidance about how to correct their errors and help the students to improve their accuracy in writing English.

c. Advantages of Direct Corrective Feedback

Bitchener and Knoch (2009) suggest that only direct corrective feedback provides the students with explicit information that is necessary for testing hypotheses about the target language. Meanwhile, errors made by the learners

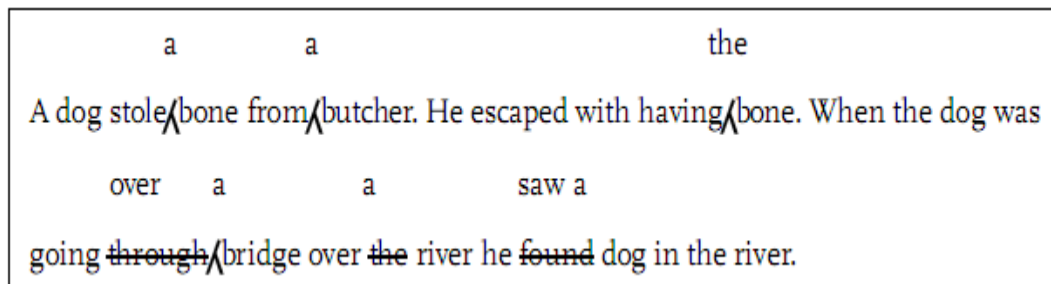
might indicate that the learners actively learn the target language, as they occur whenever a hypothesis tested by the learners does not work. Some researchers argue that indirect corrective feedback might be less beneficial to lower proficiency language learners because they lack the level of meta-linguistic awareness that is necessary to correct their errors (Ferris, 2004).

The learners whose errors are corrected indirectly do not know whether their own hypothesized corrections are accurate or not. Besides, Ferris (2010) explains that direct correction might be considered as the most advantageous approach since it provides the kind of efficient and explicit input necessary for acquisition. It is efficient since it enables learners to instantly internalize the correct form as provided by their teacher. However, there might be a disadvantage of direct correction in which 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. Nevertheless, there is a study showing the effectiveness of direct corrective feedback done by Chandler (2003), which reports that in a study with intermediate ESL college students, there were significant gains in writing accuracy for the students who received direct written corrective feedback over those who received indirect written corrective feedback after 10 weeks of treatment on five essays. The students preferred direct correction because it was the fastest and easiest way for them. It is also stated by Leki (1991) who found that her students preferred direct corrective feedback. Hence, based on the

studies above, it can be concluded that the direct written corrective feedback is superior to indirect written corrective feedback.

d. Forms of Direct Corrective Feedback

Ellis (2009) stated that direct corrective feedback was beneficial in providing students with explicit guidance about how to correct their error. In this feedback, he provided the students with correct form. This took a number of different forms like crossing out unnecessary word, phrase, or clause, and writing the correct form near the error form. The example of direct corrective feedback, Ellis (2009:99) can be seen from this figure below;



Direct corrective feedback takes a variety of forms (Bitchener and Ferris, 2012) such as a) cross-outs: when the teacher omits any wrong addition from students' original texts, b) rewrites: when the teacher rewrites a word, phrase or a sentence, providing the correct spelling, structure or form on students' original texts and c) additions: when the teacher adds any missing items on students' original texts (*e.g.* prefix, suffix, article, preposition, word, etc).

e. Types of Corrective Feedback

There are many types of feedback in the teaching-learning process. Ellis (2009a, p.98) stated that there are six differences types of feedback on error provided by teachers and the students' immediate responses to them (called uptake). Those feedbacks are explained in the following:

Table 2.2. Types of Corrective Feedback

Types of CF	Description
1. Direct CF	The teacher provides the student with the correct form.
2. Indirect CF	The teacher indicates that an error Exists but does not provide the correction.
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.
3. Metalinguistic CF	The teacher provides some kind of metalinguistic clue to the nature of the error
A: Use of error code	Teacher writes codes in the margin (e.g. ww = wrong word; art = article).
B: Brief grammatical Description	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 CF	Unfocused CF is extensive.
B: Focused CF	Focused CF 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.
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