

学位論文要約

**A Comparative Study on the Effectiveness of Written Corrective Feedback  
in Improving Indonesian and Japanese Students' Writing Achievement**

広島大学大学院 教育学研究科 博士課程後期

教育学習科学専攻 教科教育学分野 英語教育学領域

D170325 SONNY ELFIYANTO

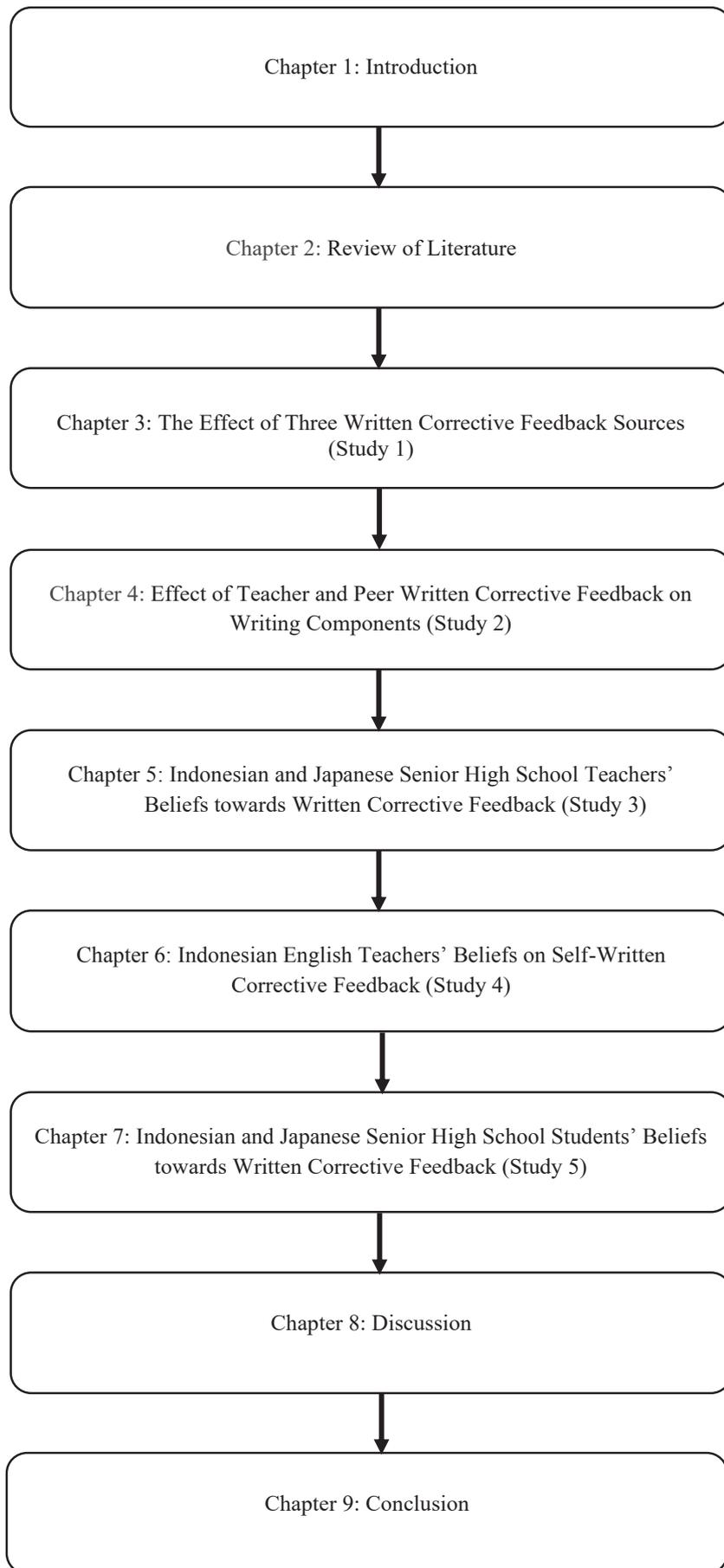


Figure 1. Dissertation Outline

## **1. Introduction**

### **1.1 Purposes and Background of the Study**

This study is examined the effectiveness of Written Corrective Feedback (WCF) sources (teacher, peer, and self) in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) area, especially for senior high school students in Indonesia and Japan. Besides, this study will also explore the beliefs on WCF from teachers' and students' points of view. Thus, their points of view need to be researched to avoid the students failing to understand the feedback given and do the correct revision.

As we know, among four basic skills in learning English, writing is considered the least important to be taught, since it seems very challenging and time-consuming, especially dealing with checking and providing feedback. Thus, writing is considered as the most challenging skill for learners to master (Richards & Renandya, 2002). Tillema (2012) said that writing is one of the most important educational success skills, even though it is one of the most challenging skills to be learned.

Being able to write has been considered as an essential language skill for English language learning. As stated in the Senior High School Curriculum (Kemendikbud, 2013), Indonesian students must have skills in compiling and understanding the meaning of oral and written texts, using text structures in order and coherently as well as linguistic elements accurately, acceptably, and fluently. According to Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT, 2018) in Japan, it is stated that students need to be able to write and convey information, thoughts, and feelings about everyday topics using basic words and sentences, paying attention to logic, if lots of support is utilized in terms of the words and sentences used and prior preparation, and to be able to write and convey information, thoughts, and feelings about social topics using basic words, phrases, and sentences based on what they have heard and read, paying attention to logic, lots of support are utilized in terms of words, phrases, and sentences to use and preparation in advance.

Nunan (2001) says that writing is the process of thinking to invent ideas and organize them into various written forms. Additionally, learning writing entails basic familiarity with higher-level subskills of planning and organizing and lower subskills of spelling, word choice, and mechanics (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

Many years, researchers have examined the effects of different types of CF (Corrective Feedback) on adult L2 writers with results that do not fundamentally agree with one another. Truscott (1996), who started the debate, found it to be enormously ineffective and even in some cases harmful to do CF, on the other hand, Ferris (1999) claimed that CF is very recommendable and should, therefore, have a place in L2 writing classes. Still, what is stated about CF for adult L2 learners, mostly in university area does not necessarily apply to high school students, especially in Indonesia and Japan.

From the point of view of teachers and students are also needed to be deeply researched. As we know that the gap between teachers and students can be minimized if we know what both really want about WCF. Teachers' and students' beliefs can affect the teaching strategy that applied by the teachers in the classroom. Recent studies on L2 and EFL WCF have found that students usually cannot assess or check their own writings, even though writing guidance is provided. This condition is partly because the students have never been in the teachers' position. Therefore, many students are unable to precisely assess their own writing products (Bjork, 1999). As a result, giving WCF is not only correcting students' errors, but it should also give information for teachers and students, provide students with advice about learning, language input, a form of motivation, and lead students toward autonomy.

Thus, this study's results are expected to give a valuable contribution to the EFL researchers, who intend to do some researches in English writing, especially in the WCF area. In one case, it is expected to be beneficial for future researchers in WCF area as their guide. Since this study is focused

on improving students' achievement in writing, future teachers can employ WCF in their classrooms. Further, this study hopefully, can also help senior high school students, especially in Indonesia and Japan. Thus, they have better writing achievement by implementing WCF in his/her class, especially in writing essays.

## **2. Review of Literature**

### **2.1 The Nature of Writing**

Writing is functional communication, making learners possible to create imagined worlds of their own design (Kern 2000). It means that, through writing, learners can express thought, feeling, ideas, experiences, etc., to convey a specific purpose. The purpose of writing is to give some information.

Meyers (2005) said that writing is an action. This means that when we first write something down, we have already been thinking about what we are going to say, and we are going to say it. After you have finished writing, we read over what we have written and made changes and corrections.

### **2.2 General Written Corrective Feedback**

Feedback is conceptualized as information offered by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Therefore, feedback is information given to the learner and/or the teacher about the learner's achievement relative to learning objectives. Feedback should aim to produce improvement in students' learning. According to Bitchener and Storch (2016), WCF is a written response to a linguistic error that has been made in the writing text by an L2 learner. It seeks to either correct the incorrect usage or provide information about where the error has occurred and/or about the cause of the error and how it may be corrected.

The problem of whether or not to provide EFL students' written work with CF to improve their writing accuracy has been enthusiastically debated since Truscott (1996) published an essay arguing that CF on L2 students' writing was not only useless but could also be harmful. Truscott said that CF is part of common practice in L2 writing courses; both teachers and students expect and want it to be part of the training (p.327).

As a reply to Truscott, Ferris (1999) wrote a different article stating that Truscott's claim was overly strong and that CF could help L2 writers. She stated that in her experience, "...there is tremendous variability in students' ability to benefit from grammar instruction and feedback and to learn to self-correct, and many students have made dramatic improvements in their accuracy over the course of a semester" (p. 7). This sparked a huge debate among researchers of the field; and one of the conclusions made was that although many researchers believed CF to be an irreplaceable part of L2 writing, there was not much research supporting this notion. Chandler (2003) stated that "the one implicit point of agreement in Truscott and Ferris' articles was that the existing data are insufficient to resolve the question of whether error correction can be an effective way to improve the accuracy of L2 writing (p. 268)". Ferris (1999) concludes:

The issue of helping students to develop their written language skills and improve their accuracy in writing is too important to be ruled on hastily. As teachers, we can only hope that we will continue to find answers and discover ways to respond more thoughtfully and effectively to our student writers' needs. (p.10).

Generally, WCF is considered very helpful for L2 writers mostly; however, a few studies have been done in the EFL area, especially at the senior high school level. Therefore, this study will be beneficial for improving English writing ability at an early age, hopefully.

## **2.3 Written Corrective Feedback Sources**

### **(1) Teacher Written Corrective Feedback**

Most researchers consider teacher correction a central practice in EFL and English as a Second Language (ESL) contexts and have proved its effectiveness. Some studies found out that teacher feedback was more effective for improving grammatical errors than peer or self-correction. Affective factors are also crucial in the success of feedback, and studies suggest that students prefer teacher feedback over other types (Saito, 1994; Sengupta, 1998; Zhang, 1995).

Hyland and Hyland (2006: xv) describe teachers' awareness of feedback as follows:

Teachers are now very mindful of the potential feedback has for helping to create a supportive teaching environment, for conveying and modeling ideas about good writing, for developing the ways students talk about cultural and social worlds and their growing familiarity with new literacy practices.

Moreover, apart from the errors made, 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.

### **(2) Peer Written Corrective Feedback**

According to Hansen and Liu (2005), peer review consists of students assuming the role of trained peer reviewers with the goal of providing their classmates with comments on their writings in either written or spoken mode. This approach is considered emotionally, cognitively, and linguistically beneficial to students' writing development (Berg, 1999; Hu, 2005; Min, 2005; Rollinson, 2005).

### **(3) Self-Written Corrective Feedback**

Many researchers propose self-correction as the most effective strategy of feedback (Pishghadam, Hashemi, & Kermanshahi, 2011; Ibarrola, 2009). Pishghadam et al. (2011) point out that once learners are capable of self-correcting, they already know the right form, or at least they have it as an option in mind. Self-correction is defined by Wanchid (2013: 158) as "a strategy according to which students read, analyze, correct, and evaluate their own writing by using checklists or guided questions, both form-focused and meaning-focused."

## **2.4 Beliefs on Written Corrective Feedback**

### **(1) Teachers' Beliefs on Written Corrective Feedback**

Different studies on L2 writing argue that written accuracy is essential to students in many contexts and that students themselves want and expect feedback on their written errors from teachers (Alimohammadi & Nejadansari, 2014). Affective factors were also crucial in the success of feedback, and studies suggested that students prefer teacher feedback over other types (Saito, 1994; Sengupta, 1998; Zhang, 1995). These studies reported that L2 students valued teacher feedback on their written errors because being corrected helped students to write accurately and avoided repeating the same linguistic mistakes.

Teachers' beliefs are essential items that affect teacher favored ways for error correction. In line with (Borg, 2001), teacher beliefs are termed as a set of consciously and unconsciously saved suggestions that are responded to as a reaction and a plan to the teacher's views and performances.

With increasing research evidence, both pro or against the effectiveness of WCF, research has suggested that one main problem is the beliefs from who WCF is provided. For example, when teachers correct errors, they frequently change students' language based on what they think. However, there is a different concept between what a student wants to express and that a teacher assumes it is correct sometimes. Therefore, the main problem is there is a misunderstanding between students and teachers. The study has also provided evidence that students often do not understand much of the

WCF's meaning on their papers and do not know what they are expected to do with the WCF. Ferris (1995) and Hyland (1998) found that students had problems understanding the WCF provided to them; thus, students' use of feedback usually did not completely match the teacher's intentions.

## **(2) Students' Beliefs in Written Corrective Feedback**

The effectiveness of WCF has also been suggested to think about students' beliefs about it. In other words, students' perceptions of certain types of WCF affect their use of it in their class. For example, suppose a student believes that one type of WCF is more useful. In that case, he or she may be more likely to pay more attention to the correction and use it for learning than if he or she does not trust in its effects (McCargar, 1993; Schulz, 2001).

Students' preferences have also influenced the effectiveness of WCF for it. In other words, students' opinions and choices for certain types and amounts of WCF affect their use of it for learning. For instance, a student may pay more attention to the revision if the feedback source provides the correction or feedback in their trusted way. Considering a student has own preference on a specific type of WCF, as he/she believes in its effects on improving his/her ability (McCargar, 1993; Schulz, 2001). Some studies have found that students have various preferences on WCF (sources, types, and timing). For example, some studies have found that students mostly appreciate receiving large amounts of different types of WCF regardless of the types of errors on which it is focused (Ferris, 1995; Lee, 2005). Another study has found that students choose to receive feedback in the form of comments on their content and ideas than on grammatical, structural, and surface errors (Zamel, 1985). Still, some studies found that students prefer to receive WCF on their content and ideas in the form of comments as well as on their grammatical, structural, and surface errors (Ashwell, 2000; Leki, 1991).

Another important question has been made whether students' expectations and preferences are met by the actual condition which teachers provide. Although some researches have shown agreements between students' and teachers' perceptions in several areas, others have found considerable differences (e.g., Diab, 2005; Hyland, 1998, 2003; Jeon & Kang, 2005; Saito, 1994).

Consequently, there is room for a discussion between teachers and students to improve the effectiveness of WCF, even though the students do not always receive the feedback that they favor. To overcome this problem, some researchers have suggested making WCF is more effective. Thus, it needs an agreement between students and teachers, and expectantly by understanding students' and teachers' beliefs, can help teachers improve their students' writing skills effectively. Although it might be disagreement between them, it is still possible to have an open discussion about improving the effectiveness of WCF.

In this study, understanding teachers' and students' beliefs towards WCF will give more knowledge in minimizing the gap between them. To date, only several studies studying teachers' and students' perceptions or attitudes toward WCF and the effect of WCF itself, especially at senior high school level in Indonesia and Japan.

## **2.5 Research Questions**

Therefore, there were three research questions need to be answered in this study:

1. Is there any difference in senior high school students' writing achievement among students receiving teacher feedback, peer feedback, and self-feedback?
2. What are Indonesia and Japan senior high school teachers' beliefs towards written corrective feedback (WCF) as a teaching method for improving their students' ability in essay writing?
3. What are Indonesia and Japan senior high school students' beliefs towards written corrective feedback (WCF) as a teaching method for improving their ability in essay writing?

### **3. The Effect of Three Written Corrective Feedback Sources (Study 1)**

The quality of WCF can strongly and positively affect students' writing achievement levels. This study aimed to examine whether WCF could improve students' achievement levels for essay writing and investigated which one from three different feedback sources—teacher, peer, and self—was effective in increasing senior high school students' achievement levels of English writing in two English as a Foreign Language countries, Indonesia and Japan. The study participants included 81 Indonesian and 81 Japanese senior high school students (Grade XI, 16-17 years old), who were divided into three different groups. Three different feedback sources were utilized for each group. Data collection was from a pretest and posttest to identify the relationship between students' writing achievement level and the WCF sources they had been exposed to in the classroom. The students' writings were analyzed by Tribble's (1996) scoring rubric. The data were analyzed by employing descriptive statistics, ANOVA, and Bonferroni post hoc test. The study results showed that WCF from peers effectively improved Indonesian senior high school students' writing achievement levels. In contrast, for the Japanese senior high school students, teachers' WCF represented the most effective source.

### **4. Effect of Teacher and Peer Written Corrective Feedback on Writing Components (Study 2)**

This study aimed to investigate the impact of teacher and peer WCF on Indonesian senior high school students' writing performance. A total of 71 Indonesian senior high school students from Grade X participated in this study; 36 were provided teacher WCF and 35 peers WCF. To collect pre and posttest data, the participants were asked to write a legend essay. Using qualitative data analysis, we aimed to reveal the effectiveness of teacher and peer WCF in improving students' writing performance. Adapted scoring rubric was employed to measure students' overall writing performance, and competencies in relation to writing components such as content, organization, grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics. The results revealed that peer WCF can better enhance students' writing abilities compared to teacher WCF. Furthermore, students who received teacher WCF showed substantial improvement in performance relating to all writing components except mechanics. In contrast, peer WCF enhanced students' organization and vocabulary related performance.

### **5. Indonesian and Japanese Senior High School Teachers' Beliefs towards Written Corrective Feedback (Study 3)**

This study aims to discover the beliefs or perspectives of the Indonesian and Japanese English teachers towards WCF and to know the similarities and differences between the Indonesian and Japanese English teachers in perceiving WCF as a teaching method to enhance students' writing abilities. Sixty-one senior high school teachers in Indonesia come from three different provinces. Then, fifty-two Japanese English senior high school teachers from three different prefectures. In doing the data collection, the participants were asked to answer a questionnaire which consists of 33 questions with 5 points Likert scale (Part A) and three open-ended questions (Part B). Factor Analysis analyzed the 33 questions in Part A, and Part B was analyzed by descriptive statistics. The questionnaire was distributed to the Indonesian and Japanese senior high school teachers from October 2018 to June 2019.

The Indonesian teachers believed that Factor 1 (F1) seems to be related to variables that deal with the advantages of peer WCF. Then, Factor 2 (F2) is related to variables that deal with improving the writing abilities. The variables included in Factor 3 (F3) seem to be testing the advantages of teacher WCF. Next, Factor 4 (F4) is related to the teacher's roles, as the class teacher is regarded as the primary source of knowledge. Last, Factor 5 (F5) belongs to the goal of the WCF.

On the other hand, the Japanese teachers' results showed that Factor 1 (F1) is related to variables that deal with the advantages of peer WCF. For Factor 2 (F2), it is related to give peer WCF and receive teacher WCF. Then, for Factor 3 (F3), the variables belong to the ways in improving students' writing abilities. Last, students' abilities to correct their errors are regarded as Factor 4 (F4).

The Component Transformation Matrix explains that the Indonesian teachers display that factors/components 1, 2, 4, and 5, which are higher than 0.50 ( $> 0.5$ ), can be assumed to summarize 20 variables in the component matrix table above. On the other hand, for the Japanese teachers, the results showed that there were only two factors (1 and 3) can precisely sum up 12 variables that existed in the component matrix table before.

Factor analysis was applied in revealing teachers' beliefs that students' writing abilities could be improved by providing WCF, especially peer and teacher WCF. The teacher's role as a facilitator could also help students achieve their goals in learning writing by providing training, such as analyzing writing compositions and providing and receiving WCF. Furthermore, teachers in both countries thought that teacher WCF could improve their students' abilities as most teachers preferred to provide teacher WCF among other two sources. On the other hand, they thought that self-WCF could not be their favor to enhance their students' performance.

For the open-ended questions, as seen in Table 1 below, both Indonesian and Japanese English teachers more preferred providing teacher WCF than peer and self-WCF.

**Table 1. Teachers' preferences among three WCF sources**

WCF Sources	Indonesian Teachers	Japanese Teachers
Teacher WCF	42	43
Peer WCF	15	7
Self-WCF	4	2
Total	61	52

#### **6. Indonesian English Teachers' Beliefs on Self-Written Corrective Feedback (Study 4)**

The aims of this study are to investigate the Indonesian senior high school English teachers' beliefs regarding the use of self-WCF in teaching English writing, and to know if their beliefs affect their practices in classes. The data were collected through one-on-one semi-structured interviews with eighteen English teachers in senior high schools in Indonesia. They were asked to answer eight questions regarding their beliefs on self-WCF and the practices in classrooms. The results showed that the Indonesian senior high school English teachers had different ideas concerning the effectiveness of self-WCF, and their practices tended to vary considerably according to their beliefs and situation. The findings also advise that Indonesian English teachers may not be mindful of the usefulness of self-WCF for their students. Thus, it is necessary to train Indonesian senior high school English teachers about the implementation of self-WCF activities in their writing classrooms. Further research should examine the Indonesian senior high school students' beliefs regarding the application of self-WCF in their classes.

#### **7. Indonesian and Japanese Senior High School Students' Beliefs towards Written Corrective Feedback (Study 5)**

This study aimed to discover the Indonesian and Japanese English senior high school students' beliefs towards WCF and to know whether their beliefs towards WCF differ before the treatment and after the treatment in regarding WCF as a teaching method enhance their writing abilities. There were 81 Indonesian and 81 Japanese senior high school students who participated in this study. In collecting the data, the participants were asked to answer a questionnaire that consists of 33 questions. The questionnaire used 5 points Likert scale (Part A) and three open-ended questions (Part B). Factor

Analysis analyzed the 33 questions in Part A, and Part B was analyzed by descriptive statistics. The questionnaires were distributed twice, before the pretest and after the posttest.

The results for the Indonesian students, in Questionnaire I, there were seven factors, and for Questionnaire II, there were four factors. Furthermore, the Japanese students' results showed that there were seven factors in Questionnaire I and eight factors in Questionnaire II.

On the other hand, the Indonesian senior high school students changed their beliefs after receiving treatment in the posttest questionnaire. In the first questionnaire, which was given before the pretest, the results showed three factors (F1, F2, and F6) could summarize 21 variables. Factor 1 (F1) seems to be related to variables that deal with the advantages of teacher WCF. Then, Factor 2 (F2) is related to variables that deal with the advantages of peer WCF, and Factor 6 (F6) seems to be testing the importance of providing training for the students in assessing writing compositions. However, in questionnaire II, which was given after the posttest, the result was reduced to only one factor (The advantages of combining teacher, peer, and self-WCF). The Indonesian senior high school students considered that combining three WCF sources in their classrooms could enhance their writing abilities.

On the other hand, the Japanese senior high school students' results revealed that there were Factor 1 (F1), which is related to variables that deal with the advantages of Peer WCF. For Factor 4 (F4), it is related to how students respected their peer feedback in their compositions. Then, for Factor 5 (F5), the variables belong to the teacher's roles, especially as the primary source of knowledge, as the Japanese students will ask their teacher if they do not understand the WCF provided by their peers. The teacher then needs to follow up on the feedback by providing comments, not only codes or symbols.

Moreover, in Questionnaire II, the Japanese students had three factors (F1, F5, and F8) related to the benefits of providing comments and feedback. Therefore, the Japanese students preferred their teachers to give comments and codes or symbols in correcting their writing compositions.

Factor analysis was applied in revealing students' beliefs that their writing abilities could be improved by providing WCF, especially peer and teacher WCF. Also, the teacher's role as a facilitator could help students achieve their goals in learning writing. As facilitators, teachers could provide training, such as analyzing writing compositions and providing and receiving WCF. Both Indonesian and Japanese students agreed that peer WCF could enhance their students' writing abilities. Moreover, they regard combining three WCF sources as more beneficial to their writing abilities if applied in the classroom. Furthermore, Table 2 showed that the Indonesian and Japanese senior high school students considered that teacher WCF could improve their students' abilities. Thus, most students preferred to receive teacher WCF among the other two sources.

**Table 2. Students' preferences among three WCF sources**

WCF Sources	Indonesia		Japan	
	I	II	I	II
Teacher WCF	37	40	66	75
Peer WCF	31	31	13	6
Self-WCF	13	10	2	0
Total	81	81	81	81

## 8. Discussion

### (1) *The Effect of Written Corrective Feedback on Students' Writing Performance*

This study also indicated that the Indonesian and Japanese senior high school students had different ways of improving their English writing performance. Among the Indonesian students, peer WCF was considered an effective way of increasing their writing performance regarding English

essay writing. These results agree with Mendonça and Johnson's (1994) study, which found that peer feedback effectively enhanced writing accuracy and achievement levels.

On the other hand, among the Japanese senior high school students, teacher WCF had a more significant impact than peer and self-WCF. This tendency was reflected in the improvement between the pretest and posttest scores in this study. The students perceived their teacher as a person who had the expertise and, thus, their primary feedback source. Deng (2016) shows that Japanese students were found to rely heavily on teachers for error detection and correction. Similarly, most teachers also consider that providing feedback is their job, to detect and correct students' errors. MEXT (2019) states that the enhancement of school education largely depends on teachers' quality and abilities, who directly play the central role. Thus, Japanese education utilizes a teacher-centered system where the teacher delivers knowledge to the students. Therefore, teacher WCF is dominant and has a significant impact on improving students' abilities. Baierschimidht (2012) supported this idea by saying that even though the participants showed positive affective regard for peer WCF, they still preferred teacher WCF over peer WCF. She also stated that none of her study participants showed great self-confidence while reviewing their peer's compositions. O'Flaherty (2016) also stated that Japanese senior high school students had more confidence in teacher WCF. They thought their teachers were more experienced and produced better quality WCF. Besides, the students viewed error correction as the teacher's responsibility.

Sadoshima and Ohta (2013) found that peer feedback could develop students' confidence and motivation for learning writing. Further, encouraging peer WCF provides other benefits such as developing critical thinking and inducing students to become more active in teaching and learning activities. Still, there remains a possibility that students may be hesitant to indicate their peers' errors even when they are aware of them. Even though peer WCF has certain benefits, it can only be offered if learners find it suitable. This finding agrees with Yang, Badger, and Yu (2006), who revealed that teacher WCF had a more significant impact and produced more student improvements than peer WCF.

The posttest scores suggest that both the Indonesian and Japanese senior high school students still perceive that self-WCF is not significant enough to be implemented in class. This finding may have been influenced by the students' lack of confidence in their checking and feedback for their own essays. Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) stated that, while teacher and peer WCF were effective, it was still necessary for teachers to train their students to foster self-WCF. It was considering that one of the primary goals of teaching writing is to encourage students to become independent and autonomous self-editors. Besides, Nakanishi (2007) found that training students to provide self-WCF could significantly impact metaknowledge and overall writing quality. Further, such students showed significant grammar improvements, and they even indicated that this improvement was caused by self-feedback training. This source of feedback can be applied as a first step in checking students' essays because it was found that the final scores increased in the self-WCF groups.

However, the findings also demonstrate some significant differences in opinions between teachers and students regarding the amount of WCF. Students showed a preference for larger quantities of error correction on all types of errors. At the same time, most teachers were more selective and opted to attend to communication and/or accuracy. When they were asked for their explanations, students were fairly consistent, believing that seeing their errors marked will help them learn and remember them better than if their errors are not marked. The reasoning of the teachers, however, varied. Some teachers responded according to what they thought was useful for language learning.

In contrast, others seemed to base their responses on what they thought students wanted. For example, they reasoned that students appreciate and want to know the correct forms but that too much

WCF could be discouraging. These responses demonstrate that teachers were divided on the amount of correction they believe is necessary, and they were divided on their reasons as well.

Concerning repeatedly correcting errors each time they occur, both teachers and students saw WCF as a learning tool. They thought that a repeated error should be marked each time it occurs, demonstrating that they value consistency. Several teachers explained that “the teacher must be consistent.” The reasons for their opinions showed to be similar between the groups since the most common explanation from both groups was that repeatedly marking a repeated error “allows students to be reminded and get an overview to see patterns.” These findings are not in line with the previous research findings that suggest that allowing students to correct at least some of their own errors is most useful (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hendrickson, 1980; Makino, 1993), and if a teacher marks a repeated error every time it occurs, it leaves little room for self-correction as students would not be held responsible for seeking out and correcting their own errors. However, some teachers did demonstrate they value student autonomy and explained that it is useful to “just mark an example, and students should do the rest.” Therefore, in this study, students’ (and many of the teachers’) preferences and opinions about effective error correction contradict what has been found to be a useful error correction strategy.

The results of the posttest showed that senior high school students from both Indonesia and Japan still perceive that self-WCF is not significant enough to be implemented in class. Moreover, the Indonesian and Japanese senior high school teachers and students do not recognize the impact of conducting self-WCF as the first step in checking the error mistakes. They consider that teacher and peer WCF could improve their writing skills in composing essays. However, they need to be trained to provide and receive corrective feedback., especially in building their confidence in checking their writing compositions, since one of the teaching writing goals is to encourage students to become independent and autonomous self-editors.

(2) *The Teachers’ and Students’ Beliefs towards Written Corrective Feedback as a Strategy to Improve Writing Achievement in Writing Essays in Indonesia and Japan*

Regarding the Indonesian and Japanese senior high school teachers’ and students’ beliefs toward WCF, both the Indonesian and Japanese teachers agreed that teacher and peer WCF could improve their students’ writing skills. Sadler (1998) said that good feedback depends on the heart of good pedagogy, with its source (i.e., teachers, peers, or self) being less important than its validity. However, he also emphasizes the importance of trust and personal interaction, which are two characteristics that might not always be equally present or feasible in WCF sources. On the one hand, although peer and teacher assessors might follow the same assessment procedure, a teacher’s background is more sophisticated, possibly performing their feedback more trustworthy. On the other hand, teachers have to divide their time for personal interaction among many pupils, giving peer feedback an advantage. Providing peer WCF can be trained so that the way they provide WCF becomes as effective as teacher WCF in the end (Sadler, 1998; Min, 2008); and that the use of peer WCF has some beneficial “side-effects” or advantages that teacher WCF lacks, resulting in a positive effect on student learning in another, but equally effective way.

In addition, both Indonesian and Japanese teachers and students believed that teacher WCF could improve senior high school students in EFL areas. Although they also realized that peer and self-WCF could make an impact on the students’ writing abilities. The results are in line with Timson, Grow, and Matsuoka (1999), who stated that error correction is primarily the teacher’s responsibility. Furthermore, Kohro (1995) found a positive impression among Japanese writing students for peer WCF.

### (3) *The Relationship of the Research Findings with the Existing Study and the Previous Study*

Although writing ability is one of the most important results of higher education, many EFL writers continue to struggle to produce writing that is linguistically accurate. While some researchers such as Truscott (1996, 1999, 2007) have claimed that error correction is ineffective or that it may be harmful to students, others have suggested that corrective feedback may provide some benefit to students in specific contexts (Bitchener, Young & Cameron, 2005; Ferris, 2004, 2006). Still, many researchers have struggled to obtain conclusive evidence of the value of WCF.

This study's results displayed that WCF could improve EFL senior high school students' writing achievement, especially in Indonesia and Japan. Hattie and Timperley (2007) recommended that feedback could reduce the difference between knowledge understanding and present learning results and expected outcomes.

Regarding their beliefs on WCF, both teachers and students in Indonesia and Japan considered that combining three WCF sources could improve their writing skills. Although the Japanese teachers and students valued teacher WCF more than peer and self-WCF, they also realized that peer WCF could develop students' confidence and motivation about learning writing. Further, encouraging peer WCF provides some other benefits, such as developing critical thinking and inducing students to become more active in teaching and learning activities. Then, for the teachers, providing peer WCF could save their time for checking all the detail of the students' writing works. Moreover, Hirose (2009) said that receiving comments or feedback from peers has a good effect on learners. The peer evaluation gives learners a chance to write and read English products, and by doing so, they can learn many things and get to know the points to which they must pay attention in writing. Next, applying peer WCF could help students receive immediate feedback from their peers. As Li (2017) stated, pedagogically, teachers and students seem to diverge on whether errors should be corrected immediately. While teachers are hesitant to correct students' errors immediately, students favor immediate feedback.

## **9. Conclusion**

### **(1) Summary**

These studies indicate that regardless of the feedback sources, WCF plays a vital role in developing senior high school students' English writing abilities in Indonesia and Japan. The study indicated that teacher, peer, and self-WCF were effective for improving Indonesian and Japanese senior high school students' achievement levels in English writing. However, their effect was not as significant as that of peer WCF in the Indonesian context. On the other hand, Japanese senior high school students who experienced teacher WCF showed considerable improvement compared to those who experienced peer and self-WCF.

Furthermore, it was also recognized that several components of writing competence (content, organization, vocabulary, and language) improved significantly among the Indonesian senior high school students after receiving teacher WCF. At the same time, the peer WCF group had a positive impact on organization and vocabulary components.

Moreover, the Indonesian senior high school English teachers had several different attitudes about self-WCF's effectiveness and benefits for their students' writing development. Their practices also tended to change along with their beliefs and their students' condition, such as students' proficiency levels and motivation.

The data reveal that a majority of participants of those surveyed desire to have their errors corrected. Students report that the responsibility for most correction should lie primarily with the teacher. However, the practice of peer WCF could be considered as an alternative teaching strategy in improving students' writing achievement. Students also expect that their teacher could train them to provide and receive WCF regarding their writing compositions.

## **(2) Pedagogical Implications**

This study's findings can be applied pedagogically when EFL teachers—in this case, Indonesian and Japanese English teachers—need to choose WCF sources for their students. The findings have the potential to significantly improve senior high school students' achievement levels in English writing in Indonesia and Japan. It can be recommended that both Indonesian and Japanese teachers should combine three different WCF sources in their classes to boost their students' writing ability to optimal levels. Igarashi (2019) states that students must build their self-revision strategies and skills to reduce grammar mistakes gradually. Practicing teacher and peer WCF could help them become independent writers who, later on, could perform self-WCF and thus become autonomous writers. However, further studies are necessary for investigating which writing criteria (from among those provided in Tribble's scoring rubrics) can be developed most by certain types of feedback sources. Also, it explores how teachers can be equipped with professional knowledge, skills, and strategies to implement WCF in their writing classrooms. Lastly, it could bridge the gap between teachers and students regarding WCF since this study wants to know teachers' and students' beliefs towards WCF.

## **(3) Limitations**

This study has two limitations. First, because of the schools' policy, the time utilized for conducting the research—only five meetings—was inadequate, where each lasted for 45-50 minutes. Thus, the students received limited experience with the teacher, peer, and self-WCF, and this, in turn, reduced the generalizability of the quality and quantity of the feedback they provided and received. Second, every country has its own goals and techniques for teaching English writing within their curricula. These differences often influence the experience and background knowledge of the students.

## **(4) Suggestions**

Combining three WCF sources can maximize students' abilities in English writing. Giving training about providing and receiving corrective feedback to the student could make students become independent writers. Moreover, it can save teachers time in checking and assessing students' errors.

Moreover, this study suggests that teachers should train their students about feedback checklist usage, which can help them effectively edit their compositions. Providing students with the time and opportunity to read and revise their own and other students' writing drafts could help them become better writers. This assertion agrees with Diab's (2016) findings, who suggested that writing teachers should train students in providing WCF (self and peer). Furthermore, teachers should provide feedback, comment on their writing, and check students' WCF to build their own trust—as well as peer WCF; this, in turn, could reduce the amount of teacher feedback. Further, it will increase students' confidence in their English writing ability since their teachers will also be reading and paying attention to their products.

## **References**

- Alimohammadi, B., & Nejadansari, D. (2014). Written corrective feedback: Focused and unfocused. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4, 581–587. <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.4.3.581-587>
- Ashwell, T. (2000). Patterns of teacher response to student writing in a multi-draft composition classroom: is content feedback followed by form feedback the best method? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 9(3), 227-257. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743\(00\)00027-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(00)00027-8)
- Berg, E. C. (1999). The effects of trained peer response on ESL students' revision types and writing

- quality. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8, 215-241. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743\(99\)80115-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(99)80115-5)
- Bitchener, J., & Storch, N. (2016). *Written corrective feedback for L2 development*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Bitchener, J., Young, S., & Cameron, D. (2005). The effect of different types of feedback on ESL student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 14, 191-205.
- Bjork, R. A. (1999). Assessing our own competence: Heuristics and illusions. In D. Gopher & A. Koriat (Eds.), *Attention and performance XVII. Cognitive regulation of performance: Interaction of theory and application* (pp. 435-459). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Borg, M. (2001). Key concepts in ELT. Teachers' beliefs. *ELT Journal*, 55(2), 186-188. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/55.2.186>
- 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, 267-296. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743\(03\)00038-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(03)00038-9)
- Deng, K. (2016). Written corrective feedback: Issues and implications. *Journal of Modern Education Review*, 6(11), 824-829.
- Diab, N. M. (2016). A comparison of peer, teacher and self-feedback on the reduction of language errors in student essays. *System*, 57, 55-65. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2015.12.014>
- Diab, R. L. (2005). Teachers' and students' beliefs about responding to ESL Writing: A case study. *TESL Canada Journal*, 23, 28-44. <https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v23i1.76>
- Ferris, D. R. (1995). Student reactions to teacher response in multiple-draft composition classrooms. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29, 33-53. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587804>
- Ferris, D. R. (1999). The case for grammar correction in L2 writing classes: A response to Truscott (1996). *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8, 1-11. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743\(99\)80110-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(99)80110-6)
- 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, 49-62. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2004.04.005>
- Ferris, D. R. (2006). Does error feedback help student writers? In K. Hyland & F. Hyland (Eds.). *Feedback in Second Language Writing: Contexts and Issues* (pp.81-104). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524742.007>
- Ferris, D. R., & Hedgcock, J. S. (2005). *Teaching ESL composition. Purpose, process, and practice* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Ferris, D. R., & Roberts, B. (2001). Error feedback in L2 writing classes: How explicit does it need to be? *Journal of Second language Writing*, 10, 161-184. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743\(01\)00039-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(01)00039-X)
- Hansen, J. G., & Liu, J. (2005). Guiding principles for effective peer response. *ELT Journal*, 59, 31-38. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/cci004>
- Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research*, 77, 81-112. <https://doi.org/10.3102/003465430298487>
- Hendrickson, J. M. (1980). The treatment of error in written work. *Modern Language Journal*, 64, 216-221. <https://doi.org/10.2307/325306>
- Hirose, K. (2009). Student-student written interactions during peer feedback in English writing instruction. *ARELE: Annual Review of English Language Education in Japan*, 20, 91-100. [https://doi.org/10.20581/arele.20.0\\_91](https://doi.org/10.20581/arele.20.0_91)
- Hu, G. (2005). Using peer review with Chinese ESL student writers. *Language Teaching Research*, 9, 321-342. <https://doi.org/10.1191/1362168805lr169oa>
- Hyland, F. (1998). The impact of teacher written feedback on individual writers. *Journal of Second*

- Language Writing*, 7, 255-286. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743\(98\)90017-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(98)90017-0)
- Hyland, K. (2003). *Second language writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (2006). Contexts and issues in feedback on L2 writing: An introduction. In K. Hyland and F. Hyland (Eds.), *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues* (pp.1-19). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.  
<https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108635547.003>
- Ibarrola, A. (2009). Reformulation and self-correction: Testing the validity of correction strategies in the classroom. *Revista Española de Lingüística Aplicada*, 22, 189-215.
- Igarashi, S. (2019). Facilitating revision skill in L2 writing instruction: The roles of teacher and peer feedback. *Accents Asia*, 11(2), 13-32.
- Jeon, M., & Kang, I. (2005). Investigating student preferences in error correction in Korean-language teaching. *The Korean Language in America*, 10, 19-49.
- Kemendikbud (Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan). (2013). *Permendikbud Nomor 69 tahun 2013 tentang KD dan Struktur Kurikulum SMA-MA [The decree of the Ministry of Education number 69 2013 about senior high school's basic competence and curriculum structure]*. Retrieved October 15, 2020, from <http://bsnp-indonesia.org/2013/06/20/permendikbud-tentang-kurikulum-tahun-2013/>
- Kern, R. (2000). *Literacy and language teaching*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Kohro, Y. (1995). An approach to the instruction of paragraph and essay writing using peer correction to enhance learner's awareness of readers. *JACET Bulletin*, 26, 47-60.
- Lee, I. (2005). Error correction in the L2 writing classroom: What do students think? *TESL Canada Journal*, 22 (2), 1-16. <https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v22i2.84>
- Leki, I. (1991). The preferences of ESL students for error correction in college-level writing classes. *Foreign Language Annals*, 24, 203-218. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.1991.tb00464.x>
- Li, S. (2017). Student and teacher beliefs and attitudes about oral corrective feedback. In H. Nassaji & E. Kartchava (Eds.), *Corrective feedback in second language teaching and learning: Research, theory, applications, implications* (pp.143-157). NY: Routledge.
- Makino, T.Y. (1993). *Learner self-correction in EFL written compositions*. *ELT Journal*, 47(4), 337-341. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/47.4.337>
- McCargar, D. F. (1993). Teacher and student role expectations: Cross-cultural differences and implications. *The Modern Language Journal*, 77(2), 192-207. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1993.tb01963.x>
- Mendonca, C. O., & Johnson, K. E. (1994). Peer review negotiations: Revision activities in ESL writing instruction. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(4), 745-770. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587558>
- Meyers, A. (2005). *Gateways to academic writing: Effective sentences, paragraphs, and essays*. New York: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Min, H. T. (2005). Training students to become successful peer reviewers. *System*, 33, 293-308. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2004.11.003>
- Min, H. T. (2008). Reviewer stances and writer perceptions in EFL peer review training. *English for Specific Purposes*, 27(3), 285-305. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2008.02.002>
- Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT). (2018). *Koutougakkou gakushu shidou yoryo an ni taisuru iken kōbo tetsudzuki [Study of course guideline for foreign languages in senior high schools; Public Comment on Proposal]*. Retrieved from <[http://www.mext.go.jp/b\\_menu/houdou/30/02/1401394.htm](http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/houdou/30/02/1401394.htm)>
- Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT). (2019). Overview of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Retrieved October 15, 2020, from [https://www.mext.go.jp/en/about/publication/\\_icsFiles/afieldfile/2019/03/13/1374478\\_001.pdf](https://www.mext.go.jp/en/about/publication/_icsFiles/afieldfile/2019/03/13/1374478_001.pdf)

- Nakanishi, C. (2007). The effects of different types of feedback on revision. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 4(4), 213-244.
- Nunan, D. (2001). Second language acquisition. In *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages*, eds. R. Carter and D. Nunan (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press), 87-92. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511667206>
- O'Flaherty, D. (2016). Japanese high school students' attitudes towards and usage of corrective feedback on their written work. *The Language Teacher*, 40(6), 3-8. <https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTTL40.6-1>
- Pishghadam, R., Hashemi, M., & Kermanshahi, P. (2011). Self-correction among Iranian EFL learners: An investigation into their preferences for corrective feedback. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(5), 957-962. <https://doi.org/10.4304/JLTR.2.5.957-962>
- Richards, J. C., & Renandya, W. A. (Eds.). (2002). *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rollinson, P. (2005). Using peer feedback in the ESL writing class. *ELT Journal*, 59(1), 23-30. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/cci003>
- Sadler, D. R. (1998). Formative assessment: Revisiting the territory. *Assessment in education: principles, policy & practice*, 5(1), 77-84. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0969595980050104>
- Sadoshima, S., & Ohta, Y. (Eds.). (2013). *Bunsho tutoring no riron to jissen [Theory and practice for writing tutoring]*. Tokyo: Hitsuji Shobo.
- Saito, H. (1994). Teachers' practices and students' preferences for feedback on second language writing: A case study of adult ESL learners. *TESL Canada Journal*, 11(2), 46-70. <https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v11i2.633>
- Schulz, R. A. (2001). Cultural Differences in Student and Teacher Perceptions Concerning the Role of Grammar Instruction and Corrective Feedback: USA-Columbia, *The Modern Language Journal*, 85(2), 244-258. <https://doi.org/10.1111/0026-7902.00107>
- Sengupta, S. (1998). Peer evaluation: "I am not the teacher." *ELT Journal*, 52, 19-28. <https://doi.org/10.1093/eltj/52.1.19>
- Tillema, M. (2012). *Writing in first and second language. Empirical studies on text quality and writing processes*. Utrecht: University of Utrecht (Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved October 17, 2020, from <http://dspace.library.uu.nl/handle/1874/241028>.
- Timson, S., Grow, A., & Matsuoka, M. (1999). Error correction preferences of second language learners: A Japanese perspective. *JACET Bulletin*, 30, 135-148.
- Tribble, C. (1996). *Writing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Truscott, J. (1996). The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes. *Language Learning*, 46(2), 327-369. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1996.tb01238.x>
- Truscott, J. (1999). The case for "The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes": A response to Ferris. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8(2), 111-122. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743\(99\)80124-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(99)80124-6)
- Truscott, J. (2007). The effect of error correction of learners' ability to write accurately. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 16(4), 255-272. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2007.06.003>
- Wanchid, R. (2013). The use of self-correction, paper-pencil peer feedback and electronic peer feedback in the EFL writing class: Opportunities and challenges. *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*, 2(3), 157-164. <https://doi.org/10.5901/ajis.2013.v2n3p157>
- Yang, M., Badger, R., & Yu, Z. (2006). A comparative study of peer and teacher feedback in a Chinese EFL writing class. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 15(3), 179-200. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2006.09.004>
- Zamel, V. (1985). Responding to student writing. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(1), 79-101. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3586773>

Zhang, S. (1995). Re-examining the affective advantages of peer feedback in the ESL writing class. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 4(3), 209-222. [https://doi.org/10.1016/1060-3743\(95\)90010-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/1060-3743(95)90010-1)