Indonesian Students' Perceptions of Written Feedback in Second Language Writing

Rahmah Fithriani

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INDONESIAN STUDENTS’ PERCEPTIONS OF WRITTEN FEEDBACK IN SECOND LANGUAGE WRITING

by

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DISSERATION

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Language, Literacy, and Sociocultural Studies

The University of New Mexico
Albuquerque, New Mexico

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is
dedicated to my beloved

parents, H. Ridwan and Dra. Hj. Masrah,
who have always been a source of inspiration and encouragement
to pursue my higher studies

and to my husband, Ardian Yunizar,
and my daughters, Nadine and Nadia Ardian,
who have always been my source of energy and biggest supporters
in finishing my study
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Indonesian Students’ Perceptions of Written Feedback in Second Language Writing

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ABSTRACT

Grounded in sociocultural theory, written feedback activities in second language (L2) writing provide the social interactions that help learners develop their psychical functions within the zone of proximal development (ZPD) as they co-construct knowledge with teachers and peers through guided learning (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000). Written feedback can also help student writers improve their writing proficiency, including organization of their texts and awareness of the mechanics of the language necessary for successful communication of the intended message (Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2006; Jahin, 2012; Kamimura, 2006).

Regarding the eminence of feedback in L2 writing, a large body of research has been conducted to investigate different aspects of feedback in L2 writing classrooms, however much of the feedback research has put teachers at the center of the focus. Research on students’ perceptions of feedback only began to develop in the 1990s, thus this study builds on the growing literature, with particular focus on students’ perceptions of written feedback in L2 writing in Indonesian EFL context.
Framed within Vygotsky’s Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), this study aimed to examine: (1) second language learners’ preferences of written feedback, (2) its benefits as they perceive, (3) how they incorporate feedback in their writings, and (4) cultural influences that shape the perceptions, within the context of an after-class EFL writing course at a state university in Medan, North Sumatra, Indonesia. Guided by qualitative research methodology, data for this study were collected from a sample of seven students majoring in English Education. The data were analyzed quantitatively through frequency count and qualitatively through thematic content analysis by identifying the themes emerged related to the issues under discussion.

The results of data analysis showed four findings. First, students preferred direct than indirect form of feedback. Furthermore, they preferred their peers to provide feedback focusing on local issues but expected feedback focusing on global issues from the teacher. Second, students’ perceptions of written feedback revealed three benefits, namely; improving writing quality and skills, encouraging critical reasoning, and promoting learner autonomy. Third, students received more feedback from peers than the teacher but incorporated more teacher feedback than peer feedback in their writings. During the composing process, they also made self-revisions whose total number was larger than that of written feedback provided by their peers and teacher combined. Further analysis showed that the reasons why they incorporated or rejected/ignored the received written feedback came from some factors related to the feedback provider, the feedback receiver, and the written feedback provided. Finally, students valued more teacher feedback than peer feedback, which indicated the influence of hierarchical culture. However, power distance between the teacher and the students and face-saving
strategy which is commonly practiced in a collectivist society did not seem to have much influence on students’ perceptions of written feedback.

*Keywords:* perception, written feedback, peer feedback, teacher feedback, form of feedback, focus of feedback, second language writing, ESL, EFL, Sociocultural theory, ZPD, and Indonesia.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION .................................................................................................................................................. iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT ................................................................................................................................... iv
ABSTRACT ..................................................................................................................................................... vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS .................................................................................................................................. x
LIST OF FIGURES ........................................................................................................................................ xv
LIST OF TABLES .......................................................................................................................................... xvii

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION .................................................................................................................... 1

  Statement of the Problem .......................................................................................................................... 4
  Research Questions .................................................................................................................................... 10
  Purposes of the Study ............................................................................................................................... 10
  Significance of the Study .......................................................................................................................... 13
  Research Design Overview ...................................................................................................................... 17
  Limitations of the Study ........................................................................................................................... 18
  Definitions of Key Terminology ................................................................................................................ 19

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW ........................................................................................................... 20

  L2 Writing Instruction ............................................................................................................................... 20
    Process Approach in L2 Writing Instruction .......................................................................................... 21
    L2 Writing Instruction in ESL vs. EFL Contexts ............................................................................... 23
    Feedback in L2 Writing Instruction ...................................................................................................... 25
    EFL Writing Instruction in Indonesia .................................................................................................... 27
    Some General Features of Indonesian Culture ..................................................................................... 29
    Research on Students’ Perceptions of Written Feedback in L2 Writing .......................................... 32
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preference of the Form of Feedback</th>
<th>33</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preference of the Focus of Feedback</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits of Feedback</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback Incorporation</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Influences on Students’ Perceptions</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZPD as the Theoretical Framework</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Concept of ZPD in Written Feedback Process</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Interaction</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scaffolding and Intellectual Imitation</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mediation</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internalization</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methodological Tradition and Its Philosophy</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population and Sample</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedure of Written Feedback</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer Feedback Training</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method of Data Collection</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographic Survey</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written Feedback Survey</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflective Journal</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing Sample</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. A Model of Child’s Development of Mental Functions ..........................50
Figure 2. Rhetoric Pattern for Agree & Disagree Essay .......................................66
Figure 3. Essay Writing and Feedback Stages ......................................................67
Figure 4. Rhetoric Pattern for Comparison & Contrast Essay ...............................68
Figure 5. The Process of Data Collection ..............................................................86
Figure 6. Distribution of Participants’ Genders ......................................................89
Figure 7. Distribution of Participants’ Native Languages .......................................90
Figure 8. Self-identification of Language Skills ....................................................91
Figure 9. Value of Peer and Teacher Feedback ....................................................92
Figure 10. The Total Count of Students’ Responses Showing Preference of Error
    Indication from Written Feedback Survey 1 ......................................................96
Figure 11. The Total Count of Students’ Responses Showing Preference of Error
    Indication from Written Feedback Survey 2 ......................................................96
Figure 12. The Total Count of Students’ Responses Showing Preference of Error
    Indication from Written Feedback Surveys 1 & 2 ..........................................97
Figure 13. The Total Count of Students’ Responses Showing Preference of Response
    Focus from Written Feedback Survey 1 ..........................................................98
Figure 14. The Total Count of Students’ Responses Showing Preference of Response
    Focus from Written Feedback Survey 2 ..........................................................99
Figure 15. The Total Count of Students’ Responses Showing Preference of Response
    Focus from Written Feedback Surveys 1 & 2 .................................................100
Figure 16. The Total Count of Students’ Responses Showing the Consideration of Mark/Comment Importance from Written Feedback Survey 1 .........................101
Figure 17. The Total Count of Students’ Responses Showing the Consideration of Mark/Comment Importance from Written Feedback Survey 2 ..................102
Figure 18. The Total Count of Students’ Responses Showing the Consideration of Mark/Comment Importance from Written Feedback Surveys 1 & 2 ..........103
Figure 19. The Total Count of Students’ Responses Showing Their Focus when Reading Marks/Comments from Written Feedback Surveys 1 & 2F .........................105
Figure 20. Dibala’s First Draft of Essay 2 .................................................................109
Figure 21. Dibala’s Second Draft of Essay 2 .............................................................111
Figure 22. Sherlock’s First Draft of Essay 2 and Peer Comments on It .....................115
Figure 23. Sherlock’s Second Draft of Essay 2 .........................................................117
Figure 24. Mr. Potter’s First Draft of Essay 2 .............................................................118
Figure 25. Mr. Potter’s Second Draft of Essay 2 .......................................................119
Figure 26. Distribution of Written Feedback Incorporation in Cycles 1 & 2 ..............121
Figure 27. The Numbers of Written Feedback Received and Used, and Self-revision in Cycles 1 & 2 .............................................................................................................122
LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Background Characteristics of Participants ........................................................62
Table 2. Written Feedback Procedure .............................................................................65
Table 3. Schedule of the Study .........................................................................................80
Table 4. Demographic Data Sheet ....................................................................................81
Table 5. Written Feedback Incorporation Sheet ...............................................................82
Table 6. Data Coding Sheet ..............................................................................................83
Table 7. Data Categorizing Sheet .....................................................................................84
Table 8. Preference of Error Indication in Essay 1 ..........................................................187
Table 9. Preference of Error Indication in Essay 2 ..........................................................188
Table 10. Preference of Response Focus in Essay 1 .........................................................189
Table 11. Preference of Response Focus in Essay 2 .........................................................190
Table 12. Consideration of Mark/Comment Importance in Essay 1 ..............................191
Table 13. Consideration of Mark/Comment Importance in Essay 2 ..............................191
Table 14. Focus When Reading Marks/Comments in Essay 1 .......................................192
Table 15. Focus When Reading Marks/Comments in Essay 2 .......................................192
Table 16. The Numbers of Feedback Received and Used, and Self-revision in Essay 1 ........................................................................................................................................193
Table 17. The Numbers of Feedback Received and Used, and Self-revision in Essay 2 ........................................................................................................................................193
Table 18. The Analysis of Perceived Benefits of Written Feedback ...............................194
Table 19. The Analysis of Influencing Factors in Incorporating Written Feedback ......197
INDONESIAN STUDENTS’ PERCEPTIONS OF WRITTEN FEEDBACK IN SLW

Table 20. The Analysis of Influencing Factors in not Incorporating Written Feedback

.................................................................198

Table 21. The Analysis of Cultural Influences in Shaping Students’ Perceptions ..........199
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Writing is one of the skills that is considered to have an essential significance in second language (L2) learning because it serves as both a tool for communication and a means of learning, thinking, and organizing knowledge or ideas. Unfortunately, writing has also been considered one of the most difficult skills for L2 learners to master because it encompasses problem solving and deploying strategies to achieve communicative goals (Graham, 2010; Kurt & Atay, 2007). In addition, it takes the writer’s ability to use the appropriate choices of vocabulary, sentence, and paragraph organization to produce a readable text along with a particular rhetoric pattern (Richards & Renandya, 2002). For L2 learners, the difficulty in L2 writing is doubled because they need to transfer ideas from their first language into the target language and organize those ideas into new and different patterns than those in their first language (L1). These particular challenges that learners encounter in L2 writing call for teachers and researchers to find better ways for instructing writing. Providing feedback is one of the most appropriate ways of instruction to help L2 learners successfully learn a writing skill (Hyland & Hyland, 2006a). Ghazal, Gul, Hanzala, Jessop, and Tharani (2014) defined feedback as useful information provided to students on drafts to guide them for performing better in the future assignments.

Although writing was viewed as a product activity, where emphasis was put on grammatical and syntactic accuracy (Kern & Schultz, 1992), over the past forty years there has been a shift to focus on writing as process, in L1 as well as in L2 instruction. After the shift from a product approach to a process approach to writing, the significance
of feedback has also been widely recognized in the development of L2 writing (Hyland & Hyland, 2006a). The key element in process approach is the production of multiple drafts that the writer must revise and edit in order to produce a good quality final draft. Thus, it is essential that students receive feedback on their drafts during the editing and revision stage. Scholars have highlighted a variety of ways of responding to student writing, two of them are teacher and peer written feedback. However, providing effective feedback is one of the many challenges that any writing teacher faces. In a second language classroom, written feedback practices can be even more challenging because in addition to organization and punctuation problems, grammar and mechanic feedback is also a concern.

Research has shown that written feedback is a crucial part of the writing process (Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990). Many studies investigating the effect of written feedback on students’ writing have also indicated that written feedback process helps students improve the quality of their writings (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2006; Jahin, 2012; Kamimura, 2006). However, few exist that focus on how written feedback provided by teacher and peers is perceived by students. Students’ perceptions are the beliefs or opinions that they have as a result of realising or noticing something, especially something that is perhaps not obvious to other people such as teachers or other students. These beliefs and opinions are the result of direct experiences during the written feedback process and also very personal and individual, which result in different perceptions from one student to another. Thus, students' perceptions regarding feedback play a crucial role in determining the effectiveness of its implementation in L2 writing instruction.
Perception is the process of recognizing (being aware of), organizing (gathering and storing), and interpreting (binding to knowledge) sensory information in order to give meaning to the environment (Ward et al, 2015). It is shaped and sometimes distorted by a number of factors residing in the perceiver, in the object or target being perceived, or in the context of the situation in which the perception is made. Specifically, Lewis (2011) stated that aspects such as the cultural context have a profound influence on that which is being perceived. Based on this information, we can assume that culture can also play an important role in shaping students’ perception of the effectiveness of written feedback implementation in L2 writing instruction. Students from more hierarchical cultures like Indonesia where teachers are ascribed the highest power and ultimate source of knowledge in classroom interactions may perceive different values of written feedback provided by teachers and peers (Allaei & Connor, 1990; Miao, et. al., 2006, Scollon, 1999; Tsui & Ng, 2000). Miao, Badger, and Zhen (2006) stated, ‘the hierarchical relationship between teachers and students is “problematic” in the feedback process since students are always expected to abide by what the teachers say and they are not supposed to challenge the teachers and their opinions’ (p. 180). Therefore, EFL students from hierarchical cultures may also feel obliged to incorporate all comments provided by their teacher but reluctant to use those provided by peers (Carson & Nelson, 1994; Nelson & Carson, 1998). For those reasons, it is important to conduct research exploring Indonesian students’ perceptions of written feedback in L2 writing.
Statement of the Problem

Feedback has been acknowledged as an important part of the learning process. It is depicted as a significant factor to improve knowledge and skill acquisition in writing (Shute, 2008). In addition to its impact on achievement, feedback is also seen as crucial for both consolidating and encouraging learning (Anderson, 1982; Brophy, 1981). The importance of feedback in educational context is also confirmed by many other researchers (e.g., Chandler, 2003; Diab, 2005; Ferris, 2003, 2006; Hounsell, 2003; Ramsden, 2003). Hounsell (2003) asserts that feedback plays a decisive role in learning and development, within and beyond formal educational settings. Thus, providing effective feedback on students’ work represents one of the key characteristics of quality teaching (Ramsden, 2003). Noting the prominence of feedback in the learning process, the literature suggests that existing practices in educational context embrace feedback as an inherent element in the teaching learning process.

The significance of feedback has also been widely recognized in the development of second language (L2) writing (Hyland & Hyland, 2006a). Feedback in L2 writing classrooms became popular particularly after the shift from product approach to process approach of writing. Before the process approach emerged, the typical method of responding to students' writing was through assigning a grade on a paper (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). Teachers assumed that students would see their errors, correct themselves and understand why their writings were marked in red. However, in reality this system of response confused students because students did not really understand the mistakes they made and how to revise them (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996) which resulted in the emergence of the process approach. The process approach gives greater attention to teacher-student
encounters around texts and provides teachers more opportunity to support student writers through multiple drafts by providing feedback and suggesting revisions during the ongoing writing process, rather than handed down as a verdict on a finished one (Hyland & Hyland, 2006a).

Regarding the eminence of feedback in L2 writing, a large body of research has been conducted to investigate different aspects of feedback in L2 writing classrooms. However, much of the feedback research has put teachers at the center of the focus, investigating the strategies teachers use in giving feedback, their stances and perspectives, and the impact of teacher feedback on student writing (Lee, 2008a). Students tend to be viewed as mere recipients and are treated as a tabula rasa to be filled.

The perspective of students as passive agents in the feedback process runs contrary to what many other researchers believe. Hyland & Hyland (2006b) are among those who advocate that students should be active and proactive agents in the feedback process because it is a cognitive as well as socially constructed activity. Gibbs and Simpson (2004) highlight the importance of feedback being understandable, timely and acted upon by students. Yorke (2003) argues that the awareness of students’ psychology of giving and receiving feedback is vitally important to their learning. The focus shift from teachers to students has resulted in a growing number of studies on students’ perceptions of the feedback process.

Research on students’ perceptions of feedback only began to develop in the 1990s with most of the research focus on student preferences on different constructs of feedback (Lee, 2008a). Two of the constructs of feedback that have often been investigated are the form and the focus of feedback. A number of researchers have tried to investigate which
form of feedback students prefer to receive during the feedback process (e.g. Chandler, 2003, Chen et al, 2016; Hong, 2004; Ji, 2015; Lee, 2005; Zaman & Azad, 2012). The findings indicate indefinite conclusion of students’ preferences for the form of feedback. As L2 students place a high premium on accuracy in writing, they wanted direct corrective feedback from teachers (Chen et al, 2016; Lee, 2005; Zaman & Azad, 2012). Other studies (Hong, 2004; Ji, 2015) suggest that students preferred indirect to direct corrective feedback, where they were given clues and also a more active role to play in the feedback process. Meanwhile, Chandler (2003) found students’ ambivalence toward what form of corrective feedback they prefer more.

Research investigating the focus of written feedback that students prefer to receive on their drafts has also come to various conclusions. Some researchers believe that teachers should provide comments on content and organization first before giving any comments on grammar, while some others affirm that concentrating on local issues is useful in helping students improve their writing ability (Tom et al, 2013). Despite these two different beliefs on the focus of feedback, studies examining the effect of different foci of feedback have revealed that giving feedback both local and global has a positive impact on students’ writings (e.g. Ashwell, 2000; Campbell, 1998; Fathman & Whalley, 1990). Furthermore, research examining what teachers focus on when giving feedback has shown that some teachers focus more on local issues such as grammar and mechanics than on global issues such as content and organization (Ferris, 2006; Zamel, 1985). A growing number of studies have also been conducted to investigate students’ preferences for the focus of feedback they would like to receive on their writing drafts (e.g. Diab, 2005; Lee, 2008a; Tom, et al, 2013) with the results showing different preferences; some
prefers feedback on global issues (Diab, 2005; Lee, 2008a) while others prefer local over
global issues (Ferris, 1995, Tom, et. al, 2013). Thus, given the inconclusive research
findings, there is a need for more research investigating students’ preferences on the two
constructs of written feedback.

Furthermore, many studies investigating the effect of written feedback on
students’ writing have indicated that written feedback process helps students improve the
quality of their writings (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2006; Jahin, 2012; Kamimura,
2006). However, it is also necessary to find out how the feedback provided both by peers
and teacher is perceived by the students. Even when the system for giving feedback is
clear and consistent, oftentimes it is not known whether students understand the feedback
written on their drafts and how they can incorporate it during the editing and revising
process.

Another topic which is also significant to discuss in studies about feedback in L2
writing is the influence of students’ culturally constructed view of the feedback process.
Research investigating how cultural traits have significant bearing on students’
perceptions of feedback process in L2 writing has reported different findings. Educational
practice in cultures of hierarchical relationships places a great emphasis on “maintaining
a hierarchical but harmonious relation between teacher and student. Students are expected
to respect and not to challenge their teachers” (Hu, 2002, p. 98). Thus, students from
these cultures find teacher feedback authoritative and tend to incorporate all teacher
comments in their revision (Miao, et. al., 2006; Tsui & Ng, 2000). As a consequence,
these students are also more likely to have negative views of feedback from fellow
students and be reluctant to incorporate peer feedback in their writing (Carson & Nelson,
1994; Nelson & Carson, 1998). Interestingly, Miao, Badger, and Zhen (2006) and Tsui and Ng (2000) reported different findings showing that learners from hierarchical cultures value teacher feedback more highly than peer feedback but still recognize the importance of peer feedback. Furthermore, culture also has a significant impact on the effectiveness of peer feedback in L2 writing. Research findings showed that students coming from collectivist cultures which are much practiced in Asian countries generally work toward maintaining group harmony and mutual face-saving to maintain a state of cohesion (Carson & Nelson, 1996; Lee, 2008b, Nelson & Carson, 1998). This means that peer feedback may be less successful in a collectivist culture because of students’ unwillingness to criticize others. Given the importance of students’ cultural influences on feedback processes in L2 writing as found in the previous studies, it is necessary to conduct further research investigating this topic in a different context, in this study in Indonesian EFL context.

Finally, most studies investigating students’ perceptions of written feedback have been conducted in writing instructions in English as a second language (ESL) contexts and very few in English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts. Although writing instructions in these two contexts are mostly considered similar, Bhowmik (2009) argued that L2 writing pedagogical practices in EFL and ESL contexts are different in many ways, due to “the context-specific factors that demand certain kind of teaching and learning approaches effective for the specific context” (p. 354). Furthermore, these different characteristics may significantly influence the feedback processes in the two different contexts. Among those characteristics are class size in EFL situations, which is
much bigger than that in ESL contexts and class objective that aims to prepare students for examinations.

EFL classes in Indonesia also share these two characteristics. Tomlinson (2005), who studied the uniqueness of EFL teaching and learning in Indonesia, described Indonesian EFL classrooms as follow: “most learners of EFL learn [English] in school together with a large class of peers of similar age and proficiency. They typically have a coursework, they are preparing for an examination, and they are taught by a teacher who is not a native speaker of English” (p. 137). At university level on an average 40 is considered to be a regular class size. I personally have experienced classes of 100 students. With this class size, EFL teachers in Indonesia should work harder in providing feedback on students’ writings. Giving feedback on students’ writing drafts will also be very time consuming. This is to say that feedback in EFL classroom in Indonesia is easy to say but very hard to implement.

Furthermore, the main purpose of teaching EFL writing to students is not to teach them how to communicate and express their ideas in English since they are not required to write papers in English for any other classes. It is fairly commonplace that students are taught to prepare for the examinations, particularly high-stake examinations like TOEFL (Test of English as a foreign language) and IELTS (international English language testing system). The reason is because many universities in Indonesia demand their students to pass TOEFL test before graduating from their programs. In addition, most graduate programs in Indonesia require new students to provide an English proficiency score as part of their application requirements. Thus, although teachers are believed to be teaching a process approach to composing, in practice, they are more concerned about students’
written products and most student writings are completed in a single draft. Considering the different characteristics of ESL and EFL writing instructions, it is necessary to find out whether the findings of previous studies of written feedback conducted in ESL context resonate with those in EFL context, particularly in Indonesia.

**Research Questions**

Based on the statement of the problem discussed previously, this study attempted to answer the following research questions:

1. What are Indonesian university students’ preferences of written feedback?
   - A. What form of written feedback do students prefer to receive from peers and teacher on their writings?
   - B. What focus of written feedback do students prefer to receive from peers and teacher on their writings?

2. What do students perceive as the benefits of the written feedback processes?

3. How do students incorporate written feedback in their writings?
   - A. How much written feedback do students incorporate in their writings?
   - B. What are the factors influencing students in incorporating or not incorporating written feedback in their writings?

4. Are there any cultural influences in shaping students’ perceptions of written feedback?

**Purposes of the Study**

The main purpose of this study is to investigate students’ perceptions of different constructs of written feedback in a college-level second language writing classroom. In addition, the study seeks to understand three other aspects related to written feedback
processes in L2 writing; first, the benefits of written feedback that students perceive, second, how students incorporate written feedback in their writings, and third, whether students’ culture shapes their perceptions of the perceived benefits and the way they incorporate the written feedback in their writings. The purpose of written feedback process in an L2 writing classroom is to engage student writers in the editing and revision of their writing. Another purpose is to practice their communicative skills, so the readers get the message that they are conveying in their writings.

The first objective of this study is to investigate students’ preferences of two constructs of written feedback; the form and the focus. Written feedback usually takes the forms of direct correction and indirect correction. Direct correction is the feedback given with the purpose to correct students’ errors on the scripts by providing the correct structural or lexical form which may include the crossing out of an unnecessary word/phrase/morpheme, the insertion of a missing word/phrase/morpheme, or the provision of the correct form or structure (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Van Beuningen et al, 2008, 2012). Additional forms of direct feedback may include written meta-linguistic explanation (the provision of grammar rules and examples at the end of a student’s script with a reference back to places in the text where the error has occurred). On the other hand, indirect correction is feedback which indicates that in some way an error has been made without explicit attention drawn (Ferris, 2003). This may be provided in some ways such as underlining or circling the error without providing corrections and using a code to show where the error has occurred and what type of error it is (e.g. S for spelling, T for tense, WO for word order). The focus of feedback can be on global, local, or both issues of the writing. Montgomery and Baker (2007) define feedback on global issues as
comments on ideas, content and organization of the writing. On the contrary, feedback on local issues is focused on matters of grammar and mechanics. Furthermore, they add that comments on global issues should focus on the student’s concrete and sophisticated ideas, a clear purpose for writing, appropriate use of transitions and good paragraphing and comments on local issues have to center their attention on complex grammar accuracy, spelling, punctuation, and formatting (Montgomery & Baker, 2007).

The second purpose is to examine the perceived benefits students report during the written feedback process and how they incorporate the written feedback they receive in their writings. Although previous studies investigating the effect of written feedback on students’ writing have indicated that written feedback processes help students improve the quality of their writings, it is important to find out students’ perception of the benefits (if there are any) of the written feedback provided both by peers and teacher. Furthermore, since written feedback is provided to encourage and challenge students to be better writers, it is also necessary to analyze how students incorporate the written feedback they receive during the editing and revising process in order to reach the purpose of written feedback process as mentioned previously.

The final purpose is to investigate whether culture plays a role in shaping students’ perceptions of written feedback. Previous studies have shown that students coming from different cultures may react differently when receiving feedback from teachers and peers. Students of hierarchical and collectivist cultures tend to follow all comments their teacher provide in their writings and feel reluctant to criticize their peers’ writings to maintain a positive group climate. However, when these students from different socio-cultural backgrounds are in demographically heterogeneous classes, they
are likely to come out of their comfort zones and assimilate with the general norms and practices that are functional in those classes (Bhowmik, 2009). This means that the influence of cultures can be different depending on the context where the students are learning. Thus, this study will seek to answer whether cultures will also influence students’ perceptions of written feedback in Indonesian EFL context.

**Significance of the Study**

This study will contribute to the growing body of research focusing on students’ perceptions of the feedback process in second language writing. The data collected in this study on students' preferences for the form and the focus of written feedback in L2 writing will add a new element to the available research about feedback, namely Indonesian students’ preferences. The studies in this area have tended to observe the effectiveness of different types of feedback. However, few studies have investigated student perceptions of feedback and most of them were conducted in an ESL context. This study may fill a gap in the literature by demonstrating the most commonly preferred form and focus of feedback in L2 writing in an EFL context. In addition, only two studies of this type have been conducted in Indonesia with Indonesian students majoring in English Education. Purnawarman (2011) examined the impacts of different strategies of providing teacher written corrective feedback on first semester ESL/EFL students’ writing accuracy and writing quality in the Department of English Education, Indonesia University of Education. Conducting her study in a private university in Indonesia, Susanti (2013) investigated students’ perceptions towards the effective feedback practices in a large EFL writing class based on participants, gender, and English proficiency level.
Since both of the studies focused on teacher written feedback only and did not discuss any issues addressed in this study, this study could hopefully fill that gap.

Furthermore, despite much research that has been conducted on feedback in relation to L2 writing instruction, very little attention has been brought to investigate the influence of culture in feedback processes in L2 writing. Culture and its role in shaping students’ perceptions of written feedback in L2 writing, particularly in an EFL context appear to have been under-estimated in the literature. Thus, this study will contribute to the growing body of research investigating this topic and be among the first to discuss it in an Indonesian EFL context.

The study was carried out with the hope that both teachers and students will be aware of students’ preferences of the form and the focus of written feedback, feedback that students perceive as beneficial in helping them revise and edit their writings, and the role of emotion in influencing students’ learning. Through the written feedback process, it is hoped that students will become more aware of their own writing practice. Furthermore, since feedback, particularly peer feedback creates opportunities for students to read and respond to one another’s writing, it is hoped that students can develop their sense of audience – their recognition of the perspectives, language, sentence structure, voice and other elements of writing that provoke, entertain or satisfy their audience (Tang & Tithecott, 1999). It can also help students make the transition from writing primarily for the instructor for the sake of grades to writing for a broader audience. Feedback activities may also increase students’ skills in communicating and collaborating effectively. Writing is a form of communication. Unlike oral communication where the speaker and listener can clarify what they are communicating directly when the meaning
is not conveyed correctly, writing is a one-way communication between the writer and her readers. Thus, it is very important for the writer to convey clear meaning that the readers can discern. Feedback activities provide the opportunity for the students to practice and improve their ability in conveying clear meaning through their writings. Finally, feedback may also help students increase their oral communicative skill because they will also need to clarify the feedback they receive from peers and teachers.

For the teachers, this study may raise their awareness about their teaching practice and will allow teachers to adjust to students’ preferences. Previous studies have looked at the roles of teachers and how teachers respond to students’ writing (e.g. Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hyland, 2003; Leng, 2014). Based on the findings of previous studies, many theories have developed about the effectiveness of feedback is effective in helping students improve their writing ability. Among them, teachers are advised to take the role of a reader, coach, facilitator and guide. Teachers are also advised to prioritize their comments as well as provide a balance of both praise and criticism. Past researches have also looked at students’ reactions to teacher feedback and their perception towards it. However, most of the studies available were carried out in the environments where English is used as a second language. There have been very limited researchers investigating written feedback in an EFL context, particularly in an Indonesian EFL context. Therefore, it is still vague as to whether Indonesian EFL students have the same view of written feedback as reported by existing research in this area. Thus, this study may be particularly useful to Indonesian university teachers who include written feedback in their teaching practices. Furthermore, understanding how culture influences students’ perceptions of written feedback can also help teachers anticipate responding to
such influences in order to maximize the impact of this pedagogical practice in their classrooms.

The study will also contribute to the practice of teaching L2 writing, both in English speaking environment as well as in environments where English is not the language of instruction. Findings of this study will be of interest to L2 writing teachers and researchers when feedback is considered as part of instructional activities. They may lead to further research to examine whether helping L2 writing students become more aware of their writing practices causes students to improve their writing skills or whether finding out students’ perceptions of written feedback makes teachers more aware of their written-feedback practices and causes teachers to change how they provide feedback. Furthermore, it may also lead to other studies to find other ways of investigating so as to make written feedback more effective in developing students’ writing.

Finally, what was found in this study may also have practical use. In the English Education department in the Faculty of Tarbiyah and Teachers Training at the State Islamic University of North Sumatra (UIN SU), students’ perceptions of written feedback have not been investigated. The result of this study may be a resource for policy makers at this institute to decide on the written feedback practices in writing classes. The study may also be useful to UIN SU teachers who provide feedback on the students’ papers and ultimately, to the students, whose perceptions of written feedback will be taken into consideration by the administration and teachers.
Research Design Overview

Most research investigating students’ perceptions of feedback in L2 writing has been studied using a mixed method of qualitative and quantitative. This study, however, applied the qualitative approach only. Therefore, I collected the data using a variety of instruments to ensure that nuances of students’ perceptions in every stage of written feedback process were captured. In addition, they provided rich and complex data and allowed the data triangulation for accuracy. I recruited a sample of 11 participants using a purposive sampling technique, however there were only seven participants whose data were analyzed in this study. The participants joined an after-class writing course consisting of seven meetings in total. In the first meeting, the participants were given peer feedback training to make sure that they had similar understandings of what to focus on when providing feedback on their peers’ drafts. The potential participants were the 6th semester students majoring in English Education at the State Islamic University of North Sumatra in Medan, Indonesia. The sample was quite homogenous in terms of first language but diverse in mother tongue, gender, ethnicity, and L2 writing skill.

Data for this study were collected through reflective journals, questionnaires, interview, and writing drafts. All 11 participants participated in the questionnaires, reflective journals, and writing drafts, but only seven were invited to participate in face-to-face interview session. Since the aim of the interview was to validate or invalidate findings from the other data sources and to dig further information in addition to what had been found in them, not all participants were invited to participate. Data were counted for frequency and coded allowing for themes to emerge from the data in relation to the topics under investigation.
Limitations of the Study

There are some limitations of this study that should be acknowledged. First, this study was conducted in an after-class writing course, which means that it does not represent the real atmosphere as that found in a formal writing class setting.

Second, the students joined this class voluntarily, which could indicate their positive attitude towards ESL writing class. Meanwhile, in a formal class setting, students do not take the class voluntarily, but because it is compulsory, so they have no other options except taking it. This means that students taking English writing class in a formal class setting may have either positive or negative attitude towards it.

Third, the researcher was also the teacher in this writing course which may raise questions whether students were giving their true perceptions or just reporting what they thought the teacher/researcher wanted to hear.

Fourth, the participants were quite homogenous in terms of first language and represented only Indonesian college students majoring in English department. This particular group of students does not represent the majority of Indonesian students who learn English in classrooms where English is not commonly used as the language of instruction. This also means that the extent to which the participants in this study may represent Indonesian students in other contexts is debatable. Finally, the qualitative data clearly do not provide a basis for statistical generalization, but do enable student viewpoints to be aired and analyzed.
Definitions of Key Terminology

1. L2 Writing: the study of writing by non-native speakers/writers of a language as a second or foreign language.

2. ESL: the use or study of the English language in countries where the medium of instruction in education and government is in English, although English may not be the native language.

3. EFL: the use or study of the English language in countries where English is not the language of the community but taught in schools.

4. Written feedback: comments written on students’ writing drafts that generate both global and local issues of the writing. Comments can be praise, criticism, or suggestion.

5. Form of feedback: either direct correction by providing the correct structural or lexical form and meta-linguistic explanation or indirect correction by indicating the error without explicit explanation (Ferris, 2003).

6. Focus of feedback: either on global issues as comments on ideas, content and organization of the writing, on local issues including grammar accuracy, spelling, punctuation, and formatting, or on both (Montgomery & Baker, 2007).
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this study is to investigate students’ perceptions of different aspects of written feedback in a writing classroom in Indonesian EFL context. This chapter discusses several areas in the literature, previous studies related to feedback and second language writing in ESL and EFL settings, and the theoretical framework on which this study is grounded. This literature review begins with a discussion of important aspects in L2 writing, such as, the process approach in writing instruction and the difference between ESL and EFL contexts. Following that is the overview of feedback in L2 writing instruction. Next, the discussion focuses on L2 writing in the Indonesian EFL context and some cultural aspects influencing the dynamics of interactions in Indonesian classrooms. After that, a section reviewing previous studies that investigated students’ perceptions of different aspects of feedback in L2 writing classrooms is presented. This chapter will conclude with an explanation of the concept of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and its relations to the study of written feedback in L2 writing classrooms.

L2 Writing Instruction

Writing is the skill that comes at the end according to Krashen’s (1994) natural order hypothesis of language learning; however, this does not make writing skill insignificant to learn. In fact, writing is one of the skills considered to have an essential significance in second language (L2) learning. Its significance increases manifolds in the academic contexts in which students are required to apply this skill as a main tool to show what they have learned (Javid & Umer, 2014).
For L2 learners, writing is also one of the most difficult skills to master. This is because writing demands adequate knowledge of content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics (Jacobs, et. al, 1981). It also requires a responsibility in self-monitoring in the process of planning, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing (Cresswell, 2000). Al-samadani (2010) added that writing is a complex, challenging, and difficult process because it includes multiple skills such as identification of thesis statement, writing supporting details, reviewing and editing. For L2 learners, the difficulty in L2 writing is doubled because they need to transfer ideas from their first language into the target language. Thus, the approaches, methods, and techniques to L2 writing instruction have continuously been developed and L2 writing teachers are demanded to apply the most suitable ones that can best help students develop their writing skill. This section will discuss one of the most popular approaches in L2 writing instruction, the difference of L2 writing instruction in ESL and EFL contexts, and the application of feedback in L2 writing instruction.

**Process Approach in L2 Writing Instruction**

The process approach in writing pedagogy was first developed in the first language (L1) context as the result of dissatisfaction with the product approach. In the 1970’s, researchers and teachers of writing to native speakers of English were beginning to explore the processes that went on in the creation of written text. They argued that writing was a highly complex process, made up of various sub-processes that occurred not one after another in a strict linear sequence, but cyclically and in varying patterns. This is in accordance with what Murray (1980) stated that writing is linear only in the product; however, the process is recursive as writers go back in order to move forward.
Thus, instead of concentrating on the writing that students produce and making critical comments on it, writing teachers should aim to help students write better by aiding them in the actual process of writing, by finding the source of their problems in creating good written texts.

The success of the process approach in the L1 context was later adapted to the L2 context. In fact, it has been one of the most popular ways to teach L2 writing, particularly in ESL and EFL contexts (Bae, 2011). Traditionally, L2 writing pedagogy aimed to help students to produce a flawless text by correcting surface mistakes of grammar, punctuation, and spelling (Kang, 2006). With the paradigm shift to the process approach, L2 writing pedagogy puts a major focus on the process a writer engages in when constructing meaning. As students are given enough time to go through the writing process along with appropriate feedback from both their teachers and peers, they can develop their first drafts which might be unorganized and full of grammatical errors to final drafts which are better organized with fewer grammatical errors. Murray (1972) identified three stages of the writing process, namely: pre-writing - the generation of ideas and goals referred to as planning; writing - the translation of these ideas and goals to words; and revising- the constant rereading of what has been written to check that it matches the writer's intentions.

However, despite its popularity, the process approach in L2 writing pedagogy is not without critics. As Hyland (2009) stated that this approach puts the focus only on process, and teaching good writers’ strategies cannot fully equip students as good writers. In addition, although studies have found the similarities of writing behaviors in L1 and L2 contexts (e.g. Baroudy, 2008; Sasaki, 2000; Zamel, 1982), L1 and L2 writers are still
linguistically different. According to Brown (2001), L2 writers are less fluent, less accurate and less efficient in terms of planning and organizing materials. In addition, grammatical and rhetorical conventions between L1 and L2 are different, and L2 writers do not have sufficient vocabulary. Thus, L2 writing teachers should be careful when adapting the process approach in their classrooms.

**L2 Writing Instruction in ESL vs. EFL Contexts**

In L2 writing pedagogy, the term ‘English as a second language’ (ESL) is often used synonymously and interchangeably with the term ‘English as a foreign language’ (EFL). Some researchers even believe that L2 students in these two contexts basically have similar problems in writing, which are related to grammatical weaknesses (e.g. Reid, 1982). However, some other researchers argue that they are conceptually distinct (e.g. Bhowmik, 2009; Stern, 1983; Tickoo, 1995). Synthesized from the definitions provided by a number of scholars (e.g., Broughton et al., 1978; Judd, 1987; Nayar, 1997), the term ‘EFL’ is used to refer to the function of English in a country in which there is little or no community use but it is taught as a subject in educational institutions (i.e., Japan, Korea, and Indonesia). On the other hand, the term ‘ESL’ is used in reference to a linguistic environment where English is the primary language for the vast majority of people or where English is widely spoken in the community (e.g., Singapore, Hong Kong, Pakistan).

The two definitions provided above indicate that the two terminologies designate very different linguistic environments. In addition to that, Tickoo (1995) and Bhowmik (2009) noted some different characteristics of English teaching in the two contexts, the followings are some of them:
• EFL is learnt in the classroom where the main source of the language is a prescribed textbook taught by a teacher. In most such cases, the language has no existence outside the classroom; it often ceases to exist as soon as the textbook is closed.

• An EFL teacher is a native speaker of one or two other languages which she shares with her pupils. The primary goal of learning the language is to gain access to scientific knowledge and global communication.

• The English language is taught/learned in an institutional context which has to remain responsive to established beliefs, expectations and attitudes on good teaching, valued knowledge and preferred forms of classroom interactions.

• Cultures and tradition, particularly in most Asian societies influence English teaching and learning in EFL context.

• The class sizes in EFL contexts tend to be much bigger those in ESL ones. Large classes are a common problem in most developing countries that have a lot of population. Educational administrators in these countries cannot afford to have smaller classes primarily because of lack of funding and logistics.

• Finally, the objective of English writing pedagogy in these two contexts is different. EFL writing context is too high-stake examination oriented. Teachers are quite concerned about how they can make their students do well on these examinations such as TOEFL and IELTS tests. Meanwhile, students in ESL context learn writing skill to develop their abilities in academic writing.

In conclusion, L2 writing pedagogy in EFL and ESL contexts are different in many ways. Furthermore, like in ESL contexts, English language pedagogical practices in
EFL contexts differ because they cover a large English learning population. Thus, writing pedagogical practices should be designed in accordance to the context-specific factors that demand certain kind of teaching and learning approaches effective for the specific context.

Feedback in L2 Writing Instruction

The term 'feedback' grew out of the broadcasting industry to refer to the unpleasant squawking sounds resulting from the volume of a microphone when it is set incorrectly. Since the sounds that enter a microphone are referred to as feeds, it followed that the unpleasant sounds heard after the feeds would be called feedback (Pozefsky, 2006). Thus, in the beginning of its use in educational context, feedback was perceived as ‘the unpleasant sounds’ which reflected students’ negative view of feedback as an unwanted consequence of the input. Feedback was perceived as giving negative impact on students, crushing their confidence, destroying their motivation, and rendering them impotent for future learning (Burke & Pieterick, 2010). It took several decades for the term to be seen as to provide a more positive assistance on students’ learning like it is now.

There are many definitions of feedback found in the literature. Ramaprasad (1983, as cited in Taras 2005, p. 470) states “feedback is the information about the gap between the actual level and the reference level of a system parameter which is used to alter the gap in some way.” Nicol and Macfarlane (2006) particularly see feedback as a teacher’s domain and define it as information provided by teachers to help students trouble-shoot their performance. Carless (2006) gives a more comprehensive definition emphasizing the social dynamics of the term, “feedback is a social process which includes discourse,
power, emotion, and process impact” (p.221). In conclusion, all definitions of feedback refer to helpful information that is given to a learner to say what can be done to improve her performance.

Feedback has been acknowledged as an important part of the learning process. It is depicted as a significant factor to improve knowledge and skill acquisition (Shute, 2008). In addition to its impact on achievement, feedback is also seen as crucial for both consolidating and encouraging learning (Anderson, 1982; Brophy, 1981). The importance of feedback in an educational context is also confirmed by many other researchers. Hounsell (2003) asserts that feedback plays a decisive role in learning and development, within and beyond formal educational settings. Thus, providing effective feedback on students’ work represents one of the key characteristics of quality teaching (Ramsden, 2003). Noting the prominence of feedback in learning process, it is understood that literature suggests that existing practices in educational context embrace feedback as an inherent element in teaching learning process

The significance of feedback has also been widely recognized in the development of second language (L2) writing (Hyland & Hyland, 2006a). Feedback in L2 writing classrooms became popular particularly after the shift from the product approach to the process approach of writing. Since a key element in writing process theory is the production of multiple drafts, the writer must revise and edit in order to produce a good quality final draft. In the editing and revision stage, writers may self-edit their drafts, give and receive feedback from the teacher and/or from a peer. Consequently, the importance of feedback has been highlighted in the L2 writing pedagogy. Williams (2003) explained that the goal of feedback in L2 writing is to teach the skills that help student writers
improve their writing proficiency to the point where they are cognizant of what is expected of them as writers and are able to produce it with minimal errors and maximum clarity.

**EFL Writing Instruction in Indonesia**

After Indonesia gained her independence from the Dutch in 1945, the Dutch language was eliminated and replaced by the English language as the first foreign language in the country with official approval in 1955 (Mappiasse & Sihes, 2014). Although Indonesia was never colonized by the British, the language has become a significant part of the nation’s institutions. The need of the language for communication and business transaction with neighboring countries made the learning inevitable (Lauder, 2008). As a consequence, English has become the only foreign language mandatorily taught from secondary up to university level and has even been extended during the last few years to a number of primary schools in capital cities in Indonesia (Hasmiati et al, 2015). The allotted time to learn English is different from one level to another. Starting from Grade 4, English is officially taught for two to four hours a week. At the high school level (Grades 10 through 12), students are streamed into three divisions: The Natural Sciences Stream, the Social Studies Stream, and the Language Stream. For all three streams, English is compulsory and allotted at least four class hours per week. For the Language Stream, the time allotment for English is eleven hours per week. At the university level, many non-English departments require that students take one or two semesters of English for two hours per week.

Although the interests and concerns about English education have been a priority in Indonesia, teaching writing has been neglected in English classrooms. Based on the
school based-curriculum as endorsed by the Department of National Education of the Republic of Indonesia in 2004, the teaching of English writing should cover five different text genres, namely: recount, narrative, procedure, descriptive and report at the Junior Secondary Schools. Whereas, twelve text genres, namely: recount, narrative, procedural, descriptive, report, news items, analytical exposition, persuasive exposition, spoof, explanation, discussion and review at the Senior High Schools (Depdiknas, 2005). However, in practice, writing has been only practiced as a wrap-up activity used to reinforce the learning of vocabulary and language structures at the sentence level. The neglect of writing instruction in English classrooms can be ascribed to the teaching method and approach used by most English teachers in Indonesia. English teaching is usually dominated by teacher-centered activities in order to meet the language teaching goals. This is in accordance with what Lestari (2008) said about English writing class, “the stereotype pattern of teaching writing is that the teacher gives a topic and the students write a paper on it” (p.43). Furthermore, teachers focus more on form, i.e., syntax, grammar, and mechanics rather than on the content. When responding to students’ writings, they tend correct the grammatical structures and try to minimize mistakes in terms of forms of language. Consequently, there are a lot of teachers who prefer to use grammar translation method principles to teach writing skill (Budiarti & Anggraeni, 2013). This traditional approach to teaching writing also views students’ writing as a product instead of a process.

The preference of using traditional approach to teach writing may also be related to its purpose which is very high stakes examination oriented. Indonesian EFL students, particularly at the university level, are taught to prepare for the high-stake examinations
such as TOEFL and IELTS. The reason is because many universities in Indonesia demand their students to pass TOEFL or TOEFL-like tests before graduating from their programs. In addition, most graduate programs in Indonesia require new students to provide an English proficiency score as part of their application requirements. Thus, the product approach to teaching writing is more preferable to the process one.

Besides the traditional teaching method, there also some other constraints to the practice of teaching English writing in Indonesia, such as the large class size, the lack of educational resources, and the nature of EFL learning environment, which does not provide adequate exposure to English for the majority of the learners (Lie, 2007). Tomlinson (2005) described Indonesian EFL classrooms as follow: “most learners of EFL learn [English] in school together with a large class of peers of similar age and proficiency. They typically have a coursework, they are preparing for an examination, and they are taught by a teacher who is not a native speaker of English” (p. 137). The common class size in Indonesia is 40 students. With this class size, giving feedback on every student’s draft will be very time consuming and take extra work for EFL teachers in Indonesia. This may be another reason why the product approach to writing is more preferable than the process approach that emphasizes multiple drafts of writing and the importance of feedback during the editing and revising stage.

**Some General Features of Indonesian Culture**

Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) stated that culture is a collective phenomenon because it is at least partially shared with people who live within the same social environment. It includes language, art and sciences, thought, spirituality, social activity, and interaction (Tabalujan, 2008). Since classroom context reflects a social unit within
the larger unit of a society (Maulana et al, 2016), culture, thus plays an important role in pedagogical practices, including in L2 writing classrooms.

The influence of culture in L2 writing is also highlighted by Tickoo (1995) who argued that one of the differentiating characteristics of L2 writing instruction in ESL and EFL contexts is how cultures influence the pedagogical practices in classrooms. This is particularly significant in most Asian societies which are heirs to rich and established cultures and traditions. In addition, research also shows that L2 writing pedagogy in EFL context especially that in Asia, is confronted by the issue of culture, which plays a critical role in effective L2 writing instruction (Bhowmik, 2009). Among the issues of culture that influence the effectiveness of L2 writing instruction as reported in some research findings are the hierarchical relationship between teachers and students (e.g., Miao et al, 2006; Scollon, 1999; Tsui & Ng, 2000) and collectivist society that practices face-saving strategy to maintain group harmony (Carson & Nelson, 1996; Lee, 2008b, Nelson & Carson, 1998).

The two cultural values of hierarchical relationship and collectivist society are also found in Indonesian cultures. Hierarchy is very important in Indonesian society and people's status should be respected at all times. This hierarchical structure suggesting obedience to higher authority figures is also reflected in teacher–student relationships in Indonesian classrooms (Maulana et al, 2016). Teachers are the ones who are responsible for managing order and neatness in classrooms and students are expected to follow their rules. Lewis (as cited in Novera, 2004) described the relationship between Indonesian teachers and students which is circumscribed by their respective social positions and traditional beliefs about learning.
The teacher is seen to be a moral authority and students are expected to defer to all their superiors, including teachers. Teachers are also viewed as the fountain of knowledge – while knowledge is viewed as a more or less fixed set of facts to be transmitted and digested by thirsty learners, later to be regurgitated in test (a deficit model of learning). (p. 478)

One related aspect of hierarchical culture is the concept of power distance. Hofstede (1980) defined power distance as a measure of interpersonal power or influence between two persons. In educational settings, power distance includes the distance between a teacher and a student. In a county with a large power distance like Indonesia, teachers are viewed as the holders of truth, wisdom, and knowledge, and they pass this knowledge on to their students. Thus, EFL/ESL students from countries with a large power distance are perhaps less likely to value their peers’ views than are students from countries with a lower power distance (Nelson & Carson, 1998).

Indonesia is also known as a collectivist society that places higher importance on the group than the individual (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). The collective nature of Indonesian society resembles a ‘high contact’ feature in which people express a substantial amount of interpersonal closeness (Hall, 1966) and place a strong emphasis on social harmony, conformity, and family interdependence (Chao & Tseng, 2002; Uchida & Ogihara, 2012). For this reason, saving face strategy is a very important practice. Indonesian students are not encouraged to ask questions to their teacher, and are reluctant to ask questions even when they are invited to do so. Questioning is seen “to challenge teacher’s authority, and to demonstrate one’s arrogance or ignorance – to risk the possibility of punishment or personal humiliation (loss of social face)” (Lewis as cited in
When interacting with other class members, Indonesian students tend to avoid debates and confrontation in class and will generally work toward maintaining class harmony and mutual face-saving to maintain a state of cohesion. It may be difficult for an Indonesian student to respond to other students’ writing in any manner other than being positive. She may say what the writer wants to hear rather than what might be helpful. Thus, it is interesting to find out whether the cultures of hierarchical relationship and face-saving strategy in Indonesian society also influence the L2 writing pedagogical practices in Indonesia EFL context, as reported in other EFL contexts in Asian society.

**Research on Students’ Perceptions of Feedback in L2 Writing**

A large body of research has been conducted to investigate different aspects of feedback in L2 writing classrooms. However, much of the feedback research has put teachers center stage, focusing on the strategies teachers use in giving feedback, their stances and perspectives, and the impact of teacher feedback on student writing. Research on students’ perceptions of feedback only began to develop in the 1990s with most of the research focus on student preferences on different constructs of feedback (Lee, 2008a).

The term ‘perception’ refers to one’s process of understanding and becoming aware or conscious of the outside world through processing sensation in the cognitive domain. When one is trying to make sense of their surrounding world, the process does not only involve the cognitive domain (logical thinking and reasoning), but also the affective domain including feelings, emotions, attitudes, values, and motivations (Struyven, et. al., n.d.). Thus, in the literature on the studies of students’ perceptions
about learning, the term has been used to identify students’ ideas, beliefs, opinions, preferences, feelings, attitudes, and so on about their learning.

In the studies of students’ perceptions of feedback in L2 writing classrooms, emotion is also one important topic to discuss. Higgins et al (2001) argue that feedback in L2 writing classrooms is strongly related to the issues of power and emotion because of the particular nature of the power relationship in feedback process in which the teacher occupies the dual role of both assisting and passing judgment on the student. Researchers (e.g. Barnard et al, 2015; Dowden et al, 2013) found that emotions are inextricably linked to students’ perceptions of the benefits of feedback in writing classroom. As a result, emotions may greatly influence the way in which students are able to receive and process feedback.

These following sections will review the research investigating students’ perceptions in L2 writing, particularly those focusing on students’ preferences of two constructs of written feedback, namely; the form and the focus of feedback, the usefulness of feedback perceived by students, and the influence of culture in shaping students’ perceptions.

**Preference of the Form of Feedback**

Feedback in writing instruction may be either written or oral in form. Written feedback usually takes the forms of direct correction and indirect correction. A number of researchers have tried to investigate which form of feedback students prefer to receive during feedback process. The findings indicate indefinite conclusion of students’ preferences for the form of feedback. As L2 students place a high premium on accuracy in writing, they wanted direct feedback from teachers (Chen et al, 2016; Lee, 2005;
Zaman & Azad (2012). Other studies (Hong, 2004; Ji, 2015) suggest that students preferred indirect to direct feedback, where they were given clues and also a more active role to play in the feedback process. Meanwhile, Chandler (2003) found students’ ambivalence toward what form of feedback they prefer more.

Chen, Nassaji, and Liu (2016) investigated learners’ perceptions and preferences of written corrective feedback in an EFL setting. Sixty-four EFL learners across three proficiency levels (intermediate, advanced-intermediate, and advanced) in the English department of a major provincial university in Mainland China participated in this study by responding to a written questionnaire. One of the results showed that the participants’ preferences of error correction techniques leaned to direct form of feedback. Particularly, most students preferred their errors to be either located and indicated or corrected with an explanation for the correction. While the least preferred technique of error indication was by simply indicating that they made an error in the sentence by putting a cross next to it without locating or correcting the error. This result corresponds with that of Lee’s (2005) study examining L2 secondary students’ perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes about error correction in the writing classroom. The results show that from 320 students, 75.7% of them wished their teachers to correct all errors because this would make life easier for them.

Zaman and Azad (2012) conducted a study whose findings also showed students’ preference for direct form of feedback. They investigated Bangladeshi EFL university teachers' and learners' perceptions on various aspects of feedback, which included the preference of feedback provision strategies. Regarding students’ preference of the strategy for providing feedback, the data from the survey showed majority of the learners
preferred direct to indirect feedback. 84.16% learners expected their teachers to correct their writings by supplying the correct form, instead of simply underlining them or by using codes referring to the categories of error. Moreover, the data from interview revealed that the learners, especially those with low proficiency, felt quite helpless if the teacher did not supply the correct form and specifically explained why a particular form in their writing was incorrect.

The opposite results indicating students’ preference for indirect over direct written corrective feedback were found in the studies by other researchers. Involving 119 international students enrolled in ESL composition classes at Brigham Young University’s English Language Center as participants in his study, Hong (2004) examined the effect of teacher’s corrective feedback on ESL students’ self-correction activity. One of the findings of this study reveals a significant majority (53%) responded that they preferred indirect feedback, particularly the coded feedback (underlining errors with errors codes or labels) and only 21% of students preferred direct feedback. The findings of this study correspond with those of Ji’s (2015) study.

Ji (2015) study investigated Chinese EFL learners’ preference of corrective feedback as well as the effectiveness of instructor error correction on certain target structures. Provided with five options of corrective feedback; 1) direct correction with the correct expression given; 2) indirect correction with errors underlined; 3) indirect correction with errors underlined and error codes provided; 4) no need for error feedback; 5) others (please specify), the majority of the students (79.2%) reported that they favored indirect correction, of which 12.9% expected instructors to underline errors, and 66.3%
expected a combination of underlining errors and providing error code and only 20.8% preferred direct correction.

Different findings were revealed in Chandler’s (2003) study in which students show ambivalence of preference between the two forms of corrective feedback. 21 participated in this study by filling out questionnaires comparing four different teacher response methods; direct correction, underline and describe, describe, and underline. The analysis of the data from questionnaire followed with interview indicates that more than two-thirds of the students considered direct feedback to be the easiest method to revise their drafts. However, half or nearly half thought that indirect feedback was the easiest way to see what kind of errors they had made. Furthermore, they also reported that they had learned the most from indirect feedback and it had been the most help in writing correctly in future.

Preference of the Focus of Feedback

Among the hot topics in the debate about written feedback, one which is often questioned is related to the focus of feedback. It has been heavily debated (e.g., Ferris, 2004; Goldstein, 2004; Truscott, 2004) whether feedback for L2 student writers should focus on local or global issues. Ideally, teacher feedback should address all aspects of writing which are included in local and global issues. Ferris (2003) states that that teachers’ feedback provision on student writing has changed over time from focusing mostly on local issues particularly grammar to wider aspects of writing which include both local and global issues.

Research in the area of whether to focus on local or global issues when giving feedback has come to various conclusions. Some researchers believe that teachers should
provide comments on content and organization first before giving any comments on grammar, while some others affirm that concentrating on local issues is useful in helping students improve their writing ability (Tom et al, 2013). Despite these two different beliefs on the focus of feedback, studies examining the effect of different focuses of feedback have revealed that giving feedback focusing on both local and global issues of writing gives positive impacts on students’ writings (e.g. Ashwell, 2000; Campbell, 1998; Fathman & Whalley, 1990). Furthermore, research examining what teachers focus on when giving feedback has shown that some teachers focus more on local issues such as grammar and mechanics than on global issues such as content and organization (Ferris, 2006; Zamel, 1985). A growing number of studies have also been conducted to investigate students’ preferences for the focus of feedback they would like to receive on their writing drafts (e.g. Diab, 2005; Lee, 2008a; Tom, et.al, 2013) with the results showing different conclusions.

Tom, Morni, Metom, and Joe (2013) investigated ESL college students’ preferred feedback in helping them revise and improve their written assignments. With the subjects of 34 students taking an intermediate ESL class at the Faculty of Accountancy of the Universiti Teknologi MARA, Malaysia, the findings revealed that a significant number of students valued feedback on local issues more than that focusing on the global issues. More specifically, 88% of the students reported grammar as most useful. This was followed by vocabulary where 53% of the students reported it was most useful and 32% reported it as being useful. As for mechanics, 71% reported it was useful and 21% ‘useful’. 70% of the students claimed that comments on content/ideas were most useful.
and 26% reported it was useful. Finally, 56% of the students viewed organization as most useful and 32% useful.

Contradicted findings were found in the study conducted by Diab (2005) who investigated EFL university students’ preferences for error correction and paper-marking techniques and their beliefs about what constitutes effective feedback. Involving 156 EFL university students enrolling in English language courses at the American University of Beirut, Lebanon, the study showed that there are some interesting discrepancies in students’ beliefs regarding the importance of various features in their writing. Although the EFL students in this study generally equated the importance of feedback on both local and global issues in their writing; most students, however, chose comments on global issues in the paper as the most important teacher marks they look at. More specifically, most students chose comments on the writing style and ideas/content (74 and 72%, respectively), as the most important ones to look at, while slightly fewer students chose organization, vocabulary choice, and grammar (59, 57, and 53%, respectively). Finally, less than half the students chose marks indicating errors in spelling (39%) and even fewer chose marks indicating errors in punctuation (26%).

Finally, Lee (2008a) studied the reactions of students in two Hong Kong secondary classrooms to their teachers’ feedback and found out that the students’ preferences of the focus of feedback were different according to the level of proficiency. Analyzing the data from students and teacher, Lee (2005) reported that about half of the higher proficiency students wanted the teacher to give more feedback on content, but they appeared to show little concern for the organization of their writing (only 11.4% of them wanted more emphasis on organization). The lower proficiency students, on the other
hand, were more divided in their preferences; 23.8% wanted more feedback on content, 28.6% on organization, and 28.6% on language.

**Benefits of Feedback**

Many studies investigating the effect of written feedback on students’ writing have indicated that written feedback process helps students improve the quality of their writings (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2006; Jahin, 2012; Kamimura, 2006). Using a quantitative approach, the researchers show how students’ writing grades improve significantly from those before the feedback process was implemented. However, despite the significant impact of written feedback, the literature reveals that students are often dissatisfied with the feedback they receive for various reasons such as lacking specific advice to improve, being difficult to interpret, and having a potentially negative impact on students’ self-perception and confidence (Carless, 2006). The following are the findings of some studies examining the benefits of feedback for the students.

Carless (2006) conducted a large-scale questionnaire survey across 8 universities in Hong Kong to analyze students’ and tutors’ perceptions about various aspects of feedback in assessment they experienced including usefulness of feedback they received. 460 staff and 1740 students from 8 publicly funded universities in Hong Kong responded to the questionnaire consisting of 36 items, with scales in the *Likert* format. The analysis of the data from the questionnaire combined with the qualitative data through semi-structured interviews reveals the differing perception between tutors and students in terms of the usefulness of feedback as the tutors perceived their feedback to be more useful than the students do. Most of the students (37.8%) in this study reported that the feedback was not effective to help them improve their skill and only 10.6% of students
who found the feedback effective. The two most common reasons to students’ low perceived benefits of the feedback were because first, they were specific to a particular assignment and so did not provide support to do better in another assignment for a different module and second, they found difficulty in translating comments into future improvements in different assignments.

Eksi (2012) who investigated the impact of peer review in comparison to that of teacher feedback on students’ writing performance in an EFL academic writing context reported contrasting findings related to students’ perception of the usefulness of written feedback, particularly that provided by peers. The study involved 46 English majors at a state university in Ankara, Turkey as the participants. The data was collected from peer responses to first drafts, revisions, and comments from the instructor on the last drafts and student reflections in journals. Based on the analysis of the data from their reflection journals, it was found out that the majority of the students ($n = 20$) viewed the feedback process as helpful either when giving or receiving feedback. Most students found the comments they received from their peers were useful in improving their writings. However, a small number of students ($n = 2$) also reported that they were dissatisfied with the peer reviews and expressed that they did not benefit from the process. A closer look at their reflection journals revealed that dissatisfaction was mainly caused by failing to provide more deep level corrections.

One among the first studies investigating the benefits of feedback for the students was conducted by Berg (1999). She explored the effects of peer response on ESL students’ revision and writing outcomes by examining whether trained peer response shaped ESL students’ revision types and writing quality. Forty-six ESL students from 19
different countries who took a university-based intensive English program in the US participated in her study. The students were divided into two groups, one trained in how to participate in peer response to writing and the other not trained. The results showed that trained peer response positively affected ESL students’ revision types and quality of texts. Furthermore, it was also found that participating in peer response helped students develop critical thinking as they needed to consider the advice from a peer, question its validity, weigh it against his or her own knowledge and ideas, and then make a decision about what, if any, changes to make (p. 232).

Finally, Villamil and De Guerrero (1998) investigated the impact of peer revision on writers' final drafts in two rhetorical modes, narration and persuasion. This study was conducted in a large private university in Puerto Rico with 14 intermediate ESL college students as participants. The results showed that peer revision helped improve students’ final draft quality and promote learner autonomy as students were found to make further and self-revisions after peer response sessions. Similar results showing the benefits of feedback in improving writing quality and promoting learner autonomy were also found in Miao, Badger, and Zhen’s (2006). They stated that peer feedback “does lead to improvements and appears to encourage student autonomy, so it can be seen as a useful adjunct to teacher feedback…” (p193).

**Feedback Incorporation**

Studies involving teacher and peer feedback in ESL/EFL writing often address the questions related to how much peer feedback that students incorporate in their writings in comparison to teacher feedback incorporation. The existing literature shows that students tend to incorporate more teacher feedback than peer feedback (e.g. Miao et al, 2006; Tsui
& Ng, 2000, Zhang, 1995). However, very few studies in this area have also focused on the investigation why students incorporate or reject the feedback they receive (e.g. Allen, 2015). The following are some studies examining feedback incorporation and the reasons underlying it.

Miao, Badger, and Zhen (2006) conducted a study investigating the effects of peer and teacher feedback in L2 writing in China. Collecting their main data through questionnaires and interviews, they found that the students adopted more teacher feedback than peer feedback in their writings. Of the usable feedback pointed in the teacher feedback group, their students incorporated 90% of teacher feedback but only incorporated a 67% of the usable feedback pointed in the peer feedback group. Furthermore, the data from the interview revealed that the reasons why they preferred to incorporate teacher to peer feedback was because they believed that the teacher was more ‘‘professional,’’ ‘‘experienced,’’ and ‘‘trustworthy’’ than their peers. However, despite the findings showing that the students in their study valued teacher feedback more highly than peer feedback, they argued that their students still recognized the importance of peer feedback.

Similar findings showing students’ preference towards teacher to peer feedback were also reported in Tsui and Ng’s (2000) study. Majority of their students incorporated more than 50% of teacher feedback but less than 50% of peer feedback. The reasons were also similar to those explained in Miao, Badger, and Zhen’s (2006) study, because the students believed that the teacher was more experienced and a figure of authority and that teacher's comments guaranteed quality. They further explained that despite students’ preference of teacher over peer feedback, they treasured roles for peer feedback that
cannot be filled by teacher comments, which in the end made them less reliant on the teacher and more confident as writers.

A little different from the two previous studies focusing on the amount of feedback incorporation, Allen (2015) focused his investigation on the factors that influenced his students in incorporating or not incorporating feedback. Using an online-based survey involving 47 EFL university students in Japan, he found out that the factors related the feedback provided seemed dominating the reasons of feedback rejection. The students in his study stated that they did not incorporate feedback because “the suggestions were not grammatically correct” or “the suggestion was inaccurate/incorrect” which indicated the poor quality of the feedback; “I couldn’t read the comments due to poor handwriting” and “I couldn’t understand peer’s comments” which indicated the inefficiency of the feedback; and “making such revisions would not improve my paper” indicating negative or no impact of the feedback on their writings. The students also mentioned peer’s low proficiency as the reason why they rejected the feedback. On the other hand, two factors were mentioned to have influence on students’ incorporating feedback namely the perceived L2 proficiency and perceived topic knowledge of the feedback providers.

**Cultural Influences on Students’ Perceptions**

The influence of culture in L2 writing has been highlighted in a number of studies (e.g., Carson & Nelson, 1996; Lee, 2008b; Miao et al, 2006; Scollon, 1999; Tsui & Ng, 2000) showing how cultures influence the pedagogical practices in EFL classrooms, particularly in most Asian societies. These studies also emphasize the differentiating characteristics of L2 writing instruction in ESL and EFL contexts. However, some other
INDONESIAN STUDENTS’ PERCEPTIONS OF WRITTEN FEEDBACK IN SLW

researchers (e.g., Holliday, 1999; Kubota, 1999, 2001, 2004; Littlewood, 1999; Pennycook, 1994, 1996, 1998) have criticized the attempts to essentialize and polarize the cultural differences of ESL/EFL students. In her critics, Kubota (2004) stated that although cultural difference is an important topic of discussion in second language education, it should not be conceptualized as fixed, objective, and apolitical based on an essentialist and normative understanding of culture (p. 21). This is especially true when imaging the ESL learners in English-speaking countries such as the United States where classrooms are usually demographically heterogeneous. ESL learners in those classrooms tend to have the urge to assimilate with the general norms and practices that are functional in class. As explained by Bhowmik (2009), when ESL learners from different socio-cultural backgrounds work together in feedback activities, the issues of culture could be minimized because each student is likely to come out of her comfort zones and participate in class activities more actively.

In the analysis and discussion of the research findings, this current study would refer to the research investigating how cultures influence the pedagogical practices in EFL classrooms. It was not aiming to emphasis the cultural differences between students in ESL and EFL contexts, particularly those from Southeast Asian countries with the perceived culture of students in English-speaking countries such as the United States. The reason is because this study was conducted in a demographically homogenous classroom, similar to those referred studies.

Some research investigating feedback in L2 writing has reported different findings on whether cultural traits had a significant bearing on students’ perceptions of feedback process in L2 writing. Miao, Badger, and Zhen (2006) and Tsui and Ng (2000)
investigated how students from hierarchical cultures perceived and incorporated the feedback they received from teachers and peers differently. Carson and Nelson (1996; 1998) investigating cultural influence in feedback activities in two different studies reported that students’ view of cultural values affected the effectiveness of feedback in collaborative L2 writing.

Tsui and Ng (2000) conducted a study to investigate peer and teacher feedback in revision in L2 writing in a secondary school in Hong Kong in which English was used as the medium of instruction. Twenty-seven students participated in this study. The findings showed that students perceived teacher comments significantly more effective and useful than peer comment because they believed that the teacher was more experienced and a figure of authority. These findings show how cultural values shape students’ perceptions of the feedback they receive from teacher versus a peer. This is in accordance with the cultural value of traditional Chinese education stating that ‘students are expected to receive and retain, with an open mind and without preconceptions, the knowledge imparted by their teachers and textbooks.’ (Hu, 2002, p. 100).

The influence of hierarchical culture was also highlighted by Miao, Badger, and Zhen (2006) in their study. They argued that the power distance between teachers and students from hierarchical culture is “problematic” in the feedback process since students are always expected to abide by what the teachers say and they are not supposed to challenge the teachers and their opinions (p. 180). They also explained that in Chinese society the Confucian cultures ascribe a lot of respect to teachers which students at all levels usually follow.
Another cultural value which has been found to have an impact on feedback activities in L2 writing is face-saving which is much practiced in collectivist society. Carson and Nelson (1996; 1998) conducted two studies investigating Chinese ESL students’ interaction styles and reactions to peer response groups in ESL composition classes. In these studies, they examined three Chinese speaking students in an advanced ESL composition class in a US university. Arguing that writing groups, as used in composition classes in the United States, function differently than groups in collectivist cultures like China and Taiwan, they hypothesized that writing groups might be problematic for Chinese students studying in the US because of the cultural differences. Furthermore, they stated that the primary goal of the group in collectivist cultures is to maintain the relationships that constitute the group, to maintain cohesion and group harmony among the group members. Thus, students of collectivist culture tend to practice face-saving strategy in peer feedback group by not saying negative comments when responding other students’ works.

The findings of both studies affirmed their hypothesis. The analysis in the first study (Carson & Nelson, 1996) indicated that the Chinese students’ primary goal for the groups was social-to maintain group harmony-and that this goal affected the nature and types of interaction they allowed themselves in group discussions. The Chinese students were reluctant to initiate comments and, when they did, monitored themselves carefully so as not to precipitate conflict within the group. This self-monitoring led them to avoid criticism of peers’ work and to avoid disagreeing with comments about peers’ or their own writing. In the second study (Nelson & Carson, 1998), the researchers compared Chinese students’ perceptions of peer feedback group with those of Spanish students.
Although the analysis indicated that both the Chinese and Spanish-speaking students preferred negative comments that identified problems in their drafts, they had different views about the amount and kind of talk that was needed to identify problems. The Chinese students perceived the goal of peer feedback as problem-identification; they were reluctant to identify problems, recognizing, it seemed that making negative comments on a peer’s draft leads to division, not cohesion, in a group. In conclusion, peer feedback is less successful for students of collectivist cultures because of unwillingness to criticize others.

**Conclusion**

The success of a teaching instruction approach that incorporates written feedback as an essential step in the learning process is related to students’ perceptions of this type of strategy. If students do not see written feedback as a valuable and helpful process that can enhance their learning, it is likely that they will not fully commit to the process. Thus, it is important to take into consideration students’ perceptions of its value in the development of their own learning. Furthermore, without understanding how students feel about and respond to provide feedback, teachers may run the risk of continually using strategies that are counter-productive.

Based on the cited research, it can be concluded that students’ preferences of the form and the focus of feedback, the perceived benefits, and the cultural influences in feedback process in L2 writing are not conclusive. This also suggests that further studies need to explore students’ perceptions of written feedback in L2 writing classrooms. Further studies on students’ perceptions of written feedback in L2 writing instruction will enrich the literature and provide more information for ESL writing teachers who want to
implement this particular strategy in their classrooms. Furthermore, most of the cited studies were conducted in L2 writing in ESL context, thus it is necessary to conduct further studies of feedback in L2 writing in EFL context to find out whether the results as reported in this literature review will also resonate those in this context. In addition, since studies in EFL context also shows inconclusive findings of students’ preferences and perceived benefits of written feedback, a study conducted in a different EFL context such as Indonesia may contribute to a better understanding of these issues.

ZPD as the Theoretical Framework

A major justification for including feedback as part of L2 writing instruction is the Vygotskian theoretical framework of sociocultural theory (SCT). SCT is a theory about how humans think through the creation and use of mediating tools. According to Vygotsky (1978), human development is inherently a socially situated activity, thus the source of learning and development is found in social interaction rather than solely in the mind of an individual. Vygotsky furthermore claims that the secret of effective learning lies in the nature of the social interaction between two or more people with different levels of skills and knowledge.

Social interaction helps a learner to develop her mental functions (hereafter referred as ‘psychical functions’) within the zone of proximal development (ZPD) as she co-constructs knowledge with a more able peer or adult through guided learning. During this collaboration, the peer provides the learner with the appropriate level of assistance which helps stretch her beyond her current level towards her potential level of development. Such assistance is now commonly referred to in the literature as scaffolding. This metaphor, however, does not fully capture the interactive
teaching/learning process captured in the Russian term *obuchenie*. It also does not capture the concept of *meaningful, intellectual* imitation that Vygotsky considered essential in understanding the dynamic process of the ZPD (Vygotsky, 1987, p. 210). He drew a sharp distinction between mechanical imitation, such as that involved in training animals, and intellectual imitation. The whole process of mental, or intellectual imitation, within the ZPD as explained by Vygotsky is also reflected in written feedback in L2 writing. The next section discusses the concept of ZPD and why it is used as the theoretical framework in this study.

**The Concept of ZPD in Written Feedback Process**

Vygotsky’s concept of zone of proximal development (ZPD) has been used extensively as the theoretical basis for various studies investigating the role of feedback in second language (L2) classrooms (e. g. Altstaedter & Doolitttle, 2014; Chuang, 2009; Galvis, 2010; Lundstrom & Baker, 2009; Wakabayashi, 2013; Yu & Lee, 2014). Vygotsky (1978) explained the following about ZPD:

The zone of proximal development defines those functions that have not yet matured but are in the process of maturation, functions that will mature tomorrow but are currently in an embryonic state. These functions could be termed the "buds" or "flowers" of development rather than the "fruits" of development. The actual developmental level characterizes mental development retrospectively, while the zone of proximal development characterizes mental development prospectively (p. 87).

Vygotsky viewed the development of human mental functions as their transition from elementary/lower mental functions into higher psychical forms. The differences between
the two processes lie in four major criteria: (1) the shift of control from environment to the individual, that is, the emergence of voluntary regulation; (2) the emergence of conscious realization of mental processes; (3) the social origins and social nature of higher mental functions; and (4) the use of signs to mediate higher functions. (Wertsch, 1985, p. 25). While Wertsch uses higher mental functions, Vygotsky uses the formulation of higher psychical functions (Mahn, 2015).

![Figure 1. A model of child’s development of mental functions](image)

Vygotsky (1978) also defined ZPD as “the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). This means that there are three levels of development of the ZPD in a child (illustrated in Figure 1). The first level is called “the actual level of development” which can be detected by the learning tasks the child can solve individually and independently. The second one is “the potential level”, detectable by the tasks the child can solve in cooperation with the teacher or with
the more competent peers. The distance that lies between these two levels is known as ZPD. Finally, the last one is ‘the beyond level of development’ which refers to what the child cannot do at a certain age with or without the help from others.

Based on the understanding of ZPD as the distance between the actual and the potential level of development, Wells (1999) described three key aspects, which became the focus for Vygotsky in his development of the ZPD theory; (1) performance as a possible way to compare differential scores between an individual's independent and assisted performance in problem solving, (2) interaction emphasizing the social aspects of assistance and guidance, and (3) symbolic mediation through which a child development occurs in activity.

Two of the three key aspects explained above (interaction and symbolic mediation) are also mentioned as key aspects of feedback process in L2 writing. In addition to those two aspects, feedback activities in L2 writing classrooms also possess two other key aspects; intellectual imitation and internalization, which are important to help the maturation of some mental functions in order to reach learners’ ZPD (Villamil & De Guerrero, 2006; Wells, 1999).

Feedback activities are supported by the theoretical framework of Vygotsky’s ZPD. Vygotsky explains that the transformation of the human mind during the child development process, from elementary mental functions to higher psychical processes results from the unification of thinking processes and those involved in the reception and production of language (Mahn, 2012). Furthermore, to operate at the level of higher intellectual processes, the individual needs to go through a transformational process from social mediation to internalization, which “entails a long series of developmental
processes resulting in the radical alteration of the nature of psychological activity on the basis of sign mediation” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 57).

Aspects of the process of the transition from elementary mental forms to higher psychical processes as explained by Vygotsky are also present in feedback activities in L2 writing classrooms. A learner’s mental development in terms of writing may be reached through the following steps: social interaction, semiotic mediation, intellectual imitation, conscious awareness, and internalization which ideally are all present in feedback activities.

Social Interaction

Vygotsky explains that the development of higher psychical processes stems from social interactions from guided learning within the zone of proximal development as children and their partners co-construct knowledge. This means learning and teaching in the ZPD is clearly dependent on social interaction that entails meaningful, intellectual imitation. When the concepts of social interaction and intellectual imitation are applied in the feedback process in writing classrooms, a learner can work with a peer to provide comments or critiques on each other’s drafts in both written and oral formats in the process of writing. This process is known as peer feedback. Another type of social interaction can be found in the teacher feedback process, through which teachers give comments and/or revision on students’ writing drafts with the goal to improve students’ writing quality and in the process model the kind of thinking needed to improve the students’ writing.
Scaffolding and Intellectual Imitation

Scaffolding and intellectual imitation are fundamental concepts of the ZPD theory which is closely related to social interaction. Donato (1994) defined scaffolding in L2 teaching and learning context as “social interaction [in which] a knowledgeable participant can create, by means of speech, supportive conditions in which the novice can participate in, an extend current skills and knowledge to higher levels of competence” (p. 40). Similar to this, Rassaei, (2014) said that scaffolding is “a collaborative process through which a teacher or a more proficient learner provides support or guidance to assist a less proficient learner” (p. 420). From the two definitions, it can be concluded that scaffolding in L2 teaching and learning emphasizes more on the social interactions which can take place either in learner-teacher or learner-learner interactions. For Vygotsky, the key in these interactions is the intellectual imitation that occurs. Furthermore, he emphasizes that this process is also different from merely helping the learner in a unidirectional way, which is typical in the traditional teaching (Nassaji & Swain, 2000). As the learner begins to take on more responsibility for the task, the teacher or the more proficient peer takes on the intellectual process of the more expert indicating that the learner has benefited from the assisted performance and internalized the problem-solving processes provided by the previous scaffolded episode.

From this explanation, it can be concluded that there are three key concepts in intellectual imitation and scaffolding; collaborative work through which the learner can participate in and extend current skills and knowledge to a high level of competence through the imitation of the thinking process of the more advanced teacher or peer; directional assistance which is determined by the learner's need; and extraction of
assistance when it is no longer needed. When these three concepts of intellectual imitation and scaffolding are applied in feedback activities in the writing classroom, the focus of feedback provided by the teacher of the peer is only on the aspects of writing, which need developing or revising. By doing so, the learner is provided the structure necessary to complete the task. When the learner shows that s/he can revise the draft as suggested in the feedback and use the main ideas behind the feedback in his/her further writing, the writer becomes consciously aware of the thinking processes inherent in the feedback and is able to accomplish the task on her/his own and thus is regulating their own writing.

**Mediation**

Mediation is another key concept in learning in the ZPD. Vygotsky explains that a child’s development within a ZPD involves social interaction, dialogue, mediated activity, and intellectual imitation between learners and with their teachers. Mediation in a teaching and learning process can be defined as “the process through which humans deploy culturally constructed artifacts, concepts, and activities to regulate (i.e. gain voluntary control over and transform) the material world or their own and each other’s social and mental activity” (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 79).

In his writings, Vygotsky emphasizes that language/speech as a psychological tool played a critical role in the child's learning in the ZPD. However, Vygotsky (as cited in John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996) also lists many other modes of semiotic mediation that play a role in both interpersonal and intrapersonal thinking and problem solving which include “various systems for counting; mnemonic techniques; algebraic symbol systems; works of art; writing; schemes, diagrams, maps and mechanical drawings; all sorts of
conventional signs; and so on” (p. 193). When the concept of semiotic mediation is applied in feedback activities, the most common tools to use are either language/speech or written text. When the feedback is delivered orally (oral feedback), language is used to mediate the mental psychical processes. However, when written feedback is given, written comments on the written drafts become the mediated tool in social interactions between the learner and the teacher or peers.

**Internalization**

The concept of ‘internalization’ might be considered as the end phase in learning and development within the ZPD. When this phase is reached, the social interaction in the interpsychological processes has finally been conceived as the means to regulate individual performance through intrapsychological processes. In other words, the meditational means have been internalized to enable the learner to operate independently at the level of higher psychical processes (Villamil & De Guerrero, 2006).

Higher psychological processes unique to humans can be acquired only through interaction with others, that is, through interpsychological processes that only later will begin to be carried out independently by the individual. When this happens, some of these processes lose their initial, external form and are converted into intrapsychological processes.

(Leont’ev, 1981, p. 56)

Based on the citation above, the term internalization can be simply defined as “external activities (which) are transformed into mental ones” (Nassaji & Swain, 2000, p. 103) or “the movement of language from environment to brain” (Ohta, 2001, p.11).
One way of characterizing internalization is a progression from object or other regulation to self-regulation (Ellis & Shintani, 2014). When this character of internalization is applied in feedback activities, it means that the learner who has undergone the process of feedback through collaboration with a peer and/or a teacher has finally comprehended the points of comments/revision provided on his/her drafts and been able to use them to guide him/her in future writing. The comprehension of the feedback points and the ability to apply them in the learner’s own writing are the proof of internalization of social interaction with a more skillful person through scaffolded learning in feedback activities that reflect the imitation of the thinking processes of that person.

**Conclusion**

Learning in the ZPD involves the process of social interaction through scaffolded activities using the semiotic mediation that involves intellectual imitation with the final goal that the child can internalize the interaction and use it to guide or regulate his/her own performance. This process of learning in ZPD is also reflected in the written feedback activities in writing classroom. During feedback activities, a learner needs to interact or collaborate with a more able peer (either teacher or fellow learner) who provides assistance, modeling the thinking processes, (scaffolding) through comments on the drafts the learner writes. In this case, the comments provided are the semiotic mediation or the mediating tool. When the learner can finally work independently in producing his/her writing, the scaffolding provided previously is no longer necessary. At this stage, the learner can be said to have surpassed his/her ZPD and transformed his/her potential level to actual level of development, and in the process creating a new ZPD.
Regarding the similarity of the process of written feedback process in the writing classroom with that of learning in the ZPD as proposed by Vygotsky, it can be concluded that Vygotsky’s theory of ZPD can be used as the theoretical framework in studying feedback in any writing classrooms, including second language ones.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

A key part of a dissertation is the methodology as it describes the broad philosophical underpinning to the chosen research approach. Cresswell (2014) defines research approach as plans and the procedures for research that span the steps from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation, while methodology is the justification for using a particular research approach. The choice of research approach itself is directly tied to the research problem and purpose. Therefore, the researcher needs to use the methodology that will help answer the research question and achieve the purpose of the study.

The main purpose of this study was to investigate students’ perceptions of different aspects of written feedback in a second language writing classroom. Thus, I applied a qualitative research approach as ‘qualitative research is suited to promoting a deep understanding of a social setting or activity as viewed from the perspective of the research participants’ (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2016, p. 38). In addition, Creswell (1998) asserts that ‘qualitative methodology is especially useful in situations where the researcher is the “instrument of data collection who gathers words or pictures, analyzes them inductively, and focuses on the meanings of participants” (p. 14). However, despite the application of a qualitative approach, this study also included quantitative data in the form of frequency count. Since there was no statistics used in the data analysis, I assume that it was more suitable to say that this study only applied a qualitative approach, instead of a mixed-method one.
This chapter outlines the research design and the instruments used to undertake this qualitative research study. First, I describe the methodological tradition and philosophy that guided this study. Second, I discuss the selection of research participants and sampling technique. Third, the procedure of written feedback during the writing course experiment is explained. Fourth, I describe how the feedback training was done prior to the experiment. Fifth, the data needed to answer the research questions and how they were collected is discussed. Sixth, the method of data analysis is described. And last, I explain issues of trustworthiness.

Methodological Tradition and Its Philosophy

This study applied a qualitative case study approach. As a form of qualitative research methodology, case study is an intensive description and analysis of a bounded social phenomenon (or multiple bounded phenomena), be this a social unit or system such as a program, institution, process, event, or concept (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2016). Baxter and Jack (2008) explain qualitative case study as ‘an approach to research that facilitates exploration of a phenomenon within its context using a variety of data sources which ensures that the issue is not explored through one lens, but rather a variety of lenses which allows for multiple facets of the phenomenon to be revealed and understood’ (p.544). The earliest use of this form of research can be traced to Europe, predominantly to France in 1829 when Le Play, a French sociologist and economist, used case study in his statistical work in examining the economic conditions of the working class, particularly family budgets (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013). In the beginning of the use of case study approaches, there were serious attacks on their primacy. Researchers in other fields criticized case studies as ‘less scientific’ than quantitative approaches which
resulted in the depreciation in the use of case study as a research methodology and the advance use of quantitative methods. However, in the 1960s, researchers were becoming concerned about the limitations of quantitative methods in terms of their requirements and inflexibility which resulted in a renewed interest in this approach (Tellis, 1997).

Due to its flexibility and possibility to frame in-depth examinations of a subject of the study, case studies have been used as the approaches in a growing number of qualitative research studies in various disciplines including education. Case study was first introduced in the field of education by two education scholars; Robert Stake and Robert Yin. Stake and Yin based their approach to case study on a constructivist paradigm which claims that truth is relative and that it is dependent on one’s perspective. The six types of case studies recognized by Yin (1993) and Stake (1995) are: Exploratory, Explanatory, Descriptive, Intrinsic, Instrumental, and Collective. This study falls in the intersection between Descriptive and Exploratory design. Wood and Ross-Kerr (2006) define a descriptive exploratory design as a design that seeks to generate new information on a phenomenon that is not known well or is explored in a new setting. Since the phenomenon of written feedback in L2 writing in Indonesian EFL context was investigated, this design was considered appropriate. In this study, the case was the sixth-semester students majoring in English Education who took an after-class writing course.

**Population and Sample**

The target population of this study was Indonesian undergraduate students enrolled in the Department of English Education at the State Islamic University of North Sumatera (Universitas Islam Negeri Sumatera Utara – UIN SU), Indonesia. Purposive sampling technique was used in recruiting the participants. To participate in this study,
the students needed to be in the sixth semester. This criterion was used to ensure that the students had similar fundamental understandings of English writing as they had taken and passed two writing courses (Writing Skill I and Writing Skill II) offered in previous semesters. The sixth semester students in this department are taught different genres of writing, including argumentative essays - agree and disagree and comparison and contrast, which were used in this study. The purpose of writing instruction in this department is for students to be able to write essays as found in high stake standardized tests like TOEFL and IELTS (Universitas Islam Negeri Sumatera Utara, 2015). Thus, the use of the TOEFL writing test was a good option for this study because students were already familiar with it. Although the process writing approach does not seem suitable for this type of writing, students in this department are also required to conduct a research and report it in English as a partial fulfillment for the degree. Written feedback process will be beneficial for them in writing their final reports. And finally, since students in this department are prepared to be future English teachers, writing instruction also aims to teach the students skills needed to teach writing to EFL students. Thus, the selected participants should represent different levels of English writing skills.

Furthermore, since Indonesia comprises of about 500 ethnic groups who speak more than 600 languages and dialects, which results in a multilingual community (Paauw, 2009), this uniqueness of Indonesian population speaking diverse mother tongues was also represented in this target population. Most students in this department speak Indonesian language as their first and national language, but speak ethnic languages when communicating in their homes. These ethnic languages are then identified as their mother
tongues. The diversity of mother tongues was also used as a consideration in selecting the participants in this study.

Although the researcher also works in this institution, for the ethics consideration, the procedure for recruiting potential participants was done with the help of a writing instructor as a recruiter. Prior to the recruitment and the consent process, I debriefed the recruitment and screening procedures with the recruiter. After the IRB approval (see Appendix J) to conduct the study at the targeted location was released and the permissions from the dean of the faculty, the head of department, and the class instructors were obtained, the recruiter started the recruiting process. She came to all sixth semester writing classes to explain about this study and recruit the prospective participants. To be included as the prospective participants, interested students needed to complete and return the demographic survey (Appendix A).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Native Language</th>
<th>English Skill</th>
<th>Writing Skill</th>
<th>Value of PF</th>
<th>Value of TF</th>
<th>Task Completion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anna Aira</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Mandailing</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Valuable</td>
<td>Valuable</td>
<td>Not Complete</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cinderella (P.1)</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Indonesian</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Complete</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dibala (P.2)</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Gayo</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Very Low</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Valuable</td>
<td>Complete</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elsa</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Pak-pak</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Valuable</td>
<td>Valuable</td>
<td>Not Complete</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Longbottom</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Indonesian</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Very Valuable</td>
<td>Not Complete</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Potter (P.3)</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Indonesian</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Very Valuable</td>
<td>Complete</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Princess (P.4)</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Indonesian</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Valuable</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Complete</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rachel (P.5)</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Indonesian</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Valuable</td>
<td>Complete</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roy (P.6)</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Indonesian</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Valuable</td>
<td>Complete</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sherlock (P.7)</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Mandailing</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Very Valuable</td>
<td>Complete</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snow lady</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Javanese</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Very Low</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Not Complete</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Background characteristics of participants (Note: PF stands for peer feedback and TF teacher feedback)
Consistent with the trend in research in Indonesian institutions showing a high number of students’ participation, 109 students returned the completed demographic survey. Using the information collected from the demographic survey, the researcher with the help of two other writing instructors in the institution selected 14 participants representing different mother tongues, gender, and levels of English proficiency and L2 writing skills (as seen in Table 1). The participants were then contacted via email to confirm their availability and interest in participating in this research. The signed consent forms were collected prior to the first meeting of the writing course.

In the first two meetings of the writing course, the 14 participants were present and actively took part in all activities. However, in the other two meetings of Cycle 1, three students missed the meeting alternately. By the end of Cycle 1, the three of 14 participants withdrew from this research due to schedule conflict. All the data associated with them were then deleted. Eleven participants continued taking part until the end of the study. However, only seven participants submitted the complete written documents needed for this data which include eight writing drafts, six reflective essays, and two completed written surveys on the last meeting of the writing course. The other four participants submitted the complete documents between one to two months after the course finished. Since reflective essays should be written as soon as the feedback process ended to make sure that students still had fresh memories of what they had experienced, I assumed that the reflective essays of the four participants could not be used as reliable sources for my study. With this consideration, I used only the data from the first seven participants.
Procedure of Written Feedback

This study was conducted in an after-class writing course which was taught by two instructors, the researcher and another writing instructor at the institution. During the writing course experiment, we worked together in giving presentations, leading class discussions, and answering students’ questions. However only the other instructor gave feedback on students’ essays. Prior to the experiment, the researcher and the other writing instructor had discussed the procedure of providing teacher feedback using both direct and indirect forms and focusing on both local and global issues.

The decision to have two instructors for this course was based on three reasons; first, as the researcher, I was the only one who knew what to do to ensure that the data needed for this study could be gathered during the course. Second, I believed that it was important for the students to get teacher feedback from the class instructor who was not the researcher with the hope that they would not hesitate and be more honest in writing their reflective essays and responding the questions related to teacher feedback in the surveys. Finally, since I was the one who interviewed the participants, it was also hoped that students could feel more relaxed in giving their opinions particularly those related to teacher feedback.

As mentioned previously, 14 participants were selected to join this writing course, which took place once a week, every Saturday from 10 a.m. to 12 p.m. There were seven meetings in total (as seen in Table 2), with the first meeting starting on April 15th, 2017. Each meeting was divided into two sessions, with one session lasting for one hour. During the course, students completed two writing tasks of argumentative essay; agree & disagree and comparison & contrast. Furthermore, as part of the writing tasks, students
completed a sequential series of tasks including writing the first draft of an essay, providing written feedback on peers’ essays, revising the draft after written feedback sessions, and producing the final draft of the essay.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cycle</th>
<th>Meeting</th>
<th>Session I</th>
<th>Session II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>Peer feedback training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(15 April 2017)</td>
<td>Peer feedback 1 (global issues)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Teacher’s presentation (Agree &amp; disagree essay)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(22 April 2017)</td>
<td>Writing 1 (first draft)</td>
<td>Revision 1 (second draft)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Peer feedback 2 (local issues)</td>
<td>Teacher feedback (local &amp; global issues)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(29 April 2-17)</td>
<td>Revision 2 (third draft)</td>
<td>Reflective journal 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Revision 3 (final draft)</td>
<td>Written feedback survey 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(6 May 2017)</td>
<td>Reflective journal 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Teacher’s presentation (Comp. &amp; contrast essay)</td>
<td>Peer feedback 1 (global issues)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(13 May 2017)</td>
<td>Writing 2 (first draft)</td>
<td>Revision 1 (second draft)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Peer feedback 2 (local issues)</td>
<td>Reflective journal 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(20 May 2017)</td>
<td>Revision 2 (third draft)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Revision 3 (final draft)</td>
<td>Written feedback survey 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(27 May 2017)</td>
<td>Reflective journal 6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Written feedback procedure
Meeting one was used for peer feedback introduction and training, which will be explained more in the next section. In meeting two, students wrote the first draft of an argumentative essay of agree & disagree by using one of the topics provided in the essay prompt (Appendix D). Prior to the writing task one, I gave a short explanation about the rhetoric pattern of an agree & disagree essay (Figure 2), which was followed by a whole-class discussion and a Q&A session about the presentation. Like in a TOEFL test, students were given 30 to 45 minutes to write their first draft and suggested to write in at least 300 words. After finishing their first draft, students worked in pairs who were randomly chosen to provide feedback on global issues on their partner’s drafts. Once they finished providing feedback, they returned the draft to their partner and wrote the second draft using the feedback provided. The first and the second drafts were then submitted to the researcher before students left the class. For the last activity, students were asked to write the first reflective essay which could be done at home but should be submitted in the beginning of the second meeting.

Activities in the third meeting were similar to those in the second one, with the difference only on the focus of peer feedback. After receiving feedback on local issues,
students wrote the third draft and submitted to the instructors to get teacher feedback. They also needed to write their second reflective essay summing up their experience so far with written feedback. In the fourth meeting, students received back their third draft with teacher feedback on both global and local issues and wrote their final draft of agree & disagree essay. After submitting their final drafts, they wrote the third reflective essay in the 15 minutes allotted time. The last hour of the meeting was used to complete written survey 1. Figure 3 lays out the four essay writing stages and the three feedback segments.

The first meeting of Cycle 2 where students needed to work on comparison & contrast essay started on May 13th, 2017. In this second cycle, I decided to make some changes in terms of the system of peer feedback after the initial analysis of all the data collected in the first cycle. One of the most common responses that I read was that students wanted to have more feedback from both their peers and teacher. From my researcher’s journal, I also found out that some students seemed confused about what to write when providing feedback on their peer’s drafts.

Figure 3. Essay writing and feedback stages
To address these issues, I decided to make the students work in groups of three so they would receive feedback from two peers on each of their draft and at the same time practice giving more feedback as they needed to provide feedback on two drafts of their group mates. They were also encouraged to use as many questions as possible from the peer feedback guideline (Appendix E) to give them ideas of what to comment on the drafts. Due to the odd number of participants, one group needed to work in pair. The students working in pair were purposefully selected based on their high performance in Cycle 1. In this case, the selection criterion was the amount of feedback they provided on their peers’ drafts of the first essay.

![Figure 4. Rhetoric pattern for comparison & contrast essay](image)

Before writing the first draft of comparison & contrast essay, students were provided with the explanation about the rhetoric pattern of comparison & contrast (Figure 4). The rest of the procedure in this second cycle was similar to that in the first one. Students were given 30 minutes to write their first draft of the essay. Next, they worked in a group of three in which each draft got feedback on global issues from two feedback providers. Because of this change of peer feedback mechanism, the peer feedback session in Cycle 2 took longer time (about 40-45 minutes). With only 15
minutes left, students were then advised to write their second drafts in the class but could continue it at home if the time was not enough. They were also asked to write reflective journal 4 at home and submit it, along with the second draft, in the beginning of the next meeting.

Activities in the sixth meeting were started with students providing local issue feedback on their peers’ drafts in a group of three for about 45 minutes. The next 15 minutes were allotted for students to revise their drafts based on the feedback they had just received. Once they finished, they submitted it to the instructors to get teacher feedback on global and local issues. The meeting was ended with students writing reflective journal 5. Due to limited course time, the teacher continued providing feedback on the second drafts at home and brought them back to the class in the next meeting.

In the final meeting, students received back their third drafts with teacher feedback on both global and local issues and wrote their final draft of comparison & contrast essay. After submitting their final drafts, they wrote the final reflective essay (reflective essay 6) in 15 minutes allotted time. The last hour of the meeting was used to complete written survey 2.

Peer Feedback Training

One of the most important steps in implementing peer feedback in ESL classroom is to make sure that students as peer feedback providers have enough training in giving written feedback. Many researchers (e.g. Berg, 1999; Hyland & Hyland, 2006a; Stanley, 1992; Zhu, 1995) have pointed out the importance of student training on how to provide constructive feedback to their peers in the success of peer feedback activity. Without the training, the success of peer feedback might not be maximum as students do not know
how to respond to their peer’s writing and have not developed systematic strategies and techniques for peer feedback of their writing. In an effort to get the maximum benefits of peer feedback in this study, the first meeting of the writing course was used to introduce peer feedback and train the students how to give feedback on an essay.

In the first 30 minutes of meeting one, students were introduced to written feedback through the ALA (Academic Literacy for All) Protocol and Quickwrite. Mahn and Bruce (2010) explained that the ALA Protocol allows students to draw on their own experiences and use writing as a way to think and learn as they synthesize ideas through dialogic interaction and analyze academic texts to support development of conceptual thinking. In this study, the ALA Protocol was designed to introduce students to peer written feedback. In addition to the ALA Protocol, I added some other activities to help improve students’ understanding of peer written feedback. This addition was needed to accommodate some different cultural contexts of Indonesian students, who usually need both theoretical explanation as well as practical implementation in understanding a new concept.

For the ALA Protocol, at first each student was asked to write what they knew about peer feedback on a piece of paper. Once they finished, they discussed their answer with a partner and wrote a new definition of peer feedback as the result of the discussion. The following step was each pair discussed their answer with another pair (a group of four) and came with the final definition of peer feedback as a group. This ALA Protocol was ended with the teacher researcher leading a whole class discussion about definitions of feedback as proposed by each group. The outcome of the discussion is an agreed definition of written peer feedback, which is “an activity through which students read and
provide written comments on each other’s papers to help improve the quality of the writing and develop writing skills of both feedback receivers and providers.”

The next activity was a 90-minute training session on reviewing an essay. In the beginning of this session, a video titled ‘No one writes alone: Peer review in the classroom - A guide for students’ (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tY8CX0J3ILc) was played before the students to give them ideas of what could be expected from peer feedback activity. For the first 45 minutes, a whole class session was conducted on how to suggest improvements on samples of writing in argumentative essay during this training. Each student was given a guideline consisting of a list of questions (adapted from Altstaedter, 2009) to be used when providing feedback on their partners’ essays (see Appendix E). After distributing an agree & disagree sample essay (Appendix F) taken from Educational Testing Service (2006, p.265), the researcher modeled how to provide feedback using the guideline and gave a rationale for each type of feedback given. Later, the students were invited to give feedback on the same sample essay. They were encouraged to provide concrete advice that not only concentrates on local aspects (e.g., punctuation or grammar mistakes), but also on global aspects (e.g., organization, transition of ideas, exemplification) so that the writer can successfully communicate the message she is trying to convey to her target audience.

In the second 45 minutes, the students worked in groups of three or four to provide feedback on another sample essay (Appendix G) adapted from TestMagic (n.d.). They were instructed to read the sample, decide which of the questions in the guidelines they would use to constructively critique the sample, and discuss the type of feedback they would provide to the writer. Finally, each group gave some examples of the
feedback they had provided on the sample and a rationale for it. The training session ended with a final discussion and clarification of students’ final questions and concerns regarding the feedback process.

**Method of Data Collection**

Terrel (2016) argued that unlike quantitative research which is approached from an *etic* perspective (outside perspective), qualitative research is conducted from an *emic* perspective (insider perspective) by direct involvement, collaboration, and interaction with the research participants, thus ‘qualitative researchers can be viewed as their own data collection tools’ (p. 147). In addition to the researcher as the main data collection tool, this study also used a variety of instruments of data collection. Since the purpose of this study was to investigate different aspects of written feedback in L2 writing, namely: students’ preferences of form and focus of written feedback, the benefits of written feedback as perceived by the students, how they incorporate the feedback they receive in their writings, and how culture influences students’ perception of written feedback, data were collected from students in a number of different ways to allow them to express their perceptions comfortably.

Using a variety of instruments also allowed the triangulation of data in order to obtain rich and accurate data to answer the research questions raised in this study. Denzin (1984) identifies four types of triangulation in qualitative research and one of them is *data source triangulation*, when the researcher looks for the data to remain the same in different contexts. Furthermore, Lincoln & Guba (1985) explain that data triangulation involves using multiple and different sources, methods, and perspectives in an investigation to ensure rich and accurate data. Therefore, data for this study were
collected using six different instruments. Figure 5 illustrates the process when the data were collected during this study, using the six instruments.

Figure 5. The process of data collection

**Demographic Survey**

The demographic survey was administered during participant recruitment prior to the experiment. All students interested in participating in this study were asked to fill out this survey which was designed to collect their demographic and background information such as age, gender, contact number, and native language. This demographic survey was also aimed to gain information about students’ previous experiences with feedback and how the valued peer and teacher feedback based on those experiences.

The demographic survey was provided in English language only. However, the recruiter explained the questions item per item before asking the potential participants to complete the survey. She also stayed in the classroom during the survey completion, so they could ask for clarification when they were not clear about the questions. To make sure that they could elaborate their responses as detailed as possible, they could complete the survey in either English, Indonesian, or the combination of both languages. Once the
survey was completed, the potential participant herself put it inside an envelope placed on
the teacher desk in front of the class without the recruiter being able to see it to ensure its
confidentiality. The recruiter later sealed the envelope and submitted it to me who waited
outside the classroom during the survey completion.

One hundred and nine students completed the demographic survey, with most of
them using the combination of English and Indonesian in their responses. I used the
information obtained from this survey to select the fourteen participants to join the
writing course experiment. The selection represented diversity in terms of participants’
native languages, gender, English language and writing skills, and previous experiences
with feedback.

**Written Feedback Survey**

Surveys are frequently used as research instruments in applied linguistics because
they help the researcher gather a large amount of data within a short time in a form that is
easy to process. According to Mackey and Gass (2005), “the survey, typically in the form
of a questionnaire, is one of the most common methods of collecting data on attitudes and
opinions from a large group of participants; as such, it has been used to investigate a wide
variety of questions in second language research” (p. 92). They furthermore define
questionnaires as “any written instruments that present respondents with a series of
questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or
selecting them among existing answers” (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p.6).

The questionnaire used in this study was adapted from previous research
questionnaires (Diab, 2005; Johnstun, 2009). This adaptation involved rephrasing or
adjustment to better serve the purpose of this research. The questionnaire was divided
into two subsections representing two written feedback phases: peer feedback and teacher feedback. Each subsection consisted of closed-ended and open-ended questions (see Appendix B). The closed-ended questions were designed to elicit the form and the focus of written feedback that students preferred to receive, while the open-ended questionnaire to elicit students’ perceptions of their written feedback experience. Two versions of the questionnaire, Indonesian and English were provided so the students could choose which language of survey they preferred to complete. Students were also allowed to complete the survey in either English, Indonesian, or the combination of both languages.

The written feedback survey was administered twice during the study. First, the survey was given after the first cycle of written feedback was completed, which was after the students submitted the final draft of writing 1. The survey was administered again at the end of the study after the students submitted the final draft of writing 2. All the participants chose to complete the English version of the survey but used the combination of English and Indonesian in their responses. The data collected from this survey were analyzed to answer questions 1, 2, 3, and 4 regarding students’ preferences, perceived benefits, and the influence of culture in the written feedback processes in this study.

**Reflective Journal**

The purpose of the reflective journal was to provide students with the opportunity to think about the feedback activities they had just experienced. Thus, at the end of every written feedback session, students were given 15 to 20 minutes to write their journals when they still had fresh memories of what they thought, felt, learned, liked, disliked, etc. from this experience. To ensure that students met the purpose of the reflective journal, I provided them some prompt questions (Appendix C) to help focus on elaborating their
experiences in the feedback activities session, not any other activities in the writing class. The prompt was also aimed to assure that the data I obtained from the journals were related to students’ perceptions of the issues under investigation.

In writing the reflective journals, students could use either English, Indonesian, or the combination of both languages. The students wrote their journal entries on pieces of paper and kept them in a folder I provided. This allowed them to review what they had written and monitor their own reflective process and thoughts throughout the experiment. They only submitted the folders to me in the last meeting. Since the data analysis was an on-going process during the experiment, the journals submitted after every reflective journal session were photocopied and then the originals returned to each student. The data collected from them were used as additional information to answer the four research questions. In addition, they also provided me with information which feedback activities worked from students’ perspectives, and which ones might need revision.

Writing Sample

In addition to written feedback survey and reflective journal, writing samples were collected for each student. During this experiment, students were asked to write two argumentative essays; agree & disagree and comparison & contrast. The essay prompt consisting of three possible topics to choose (see Appendix D) was provided in the first meeting prior the writing of the first draft. For each type of essay, students needed to produce four drafts, which means each student had eight drafts of writings in total. I provided the paper on which the students wrote the drafts. All the drafts were photocopied for analysis while the originals were kept in folders assigned for each student.
The data obtained from the writing samples included the drafts for each essay and the written feedback provided on the drafts. I analyzed the data by identifying the form and the focus of written feedback provided by peers and teacher and counting how many times they were used or ignored in the revisions. The results from this analysis were used to give additional information about students’ preferences of written feedback and to answer the question related to how much written feedback students incorporated in the writings. In addition, the data also provided information about how much and what focus of self-revision students made in every draft.

**Face-to-face Interview**

The interview was the last data I collected in this study after I finished with my initial data analysis. Silverman (2000) explained that the purpose of the research interview is to explore the views, experiences, beliefs and/or motivations of individuals on specific matters. Interviews are believed to provide a deeper understanding of social phenomena than would be obtained from other qualitative methods, such as questionnaires. Individual interviews are, therefore, most appropriate where little is already known about the study phenomenon or where detailed insights are required from individual participants. They are also particularly appropriate for exploring sensitive topics, where participants may not want to talk about such issues in a focus group interview.

The purpose of this interview was to obtain deeper information about the students’ general perceptions of the written feedback process and to ask additional questions that emerged from my ongoing data analysis. Thus, the interviews were semi-structured, open-ended, and in-depth (see Appendix H). The questions were individually
crafted in accordance to what information I wanted to elicit more from each participant. All seven participants were invited to the interview session. I made every attempt to schedule the interviews at their convenience, and they took place at the university in either an empty classroom, my office, a parking lot, and the university front yard. Each interview lasted for about 30 to 45 minutes.

At the start of each interview, I asked permission of the participants to digitally record the interview and told them that they could have access to the transcripts of the interviews upon their request. I also informed them they could choose the interview in either English or Indonesia. Five of the participants chose Indonesian and the other two English. For the first few questions, I pointed to specific survey responses or reflective journal entries that students wrote and asked them, “What do you mean by this?” “Why did you say this?” or “Could you explain more about this statement?” to get deeper information about particular issues that they talked about in those two resources but were not clear or detailed enough for me to understand them. I also used this opportunity to confirm or refute my interpretations from the initial data analysis. I transcribed the interviews as soon as possible after data collection.

Teacher/Researcher’s Note

I made reflective notes recording all my activities as the researcher and teacher for this course. The purpose of this journal was to keep very detailed information about what I did and experienced while collecting the data and teaching the class. Every time a class meeting ended, I recorded what I had experienced and felt. The notes were also used to inform me what to maintain and/or to revise and modify in terms of data
collection, teaching methodologies, feedback activities, and other related classroom practices.

**Method of Data Analysis**

The analysis of qualitative data commences the moment the researcher starts collecting the data because data collection and data analysis usually occur simultaneously rather than after all data are collected (Polit & Beck, 2004). Therefore, although the whole data collection process was completed in three months beginning from gaining entry to research location to face-to-face interview (see Table 3), I started my data analysis as soon as I received the completed demographic survey during the potential participant recruitment and continued as the research progress. Prior to any data analysis, I erased participants’ real names on each written data material. Instead of assigning a pseudonym to each participant, I invited them to create their pseudonyms to be used in this study.

Throughout the course of data collection, I focused on the participants’ reflective essays and completed written feedback survey. The data analysis started with the pre-code stage where I highlighted significant participant quotes that struck me. This helped me begin focusing on recurring themes and patterns in the data in order to develop my analysis. In addition to pre-code, I also made constant comparison of participants’ responses on the written feedback surveys with what they wrote in their reflective essays. The comparison of these pieces of data, together with my researchers’ note, was particularly helpful in planning each meeting of the writing course. In analyzing the data collected for this study, I applied different coding methods for different sets of data, namely Attribute coding for demographic survey, Magnitude coding for frequency count
of written feedback preference, and Structural coding to answer questions 2, 3, and 4 of this study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IRB approval</td>
<td>February 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaining entry</td>
<td>2nd week of March 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruiting potential participants</td>
<td>3rd week of March 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant selection and identification</td>
<td>4th week of March 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Invitation to selected participants and consent form signing</td>
<td>1st week of April 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data collection (writing course)</td>
<td>4/8/2017 – 5/20/2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial data analysis</td>
<td>5/21-31/2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer debrief</td>
<td>6/2-3/2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Member check &amp; interview</td>
<td>2nd week of June 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview transcription</td>
<td>3rd week of June 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final data analysis</td>
<td>June – July 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer debrief</td>
<td>7/24-25/2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Member check</td>
<td>4th week of July</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing of results and conclusion</td>
<td>August 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing the whole dissertation</td>
<td>September 2017</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Schedule of the study

Saldaña (2016) explained that Attribute coding is the notation of basic descriptive information such as research setting, participant characteristics or demographics, and other variables of interest for qualitative analysis. It is usually done at the beginning of data set rather than embedded within it. Thus, as soon as I received all completed demographic survey in the total of 109, I analyzed the responses to each of the questions in the survey. Using Microsoft Word, I, furthermore, created a table (Table 4) and entered each participant’s information in the following categories; age, gender, mother tongue,
self-evaluation of English language skills, self-evaluation of writing skills, value of teacher feedback, and value of peer feedback. Since all potential participants had feedback experiences, I decided not to use this category in the demographic table. Using the information in the table, I, with the help of two other writing instructors in the institution, selected 14 students representing a diverse range of those categories to be invited as the participants of this study.

Table 4. Demographic data sheet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Native Language</th>
<th>English Skill</th>
<th>Writing Skill</th>
<th>Value of PF</th>
<th>Value of TF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

To answer the question about students’ preferences of written feedback, Magnitude coding was used to count the frequency of responses to questions number 1 to number 4 in part A and part B of the written feedback survey. The use of Magnitude coding is because it is appropriate for descriptive qualitative studies that include basic statistical information to indicate data intensity, frequency, direction, presence, or evaluative content (Saldaña, 2016). I used two steps in counting the frequency of responses to each question. First, all responses to questions 1 to 4 were counted and entered into blank tables prepared by the researcher using Microsoft Word. These tables recorded all responses to preferences of forms and focus of peer and teacher feedback on written feedback survey 1 and 2 under four categories; preference of response focus, preference of error indication, consideration of mark/comment importance, and focus when reading marks/comment. Second, all records from these tables were transferred to Microsoft Excel for easier calculation in four different sheets, namely Peer Feedback

To answer the question about how much written feedback students incorporated in their writings, I manually analyzed the 56 writing drafts by cross-referencing and comparing each draft with the feedback provided on it and the revised version of the draft. I also analyzed any self-revision students made on each draft. Using Microsoft Excel tables (Table 5), I recorded the drafts under six categories; peer feedback on local issues received and used, peer feedback on global issues received and used, teacher feedback received and used, self-revision on global and local issues after the first peer feedback, self-revision on global and local issues after the second peer-feedback, and self-revision on global and local feedback after teacher feedback. I finally counted the total number for each category to find out the amount of written feedback students received, used, and self-revision in essay 1 and 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PARTICIPANT</th>
<th>FOCUS OF WRITTEN FEEDBACK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GLOBAL/LOCAL ISSUES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Peer Feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Received</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Written feedback incorporation sheet

To answer the research questions numbers 2 to 4, I used inductive content analysis, which is focused on answering a research question by identifying themes in selected material (Terrell, 2016). Terrell furthermore argued, “using content analysis researchers are able to make inferences based on the objectives and systematic analysis of recorded communication…In doing so, researchers look for both the manifest (i.e.
apparent) and the latent (i.e. underlying) meaning” (p. 161). This data analysis particularly employs thematic content analysis, which is perhaps the most common method of data analysis used in qualitative work (Burnard, et. al., 2008). In this thematic content analysis, I contextually analyzed the responses to Written Feedback surveys, the reflective essays, and the interview transcripts by thoroughly reading each, while marking word, phrases or ideas that are considered relevant to the phenomenon under study for coding.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Extract</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Potential Category</th>
<th>Final Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. Data coding sheet

Using Structural Coding method, I coded the data in three stages; pre-coding, initial coding, and final coding. Saldaña (2016) explained that Structural Coding applies a content-based or conceptual phrase representing a topic of inquiry to a segment of data that relates to a specific research question, which can allow researchers to quickly access data likely to be relevant to a particular analysis from a larger data set. In the first stage of coding, only two sources of data were analyzed, reflective journals and written feedback surveys. During the pre-coding stage, significant quotes and passages on the copies of all reflective journals and written feedback surveys were manually coded using color pencils. The initial findings were then recorded in researcher’s note as guidance in preparing the interview questions.

In the initial coding stage, the findings from pre-coding stage were transferred to a table sheet (Table 6) in a Microsoft Word file. All significant quotes and passages were
labeled as ‘data extract’ and categorized into three different tables relating to research
questions 2, 3, and 4. The data extract in each table were further analyzed at the sentence
level for coding and temporary categorizing. One sentence was sometimes related to
more than one coding. During this initial coding, I ran through three cycles of recoding
and recategorizing. The recoding and recategorizing occurred when I reviewed the results
of the first cycle coding, which brought a different perspective in interpreting the
emergent patterns. The findings from this stage of coding were later discussed in the peer
debrief session to get additional insights into category development and in the member
check session to provide new or additional perspectives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptors</th>
<th>Sub-category</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Overarching Theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Table 7. Data categorizing sheet

In the final coding stage, the findings from the previous stage were transferred in
a table sheet (Table 7) for each research question. to get further examination and analysis
in detail more than five times. This process was iterative before I could reach reasonable
saturation for categories and sub categories. The final coding stage was stopped when a
meaningful categorization was developed after many iterative analysis of the data extract,
subcategories were repeated, and not much relevant and new information was coming
from the data sources or even though some new information was found, it fits the existing
categorization. The findings from this stage of coding also underwent the process of peer
debrief and member check. Using the findings, I identified the themes emerged to answer
the research questions about perceived benefits, feedback incorporation, and cultural influences.

**Issues of Trustworthiness**

The analysis of qualitative data involves interpreting the research findings. However, this process is arguably more subjective than the process normally associated with quantitative data analysis, since a common belief amongst social scientists is that a definitive, objective view of social reality does not exist (Burnard, et. al, 2008). Consequently, this leads to the issues of trustworthiness of the research findings. Lincoln and Guba (2000) saw trustworthiness as a unitary concept of dependability, credibility, transferability, and conformability, with its four aspects acting as facets that complement each other. To establish trustworthiness of this study, I employed some ways as suggested by Lincoln and Guba (2000), they are the following:

**Triangulation**

Stake (1995) defined triangulation as the protocols that are used to ensure accuracy and alternative explanations. The need for triangulation arises from the ethical need to confirm the reliability of the processes. In case studies, triangulation is usually done by using multiple sources of data (Yin, 1984). In this study, I used multiple sources of data collection namely survey, reflective journal, writing draft, and interview to answer the questions. I cross-referenced the data obtained from the different instruments to get a deep understanding of the issues under investigation.

**Peer Debriefing**

Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 308) have defined peer debriefing as "the process of exposing oneself to a disinterested peer in a manner paralleling an analytic session and
for the purpose of exploring aspects of the inquiry that might otherwise remain only implicit within the inquirer's mind." I went through this process by asking a writing instructor in the same department where I conducted this study to be my critical friend who reviewed and gave me feedback related to my data analysis. The peer debriefer was chosen for her expertise in qualitative research and her experience in EFL writing instruction. In the first peer debrief, I reported my preliminary findings and discussed it with her. In this session, I also asked her to review the writing drafts and analyzed the form and the focus of written feedback on them to ensure that the categories I made were already correct. In the second peer debrief, I presented her the results of my final data analysis. We also went over the data and analyzed it together to check the accuracy and completeness of my data collection and data analysis procedures. This process was aimed to minimize the potential for lone researcher bias and to provide additional insights into theme development (Barbour, 2001). Based on the results of our discussion during the peer debrief session, I revised the findings of my final data analysis.

**Member Check**

Finally, I did a member checking process to maintain the trustworthiness of my research findings. The first member check session was conducted prior to the face-to-face interview. I presented each participant with my interpretations related to their data. Although some of the participants provided me with further explanation of what they meant in their written feedback surveys and reflective journals, nobody refuted my interpretations of the data. In the second sessions, I summarized my data presentations and sent them to the participants. I also asked them to carefully read through their interview transcripts and data analysis to validate or refute my interpretations of the data.
INDONESIAN STUDENTS’ PERCEPTIONS OF WRITTEN FEEDBACK IN SLW

Again, everybody seemed to agree with my data interpretations without any further explanation of what they meant for the interviews.
CHAPTER 4
DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

This study investigated students’ perceptions of different aspects of written feedback in a college-level second language writing classroom. This study explored three other aspects related to written feedback processes in L2 writing, namely; students’ perceptions of the benefits of written feedback, factors influencing students in incorporating written feedback in their writings, and cultural influences that helped shape students’ perceptions. The students received written feedback from peers and the teacher on two essays of agree and disagree and comparison and contrast during an after-class writing course taking place in seven meetings. The written feedback was provided manually on students’ drafts. There were three stages of the written feedback process for each essay; peer feedback on global issues, peer feedback on local issues, and teacher feedback on both issues. The students revised their essays after each stage and produced four drafts for each type of essay. This study aimed to find out students’ perceptions after experiencing the written feedback process in this course. More specifically, this study was primarily conducted to address the following research questions:

1. What are Indonesian university students’ preferences of written feedback?
   A. What form of written feedback do students prefer to receive from peers and teacher on their writings?
   B. What focus of written feedback do students prefer to receive from peers and teacher on their writings?
2. What do students perceive as the benefits of the written feedback processes?
3. How do students incorporate written feedback in their writings?
A. How much written feedback do students incorporate in their writings?

B. What are the factors influencing students in incorporating or not incorporating written feedback in their writings?

4. Are there any cultural influences in shaping students’ perceptions of written feedback?

Findings of Demographic Survey

Participants’ Demographics

The eleven participants in this study were selected from 109 potential participants who showed an interest in taking part in this study. Their ages were between 20-21. 64% of the participants were women ($n = 7$) while 36% of them were men ($n = 4$). The uneven gender distribution of these participants (as seen in Figure 6) reflects the general gender ratio of many English departments in Indonesia.

![Figure 6. Distribution of participants’ genders (data from 11 participants)](image)

Furthermore, the majority of the participants (55%, $n = 6$) reported that they considered Indonesian their native language (as seen in Figure 7), which also reflects the
general native language ratio of the institution and many other educational institutions in Indonesia.

![Figure 7. Distribution of participants’ native languages (data from 11 participants)](image)

**Figure 7. Distribution of participants’ native languages (data from 11 participants)**

**Self-evaluation of Proficiency Level**

Participants were asked to identify their overall English skills and English writing skill on a five-point scale of “very low” to “very high.” The results show that none of the participants self-identified themselves as students with “high” level of English language skill, let alone “very high”. The majority of the participants (73%, n = 8) reported to have “average” level while the rest (27%, n = 3) identified themselves as learners with “low” level proficiency. In terms of English writing skills, although all participants had already taken and passed two writing courses (*Writing Skill I* and *Writing Skill II*) offered in previous semesters, most of them still viewed themselves “low” (45.4%, n = 5) and “very low” (18.2%, n = 2) English writers. Only 4 (36.4%) reported that their writing skills were in “average” level (see Figure 8).
A closer look at the data reveals that those of ‘average’ level English skills self-evaluated their English writing skill as either “average” \( (n = 4) \) or “low” \( (n = 4) \). Meanwhile those with low level English skills reported to have either “low” \( (n = 1) \) or “very low” \( (n = 2) \) English writing skill. It can be concluded that most students self-evaluated their writing skills lower than their overall English language skills.

![Self Identification of Proficiency Level](image)

**Figure 8. Self-identification of language skills (data from 11 participants)**

If these results reflect students’ real self-evaluation of their language skills, it can be concluded that overall, the participants had average English language skills and low writing skills. However, since Indonesian society practices a hierarchical relationship culture, in which one of the values is ‘being humble,’ particularly in front of people of higher hierarchy, there is a possibility that the participants purposefully under-rated themselves in order to avoid being regarded as ‘snobbish people’, a characteristic which is not well received in Indonesian society.
Value of Feedback from Previous Experiences

The last four items of the Demographic Survey were intended to investigate students’ experiences with feedback in previous classes and how they valued it. In items numbers 11 and 13, participants were asked whether they had experience with peer feedback and teacher feedback activities and to describe those experiences. In items numbers 12 and 14, they were asked to rate the value of feedback from their previous experiences on a five-point scale of “not at all” to “very valuable.”

Figure 9. Value of peer and teacher feedback (data from 11 participants)

The results show that all participants had experience with both peer and teacher feedback in their previous classes. Based on those experiences, they valued peer and teacher feedback differently. More than half of the participants (73%, n = 8) believed peer feedback to have “average” value and only 27% (n = 3) viewed peer feedback as “valuable”. On the contrary, for the value of teacher feedback, most of the participants stated that teacher feedback was either “valuable” (45.4%, n = 5) or “very valuable” (27.3%, n = 3). The rest of participants (27.3%, n = 3) reported that teacher feedback had
average value (see Figure 9). These results indicate that overall, the participants valued teacher feedback higher than peer feedback.

**Research Findings**

The writing course in this study consisted of two cycles, with each cycle comprised of four stages beginning with the writing of the first essay by the students (1st draft), the provision of the first peer feedback on global issues to be used in the first revision (2nd draft), the provision of the second peer feedback on local issues to be used in the second revision (3rd draft), to the provision of teacher feedback on global and local issues to be used in the final draft (4th draft). The total number of participants of this study was 11. However, only seven participants completed all the writing tasks, each submitted eight pieces of essays, six reflective journals, and two written feedback surveys during the experiment. Thus, the total essays, reflective journals and written feedback surveys collected in this study were 56, 42, and 14 respectively.

The responses to questions number 1 “when responding to your paper, your peer should always…; number 2 “how do you want your peer to indicate an error in your paper?”; number 3 “how do you look at your peer marks/comments on your paper?”; and number 4 “if you look at some of marks/comments your peer makes on your paper, which ones do you consider most important to look at?” (see Appendix B) in the Written Feedback survey were analyzed to answer the first research question related to students’ preferences of the form and the focus of written feedback they received from peer and teacher. Meanwhile, all the 56 essays and 42 reflective journals, in addition to the responses to open-ended questions of the written feedback survey and interview transcripts, were included in the analysis to answer the questions number 2 to number 4
to determine students’ perceptions of written feedback benefits, how students incorporated written feedback in their writings, and whether culture influenced students’ perceptions of written feedback.

In this analysis I presented the data collected in the first and the second cycle of the writing course separately followed with the presentation of the combined data from both cycles. It is worth noticing that there were some differences in terms of the quantity and the quality of the written feedback that the students provided on their peers’ drafts. The number of peer suggestions and corrections in the first cycle of the writing course was much smaller than that in the second cycle. The students mentioned that the reason of such a difference was because they did not have enough experience in providing feedback. However, the more they gave feedback, they more they understood what to comment and how to provide suggestions and corrections on their peers’ writing, as what can be seen in the following interview excerpt:

Interviewer: In the Written Feedback Survey 1, you stated that peer feedback was not really valuable because your peers did not have the capacity to correct your writing. You also mentioned that you did not get enough feedback from your peers. Could you explain more about this?

Mr. Potter: So the peer feedback for the first draft (of agree & disagree essay), we all started to learn how to provide feedback. We had to find mistakes we didn’t even know. I don’t think I can criticize my peer’s work because I’m not the expert, I’m still learning. That’s why I didn’t give many comments and my friend didn’t give me much feedback too. But on the second draft, there were some
changes because we know better how to provide feedback. My friends gave me much feedback after that and I really like it.

The followings are the results of data analysis presented in correspondence with the research questions.

**Research Question 1A**

Written feedback usually takes the form of direct correction and/or indirect correction. Written feedback in direct correction occurs when the feedback provider not only marks the error but also provides the correct form, while in indirect correction one calls the error to the writer’s attention by indicating the error without explicit explanation and correction. To find out the form of written feedback students preferred to receive from peers and the teacher in this study, students’ answers in response to the ‘how do you want your peer/teacher to indicate an error in your paper’ question were counted. All responses from each participant in the Written Feedback Survey 1 and 2 were recorded in two different tables and counted to gain the total frequency of each response option in Essay 1 and Essay 2 (see Table 8 and Table 9 in Appendix K). Figure 10 shows the total frequency count of students’ responses in Written Feedback Survey 1 and Figure 11 shows the total frequency count of students’ responses in Written Feedback Survey 2.

Furthermore, the results from the two surveys were calculated again to obtain the final total frequency count of each option by adding the total numerical counts of each response option in both essays. The option(s) with the highest total frequency count indicates students’ preference of the error indication on their writings, which also reflects the form of written feedback they received from peers and teacher.
Figure 10. The total count of students’ responses showing preference of error indication from written feedback survey 1 (data from 7 participants)

Figure 11. The total count of students’ responses showing preference of error indication from written feedback survey 2 (data from 7 participants)

As seen in Figure 12, the results show that the students strongly preferred direct correction when receiving written feedback from both their peers and teacher. Specifically, they wanted their errors either to be explicitly indicated, categorized and
corrected or to be indicated and corrected. However, there was a slight difference of frequency count between error indication of direct correction feedback from peer and teacher. When receiving written feedback from peers, students tended to expect more direct correction by indicating the error, correcting and categorizing it (48%, $n = 10$) than by indicating the error and correcting it only (33%, $n = 7$).

![Preference of Error Indication for Essays 1 & 2](image)

Figure 12. The total count of students’ responses showing preference of error indication from written feedback surveys 1 & 2 (data from 7 participants)

Meanwhile, when receiving feedback from the teacher, students had an equal amount of preference of direct correction by indicating the error, correcting and categorizing it and by indicating the error and correcting it only (41%, $n = 9$).

Furthermore, there was a small percentage of students (19%, $n = 4$) who wanted to receive direct feedback without any correction provided. Specifically, they wanted their peers and teacher to hint the location of the errors and categorize them. These results also indicate that although students preferred direct form of feedback with the corrections for
their errors, there was still a place for that without the provision of the corrections as long as the clue is detailed enough such as the location and the category of the error.

**Research Question 1B**

The focus of written feedback may either be on global issues such as idea development, paragraph organization, and coherence and cohesion or on local issues including grammar accuracy, punctuation, vocabulary, etc. Although, ideally, written feedback should address all aspects of writing which are included in local and global issues, in practice written feedback provision tends to focus more on one aspect of issues than the other. Similarly, despite knowing that written feedback focusing on a wider aspect of writing, including both local and global issues may have a better impact on writings, some feedback receivers may still prefer the focus on one aspect of issues over the other.

![Preference of Response Focus for Essay 1](image)

**Figure 13.** The total count of students’ responses showing preference of response focus from written feedback survey 1 (data from 7 participants)
In order to answer the research question related to the focus of written feedback students preferred to receive from peers and the teacher in this study, the responses to the Written Feedback Survey items number 1 asking the students about their preference of the focus when peers and the teacher responded their papers, number 3 asking about their focus when reading comments/marks they received from peers and the teacher, and number 4 asking about the importance of marks and comments provided by their peers and teacher were computed by adding the scores and frequency count of each participant’s responses.

Figure 14. The total count of students’ responses showing preference of response focus from written feedback survey 1 (data from 7 participants)

To find out the total score of the responses to the question “when responding to your paper, your peer/teacher should always (please range your answer from the most preferable (1) to the least one (6),” participants’ scores for each option in the Written Feedback Survey 1 and 2 were recorded individually in two different tables (see Table 10 and Table 11 in Appendix K). The scores from all participants were then added to gain
the total score of each response. Figures 13 shows the total frequency count of students’ responses in Written Feedback Survey 1 and Figure 14 shows the total frequency count of students’ responses in Written Feedback Survey 2. Furthermore, the results from the two surveys were calculated again to obtain the final total frequency count of each option by adding the total numerical counts of each response option in both essays. Since point 1 represented the most preferable and point 6 the least one, response with the lowest score reflected what students liked the most and that with the highest one what they liked the least. For example, as seen in Figure 15, the score for response “make comments on the ideas expressed in your paper” received 9%, which is the lowest among all responses, it means that students liked response focusing on the ideas as the most preferable.

![Preference of Response Focus for Essays 1 & 2](image)

Figure 15. The total count of students’ responses showing preference of response focus from written feedback surveys 1 & 2 (data from 7 participants)

As Figure 15 shows, although students reported to have the strongest preference on comments focusing on the ideas expressed on their paper for peer and teacher feedback (9%, \(n = 25\) and 9%, \(n = 27\) respectively), overall students had different
preferences of response focus in peer and teacher feedback. For peer feedback, students preferred to receive comments focusing on local issues (47%, \( n = 139 \)) to global issues (53%, \( n = 155 \)). In details, 11% of the responses (\( n = 32 \)) indicated that students wanted their peer to point out errors in grammar, followed by vocabulary choice (14%, \( n = 41 \)). In the fourth position, the statement ‘your peer should always make comments on the writing style’ gained 20% of the total responses (\( n = 59 \)) and followed by response focus on spelling and punctuation (22%, \( n = 66 \)). Finally, the least preference of response focus was comments on the organization of the paper which gained 24% of the total responses (\( n = 71 \)).

![Consideration of Mark/Comment Importance for Essay 1](image)

Figure 16. The total count of students’ responses showing the consideration of mark/comment importance from written feedback survey 1 (data from 7 participants)

On the contrary, when receiving feedback from their teacher, students showed stronger preference on comments focusing on global issues (43%, \( n = 125 \)) to local issues (57%, \( n = 169 \)). Specifically, the statement ‘your teacher should always make comments on the organization of the paper’ gained 15% of the total response (\( n = 46 \)). Both
statements of pointing out errors in grammar and vocabulary gained 17% \( (n = 49) \) of the total responses. 18% of the responses \( (n = 52) \) indicated that students wanted their teacher to focus their comments on the writing style, followed by pointing out errors in spelling and punctuation \( (24\%, \ n = 71) \).

Figure 17. The total count of students’ responses showing the consideration of mark/comment importance from written feedback survey 2 (data from 7 participants)

The results of data analysis of item 1 showing students’ different preferences of response focus from peers and the teacher were also consistent with those of data analysis of item 4 "if you look at some of marks/comments your peer makes on your paper, which ones do you consider most important to look at? To find out students’ opinion about the importance of marks/comments received from peer and teacher feedback, all responses to this item in Written Feedback Survey 1 and 2 were recorded in two different tables (see Table 12 and Table 13 in Appendix K) and counted to gain the total frequency of each response option in Essay 1 and Essay 2. Figures 16 shows the total frequency count of
students’ responses in Written Feedback Survey 1 and Figure 17 shows the total frequency count of students’ responses in Written Feedback Survey 2.

To obtain the total frequency of the consideration of mark/comment importance, the results from the two surveys were calculated again by adding the total numerical counts of each response option in both surveys. The response option with the highest total frequency count indicates comments/marks that students considered as the most important and that with the lowest count as the least important.

Figure 18. The total count of students’ responses showing the consideration of mark/comment importance from written feedback surveys 1 & 2 (data from 7 participants)

The results show similar findings to those of item 1, which confirmed that students preferred written feedback focusing on local issues (55%, \( n = 12 \)) to global issues (45%, \( n = 10 \)) from their peers. However, when receiving written feedback from their teacher, they wanted more focus on global issues (71%, \( n = 22 \)) than local issues (29%, \( n = 9 \)). In particular, as illustrated in Figure 18, when referring to peer feedback,
students stated that ‘comments on the ideas/content’ had the highest importance with the frequency count of 36% \( (n = 8) \). The statement ‘mark indicating errors in grammar’ got 27% \( (n = 6) \) followed by ‘marks indicating errors in vocabulary choice’ 18% \( (n = 4) \) and ‘spelling and punctuation’ with 9% \( (n = 2) \). The other two aspects of global issues namely ‘writing style’ and ‘the organization of the paper’ were the least important and shared the lowest frequency count of 5% \( (n = 1) \).

When receiving teacher feedback, students also reported ‘comments on the ideas/content’ to have the highest importance with the frequency count of 36% \( (n = 11) \), followed by ‘comments on organization of the paper’ with 23% frequency count \( (n = 7) \). The statement ‘mark indicating errors in grammar’ got the third position with 19% of frequency count \( (n = 6) \). The other aspect of global issues, writing style, was reported in the fourth position of mark/comment importance \( (13\%, n = 4) \). The other two aspects of local issues namely ‘vocabulary choice’ and ‘spelling and punctuation’ were considered the least important with the frequency count of 6% \( (n = 2) \) and 3% \( (n = 1) \) respectively.

Although the results indicate that students in this study preferred written feedback focusing on one aspect of issues to the other depending on the feedback providers, when reading the marks/comments on their papers, they did not only focus on those focusing on the issues of their preference. These findings were obtained after the analysis of responses to item number 3 “how do you look at your peer marks/comments on your paper? To examine the focus when reading comments/marks on paper, all responses from each participant were recorded in two different tables and counted to gain the total frequency of each response option in Essay 1 and Essay 2 (see Table 14 and Table 15 in Appendix K). The final total frequency count of each option was computed by adding the
total numerical counts of each response option in both essays. The response option with the highest total frequency count indicates students’ focus when reading comments/marks.

The results (as seen in Figure 19) show that most students read every comment/mark they received from peers and the teacher carefully (57%, $n = 8$ and 86%, $n = 12$ respectively). Only 21% ($n = 3$) of the total responses showed that they looked at some marks/comment more carefully than at others when receiving peer feedback and 14% ($n = 2$) when receiving teacher feedback. Surprisingly, although the analysis of students’ preference of written feedback focus revealed that they had the strongest preference on comments/marks on the ideas expressed in their paper, none of the students mainly paid attention to comments on the ideas expressed in the paper when receiving teacher feedback and only 21% ($n = 3$) when receiving peer feedback.

![Focus when Reading Mark/Comments for Essays 1 & 2](image)

Figure 19. The total count of students’ responses showing their focus when reading marks/comments from written feedback surveys 1 & 2 (data from 7 participants)
In summary, the analysis of students’ preference of the focus of written feedback show different results depending on the feedback providers. For peer feedback, students preferred to receive written feedback focusing on local issues including corrections on grammar, vocabulary choice, and spelling and/or punctuation. Meanwhile for teacher feedback, students preferred comments focusing on global issues such as idea development, organization of the paper, and writing style.

Research Question 2

Research question 2 was to examine the benefits of written feedback as what students perceived. This question was answered using the thematic content analysis on the data from open-ended items of written feedback surveys, reflective journals, and interview transcripts. Through the three stages of Structural Coding as explained in chapter 3, I identified three themes which I interpreted as prominent. I then further analyzed each theme and compared evidence from the different data sets. I tried to make sense of each theme through an iterative process of interpreting data, drawing tentative conclusions and returning to the raw data to seek evidence which confirmed or disconfirmed a particular line of thinking. Once I had developed a provisional argument from these themes, I went through peer debriefing session by discussing it with another writing instructor to add insights to students’ perceptions of written feedback benefits. I reported to her aspects of the data which I found interesting, surprising, or puzzling and asked her to elaborate her views or critique my interpretations.

The three prominent themes that emerged from the data relating to the benefits of written feedback as perceived by the students were: 1. Generate improvement, 2. Encourage critical reasoning, and 3. Promote learner autonomy. The categories, sub-
categories, and their descriptors within these overarching themes are presented in Table 18 in Appendix L. Furthermore, the themes are discussed separately for convenience of exposition, but there is also considerable interplay between them, with some points carrying relevance for more than one theme.

**Theme one: Generate improvement.** The most mentioned benefit of written feedback from the three different data sources is how the whole processes of written feedback in this study helped students generate improvement either in their essay quality or their language skills. The perceived benefit of generating improvement was reported from both the feedback providers’ and the feedback receivers’ perspectives. As feedback providers, the students reported giving feedback on peers’ drafts gave them a good opportunity to read and learn from others’ writings about different writing styles and ways of presenting ideas and arguments. Furthermore, they mentioned that comparing each other’s essays provided them with text varieties and idea variations.

First of all, I learned about different writing styles. I really like it, especially with the second essay because we needed to work in a group. So I have two (drafts) that I needed to comment. (The two) were totally different although we were provided with the same prompt, but we wrote differently. So I learned this is another way to write it. Especially I learned about how to start an argument and gave strong example to support it… they also had different organization and used different transition signals. It really improved my knowledge. (Mr. Potter, interview)

In the excerpt above, Mr. Potter explained the benefits he gained as a feedback provider. His knowledge about particular aspects of writing (in this case were idea development and paragraph organization) was improved by comparing peers’ essays. His explanation
also indicates that the more feedback a student needs to provide, the more benefit they could gain.

In addition to knowledge improvement, reading others’ writings was also reported to be beneficial in helping students become critical readers, as seen in the following excerpt.

I didn’t know that I could learn from reading and commenting my friends’ paper. At first, I didn’t know what to say when giving feedback. It was so difficult. But now I know what details of writing I need to pay attention to. I think I’m now more critical when reading an essay, not only my friends’ essay but also my own...I thought when I wrote an essay, it was only for the teacher so I can get a good grade. But now I think it is important to write something that make the readers interested to read it. (Roy, reflective journal 6)

Roy explained another benefit of peer feedback in his journal entry which was to improve reading skills. Being a feedback provider forced him to be critical in reading a piece of writing. He also talked about his changing perspectives of writing goal, from writing for teacher and grade to writing for audience.

The perceived benefits of written feedback were reported even more strongly from the writer’s perspective. The major appreciation of peer feedback was that it was helpful to improve final product of students’ essay. The improvement could be in the quality of overall writing or some aspects of writing such as improvements in “idea development/expression,” “introduction and/or conclusion,” “paragraph organization,” “enriched vocabulary,” and “stronger argument to support ideas.”
After I used the feedback in my revision, I could clearly see that my essay is getting much better, especially when I compared my first to my last draft. (Dibala, written feedback survey 2)
In this excerpt Dibala explained that one of the benefits he gained from the written feedback process was the improved quality of his essay. Figures 20 and 21 show the comparison of Dibala’s first and final drafts which underwent significant transformation in various aspects of the writing including introduction and paragraph flow. For example, in the first draft, Dibala did not have any opening statement introducing his readers to the topic to be compared and contrasted. Instead, he started his essay with the explanation of the advantages of point A. Meanwhile, in the final draft, he added one paragraph as the introduction of the topic of discussion before starting comparing the two points; following local customs or keep one’s customs when moving to a new country. It can be seen that after written feedback process, Dibala had a better understanding of writing a comparison and contrast essay following its rhetoric pattern.

Students also stated that receiving written feedback helped them improve their writing skill and other English language skills, which include micro-skills “grammar” and “vocabulary.”

Most of all, I learned a lot from all the feedbacks. I think my writing skill and my knowledge were also improved. Before this, I only paid attention to local issues in my writing, especially grammar. I did not have much understanding about the global issues. Now I know that global issues like organization and idea expression is even more important to make my writing understood by the readers. (Sherlock, reflective essay 3)

Sherlock observed her improvement in writing skill as a result of receiving written feedback from peers and the teacher. She also admitted that her broadened knowledge in writing has helped expand her focus from on local issues only, particularly grammar to
global issues. And finally, for Sherlock receiving feedback could also increase her writing-for-reader awareness.

Figure 21. Dibala’s final draft of Essay 2
Theme two: Encourage critical reasoning. Besides generating improvement, students also reported that participating in written feedback activities as feedback receivers and providers encouraged their critical reasoning. Hudgins and Edelman (1986) define critical reasoning as “the disposition to provide evidence in support of one's conclusions and to request evidence from others before accepting their conclusions” (p. 333). In accord with this definition, Facione and Facione (2007) assert critical reasoning as “reflective decision-making and thoughtful problem solving about what to believe and do” (p. 44). Using those definitions as a reference, critical reasoning here refers to any effort the students made to confirm written feedback received before deciding to use it or not.

In this study, students became more critical when looking at the quality of feedback provided by teacher and peers. They were not quick to accept the suggestions, especially those from peers. They tended to examine them from various aspects such as their applicability, correctness, and impact in their overall writing before deciding to use or ignore them in revisions. They implemented their critical reasoning through three methods; consulting other resources, finding a second opinion, and examining feedback applicability. When consulting other resources, they mentioned the use of “books,” “online resources such as journal articles or websites,” “dictionary,” and “class notes.” In their efforts to find a second opinion, students reported to go to “other friends/fellow classmates”, “the class instructor,” and “other teachers who did not teach the class.” When they examined the feedback applicability in their writings, students considered some aspects such as “feasibility,” “logicality,” “flow with the essay,” and how it changed or enhanced the meaning expressed.”
When I got peer feedback, the first thing I did was checking its applicability in my writing. Why should I use it in my writing if it didn’t make my writing better? Sometimes when I’m not sure whether it’s correct or wrong, I asked other friends their opinions, at least two friends. If they said it’s correct, I used it. If they gave different opinions, I found a third person. (Dibala, interview)

In the interview, Dibala described the process of his critical reasoning using two methods, checking feedback applicability and finding a second opinion. It indicates that he relied on himself first before asking other people to help him. In the effort to find a second opinion on peer feedback, he went to fellow classmates whom he thought had the ability to give the answer. However, when students were looking for a second opinion on teacher feedback, they would go to some more authoritative figures whom they thought at least have equal knowledge with the feedback provider, as seen in the following interactions:

Princess: When I’m not sure if the feedback was correct or not, I usually consulted my books or dictionaries first. Sometimes I also asked my friends’ opinions. If they said it’s good, I took it, otherwise it’s better to ignore it.

Interviewer: Did you also look for a second opinion on teacher feedback?

Princess: I did, but not from my friends. I went to other teachers.

Interviewer: Why didn’t you ask your friends?

Princess: I don’t think they have more knowledge than the teacher. (Princess, interview)

Similar to Dibala, Princess relied on her ability first to decide whether comments were correct or not. Finding a second opinion was a second option for her when she could not
Theme three: Promote learner autonomy. The final theme that emerged from the data analysis related to this question is that written feedback helped promote learner autonomy. Holec (1981) defined learner autonomy as, “the ability to take charge of one’s learning” (p. 3). He furthermore explained that taking charge of one’s own learning means to have, and hold, the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning. One key principle of learner autonomy is the emphasis on the role of the learner rather than the role of the teacher or other people. In other words, students should be active participants in their own learning. When implementing written feedback activities in a writing class, a student writer should not be a passive participant who is too dependent on feedback provided for their revisions but should also take an active role in criticizing their own work.

In this study, giving and receiving written feedback appears to have contributed to learner autonomy in that the student writers gained the ability to self-identify and self-revise their own writing. Self-identification here refers to the writers’ ability to recognize their own mistakes. Furthermore, they were also able to evaluate their own strength and weaknesses in relation to writing skills. And ultimately, students were able to self-revise the mistakes. Self-revision refers to any revision that was made by the writers themselves, not initiated by their teacher or peers. The samples in Figures 22 and 23 were taken from Sherlock’s writings. The green parts show the changes she made as the result of self-revision from draft 1 to draft 2 of comparison & contrast essay. In the interview, Sherlock explained that she revised those parts because she either found grammatical
mistakes when writing the second draft or felt dissatisfied with her writing after comparing it with her peer’s. Her dissatisfaction could be seen in the self-revision of the conclusion part. Although her peer gave her a praise for her strong conclusion, she personally still thought that it was not as good as what she expected and decided to rewrite it in the second draft.

Figure 22. Sherlock’s first draft of Essay 2 and peer’s comments on it
The number of self-revision students made in total was higher than the total number of corrections and suggestions they received from peer and teacher feedback (look at Figure 26 for details). A closer look at the data revealed that students generated more self-revision after peer feedback. This means students were encouraged to activate their critical reasoning more often after they received peer feedback.
I think there’s something missing in my conclusion but I didn’t know what it was. When reading my peer’s draft, I suddenly realized that her conclusion was more detailed, more complete. I then revised my draft based on what I learned from my peer’s. (Mr. Potter, interview)
In the interview excerpt on the previous page, Mr. Potter explained how he self-identified his own mistake by comparing his essay with his peer’s when providing feedback. This self-identification was then followed by self-revision leading to a better conclusion for his essay. When asked to give the example of this case of self-revision in his drafts, he pointed to the blue parts on the drafts in Figures 24 and 25. He explained that he added another paragraph for the conclusion to strengthen his argument.

![Figure 24. Mr. Potter’s first draft of Essay 2](image-url)
Different from Sherlock and Mr. Potter who got the ideas to self-revise their writings when providing feedback, some students stated that they could self-identify their mistakes when reading feedback provided on their paper, as seen in the following excerpt:
When I wrote my first draft, I poured out whatever I had in my mind. After a few days, I visited it again and read it very carefully. That’s when I usually found out that I made many mistakes in grammar or global issues… I also learned from my friend’s comment. For example, she showed me one mistake about tenses in my draft and suggested correction, but when I revised [my draft] I found more mistakes similar like that and corrected them myself. (Princess, interview)

In some cases, self-identification may also lead to students’ awareness of weaknesses in particular aspects of writing or English language skills, as shown in the following excerpt:

After (I) got the feedback from my friends, I realized that I still have a lot of problems for local issues. I thought I was only weak in Grammar. Most of all, they corrected about word choices/diction and capitalization. (Sherlock, reflective essay 5)

Sherlock wrote in her reflective journal entry that after receiving so much feedback focusing on local issues, she became aware that she also needed to learn more to enrich her vocabulary and pay more attention to the mechanics of the writing. She also confessed that previously her focus was much given to grammatical issues, which she thought the only thing she was not competent in.

**Research Question 3A**

To answer the research question about how much feedback was incorporated in students’ writings, the data from students’ writing drafts of Essay 1 and Essay 2 with a total of 56 texts was analyzed to obtain the frequency counts of the number of suggestions/corrections received from peers and teacher. Peers’ suggestions/corrections
on the first and second drafts, teacher’s suggestions/corrections on the third draft, and revisions on the second, third, and finals drafts were recorded in two different tables (Table 16 and Table 17 in Appendix K) and were calculated for the frequency count. This calculation process took place every week ever since the first drafts with peer feedback on them were submitted. Each week the revisions suggested and incorporated into the following drafts were analyzed based on two categories; the focus of feedback suggested (global or local issues) and the feedback provider (peer or teacher). In addition to the two analyzed aspects mentioned previously, self-revisions on every revised draft were also counted. The total frequency count of each category was obtained by summing up the frequency count of each participant.

Figure 26. Distribution of written feedback incorporation in cycles 1 & 2 (data from 7 participants)
The results as shown in Figure 26 reveal that there was a total of 257 suggestions/corrections on 56 texts during the composing processes of Essay 1 and Essay 2. Of these, 145 suggestions/corrections were made by the peers and 112 of which were made by the teacher. Furthermore, the total frequency count of peer feedback incorporated in the revised drafts was 69\% (\(n = 100\)), which is lower than that of teacher feedback incorporation (86\%, \(n = 96\)). Besides revisions following peers’ and the teacher’s suggestions/corrections, it was also found that there was a total of 284 self-revisions made during the composing processes. Of these, 81\% (\(n = 231\)) were made after the peer feedback process while the rest of 19\% (\(n = 53\)) were made after teacher feedback.

Figure 27. The numbers of written feedback received, used, and self-revision in cycles 1 & 2 (data from 7 participants)

For the frequency count of feedback based on its focus, the results (as seen in Figure 27) show that there was a total of 77 suggestions/corrections focusing on global issues, with 39 suggestions/corrections made by peers and 38 of which were made...
INDONESIAN STUDENTS’ PERCEPTIONS OF WRITTEN FEEDBACK IN SLW

by the teacher. From all suggestions/corrections from peers, less than half of it (49%, \( n = 19 \)) was incorporated in the revised drafts but for teacher feedback, 76% \( (n = 29) \) was used in the revised drafts. Meanwhile, for suggestions/corrections focusing on local issues, the total number was 180, consisting of 106 suggestions/corrections made by peers and 74 by the teacher. Of these, 76% \( (n = 81) \) of peer feedback and 91% \( (n = 67) \) of teacher feedback were incorporated in writings. Furthermore, in terms of self-revision, there were more self-revisions focusing on global than local issues with a ratio of 54% \( (n = 154) \) to 46% \( (n = 130) \).

In conclusion, these results indicate that although peer feedback provided more suggestions/corrections than teacher feedback on both global and local issues, students adopted more teacher feedback than peer feedback in their writings. It is also worth noticing that the student writers revised their papers after each written feedback stage, which means that before they received teacher feedback, they had already revised their papers following peers’ suggestions/corrections. This indicates that some of suggestions/corrections that the teacher provided might have already been addressed in the peer feedback revision. Furthermore, the number of self-revisions students made in their writings was even bigger than the total number of peer and teacher suggestions/corrections combined. Different amounts of self-revision happened in the revising processes. There were a total number of 231 self-revisions after peer feedback but only 53 self-revisions after teacher feedback, which suggests a stronger tendency to self-revision from the exposure to peer feedback. In contrast, exposure to teacher feedback seemed to reduce self-revision. In other words, it can be said that while students
used peer feedback less than teacher feedback in their writings, they appeared to be more actively involved in self-revision.

**Research Question 3B**

In relation to the previous research question about written feedback incorporation, question 3B was aimed to identify possible reasons why students incorporated and rejected or ignored written feedback when they revised their writing. Using the same process as I explained when answering research question 2 previously, three prominent themes emerged from the data relating to the factors influencing students’ decision to incorporate or not incorporate feedback in their writings, namely: 1. Feedback provider-related factors, Feedback receiver-related factors, and 3. Written feedback-related factors. For display convenience, I presented the categories, sub-categories, and their descriptors in two tables (Tables 19 and 20 in Appendix L) labeled as influencing factors in incorporating feedback and influencing factors in not incorporating feedback.

**Theme one: Feedback provider-related factors.** The first theme emerged from the data was factors related to feedback provider. Confidence in feedback providers and students’ perception of their competence seem to be the most prominent factor in influencing students’ decision to or not to incorporate suggestions and corrections provided in their revisions. When students had high confidence in the feedback providers, indicated with statements started with “I believe,” “I trust”, and I’m sure” students would likely make revisions in accordance with the suggestions. On the contrary, when they had low confidence in feedback providers, shown in the statements started with “I distrust,” “I doubt,” and “I’m not sure” students chose to ignore the feedback in their revisions.
Competence, as a factor associated to feedback providers was also reported to have influence when students decided to incorporate or ignore feedback. When students perceived that the feedback providers were competent on the topic(s) they commented, they tended to incorporate them in their writings. But when they thought that the feedback providers were incompetent, they preferred ignoring the feedback.

Interviewer: In the written feedback surveys, you wrote that you took 50% to 60% of peer feedback but 90% to 95% of teacher feedback. Could you explain why you did it?

Cinderella: Because feedback from peer, I trusted less. He suggested revision in my sentence structures and organization, but I don’t think he is capable to do it. I think my essay was good already. I took some of his suggestions because I know he is good in that [grammar]. The rest I just ignored it because it’s already good.

(Cinderella, interview)

In the interaction above, Cinderella explained that the reason she did not incorporate feedback because of her low confidence in feedback from peer. She furthermore mentioned peer’s competence as another reason she rejected his feedback. However, when she knew that the peer had good understanding in one particular aspect of writing that he commented, Cinderella unhesitatingly made correction based on his suggestion.

A closer look at the result of data analysis revealed that high confidence was closely associated with the teacher as the feedback providers and low confidence with peers. However, in some occasions, students also mentioned their high confidence in peers to provide them feedback, as seen in the following excerpt:
I used almost all of peer feedback in my revised draft because I think they have the capacity to see my mistakes and I believe they want to help me make better essay. (Roy, written feedback survey 1)

**Theme two: Feedback receiver-related factors.** The factors related to feedback providers were reported to influence only in incorporating feedback but not in rejecting or ignoring it. Students’ awareness of their limited knowledge in particular aspects of writing and their preferences of feedback focus made them more eager to incorporate feedback in their revisions. When they received feedback focusing on those aspects, students showed concerns through statements like, “I’m weak in grammar,” “I have limited vocabulary,” and “I need suggestion in developing main idea.” They furthermore stated that they tended to use it in their writings because they knew that the feedback providers had more capacity to make the revisions.

I considered to take more than 80% of peer feedback in local issues because I’m low in it and I think my friend had ability about it so I take it much than global issues. (Dibala, written feedback 2)

In the excerpt, Dibala explained that his knowledge in global issues is better than that in local ones. With this consideration, he incorporated more feedback in local issues than that in global ones. This may also indicate that he became less critical when receiving feedback in local issues, thus would likely incorporate local issues feedback without examining its legitimacy and applicability.

Preferences on what aspects of writing were commented also became one of the influencing factors in incorporating feedback. When students received feedback that they liked or expected, they would be more likely to make revisions as suggested. The
statements such as “I like feedback about grammar, “I hope to get feedback on idea
development and organization,” and “I expect suggestions on diction choice” indicated
their preferences. In the following excerpt, Mr. Potter stated that his biggest concern was
making grammatical mistakes. Thus, he paid more attention to grammar-related feedback
to reduce the possibility of making such mistakes.

I’m really concerned about grammar issues. That’s why I paid more attention to
comments on grammar errors in my writing. I like grammar. So I will consider the
revision given by my friends. (Mr. Potter, written feedback survey 2)

**Theme three: Written feedback-related factors.** The last factors that appeared
to influence students’ decision to incorporate or not incorporate feedback were those
related to the provided written feedback itself. Looking in detail at the data sheds light on
the possible reason why students were willing to incorporate feedback was because of its
confirmed legitimacy, while their unwillingness occurred because of its low quality,
inefficiency, and negative impact on essay.

When students received suggestions/corrections, sometimes they could directly
decide whether they were correct or wrong. But some other times, they did not know or
were not sure about the legitimacy of the suggestions/corrections received. When this
happened, they did not directly reject them. Instead they would try to find ways to
confirm its legitimacy first before making any decision. Students’ confirmation of the
written feedback legitimacy was expressed in responses which can be labeled as “In
accordance with other sources such as text book and dictionary,” “Approved by other
classmates or the teacher,” and “Consistent with the writer’s knowledge.” When it was
finally confirmed, they undoubtfully used them in revisions, as shown in the following
ecerpt:

Basically, I’m aware that my friends’ comments are to help make my writing better.
But sometimes I’m just not sure if what they suggest me are correct or not. Will
they make my ideas developed? Sometimes after I checked my books I’m still not
sure about it. I usually ask my other friends. If they say it’s good, I will take it.
(Sherlock, interview).

In her explanation, Sherlock showed her understanding of the purpose of peer feedback.
She also described that her lack of knowledge about the legitimacy of her peers’ comments
did not necessarily make her decide to ignore them. In her efforts, she found the
confirmation of its legitimacy by cross-checking her books and consulting with her other
classmates. Once the legitimacy of the written feedback was confirmed, she was not
hesitant to incorporate them in her revision.

A deeper analysis of the data revealed that the effort of confirming the legitimacy
of written feedback was only made when they doubted its correctness. When students
already decided that the feedback was or seemed “incorrect” to them, they would not
bother to make further attempt to validate their judgement or assumption and just decided
to not incorporate it in their revisions. They mentioned that written feedback which was
“wrong,” “not good enough,” and “disagreed by the writer” as low-quality feedback. All
students also stated that they rejected all feedback that they thought to have low quality.

I used 40% [of] my peer’s feedback in my revision. I do that because I think the
correction is wrong. What my peer gave is not correct because when I got teacher
feedback, [it was proven] what I wrote is the true one. (Princess, written feedback survey 1)

Princess’ reason for not incorporating feedback was because she suspected that her peer’s suggestion was not correct. Although she did not make any effort to validate her assumption, she could later prove that her judgement was correct because the teacher gave no comment on the part that her peer corrected previously.

Another reason for the rejection of written feedback was its inefficiency. Students reported that written feedback became inefficient when it was “confusing,” “unclear,” “not understandable,” “not feasible and applicable,” or “not specified.” When students stated that the comments they received felt under one of those categories, they preferred to simply ignore it without any effort to ask clarification from the feedback provider. In the following excerpt, Princess explained that the clues that her friend left on her draft was not helpful at all. She could not even guess what suggestions and corrections her peer wanted to give. She just then decided to ignore them without asking any clarification from her peer.

My friend put a question mark and made some circles in some words, but she doesn’t give any note. I don’t know exactly what she means. If she gave the note what she means, I can easily understand her comments and use them in my revision. I think it’s just useless and I better to ignore them (Princess, reflective essay 2).

Finally, students were somewhat unwilling to make revisions following the written feedback provided because they found the suggestions had negative impacts on their writings. As the results of the ALA protocol done in the first meeting of the writing
course, students shared mutual understanding of the purpose of written feedback was to improve essay quality. Thus, they believe that if the provided feedback was not upgrading (let alone degrading) the quality of their essays or changing the writer’s identity, it should be then rejected as seen in the following excerpt.

I did not take the feedback because I wanted to maintain my [writing] style. [One’s feedback] should make your writing better. If it didn’t make it better, what’s the point of taking it [in revision]. Feedback to improve essay should not change the writer’s style to be different [Mr. Potter, written feedback survey 1].

The only reason for Mr. Potter’s not taking the suggested revision in his writing was because it would interfere with his writing style. As he further explained, helping improve someone else’s writing through written feedback should not be done by touching the issues of personal preferences such as style, voice, and tone of the writer.

**Research Question 4**

One of the differentiating characteristics of L2 writing instruction in ESL and EFL contexts is how cultures influence the pedagogical practices in classrooms (Tickoo, 1995). This is particularly significant in most Asian societies which are heirs to rich and established cultures and traditions. Research shows that among the issues of culture that influence the effectiveness of feedback in L2 writing instruction in EFL contexts are the hierarchical relationship between teachers and students, which also implicates distance power and a collectivist society that practices face-saving strategies to maintain group harmony. Since Indonesia is an Asian country which also practices the cultures of hierarchical relationship and is a collectivist society, this study thus aimed to investigate
whether those cultural issues found in other studies also exist in L2 writing in Indonesian EFL context.

Research question 4 was to examine whether culture plays a role in shaping students’ perception of written feedback in this study. This question was answered using the thematic content analysis on the data from three different sources; the Written Feedback surveys, reflective journals, and interview transcripts. Using the same data analysis process as explained in the findings of research questions 2 and 3b, two overarching themes emerged from the data relating to the presence or absence of cultural influences in shaping students’ perceptions of written feedback, namely: 1. Value teacher feedback more than peer feedback and 2. Claim authority as feedback providers and receivers. The categories, the sub-categories, and the descriptors within these overarching themes are presented in Table 21 in Appendix L.

**Theme one: Value teacher feedback more than peer feedback.** Hierarchy plays a very important role in Indonesian society. One principle of hierarchical culture is obedience to higher authority figures. As a result, students from hierarchical cultures where teachers are ascribed the highest power and ultimate source of knowledge in classroom interactions may perceive different values of written feedback provided by teachers and peers (Allaei & Connor, 1990; Miao, et. al., 2006, Scollon, 1999; Tsui & Ng, 2000). The analysis of the data in this study also showed that students valued teacher feedback more than peer feedback, which was reflected from the amount of written feedback incorporated in their writings. As shown in Figure 17, although the total number of teacher’s suggestions/corrections was smaller than that of peers’, students yet incorporated more teacher than peer feedback in revisions. A closer look at the data
revealed that these different values resulted from three reasons: different levels of confidence in teacher and peers as feedback providers, different levels of confirmation of written feedback usefulness, and discrepancy of teacher and peer feedback incorporation.

Students showed different levels of confidence to written feedback they received from teacher and peers. When referring to teacher feedback, they used words like “trust,” “believe,” and “sure” of teacher’s competence. In addition, they also showed high confidence in the quality of teacher’s comments by stating that they were “more trustworthy,” “more accurate,” and “more qualified.” In the following excerpt, Dibala explained why he trusted teacher feedback more than peer feedback.

I think teacher feedback is more qualified. I personally trust teacher feedback more than all my peers’ feedback. Because I can also see the result from teacher feedback looks better and fits better in my essay, compared to feedback from my peers. (Dibala, interview)

On the contrary, when talking about peer feedback, students tended to use words showing low confidence like “distrust,” “doubt,” and “uncertain.” Furthermore, they also claimed that peers have lower competence as feedback provider by stating that they “have equal knowledge,” or “have no or little experience.”

I think that my word is correct, it doesn’t need revising. But she thinks that my word is wrong. Well, it was happened because we have a different understanding about it. I don’t know which the correct one is. Therefore, it is one of the lack of getting feedback from the peer because we have the same level in knowledge. That is why I cannot believe 100% the feedback from peer. (Rachel, reflective essay 2)
In her reflective essay, Rachel expressed her disagreement with her peer’s correction. She also stated that one of the drawbacks of peer feedback was because the feedback provider and the feedback receiver were at the same level in knowledge thus peer feedback cannot be totally trusted.

Different values of teacher and peer feedback were also indicated by how students perceived the usefulness of written feedback in their revisions. When talking about the usefulness of written in the revision, all the students gave positive responses. However, the usefulness of teacher feedback was confirmed absolutely while the usefulness of peer feedback was expressed with reservations. In the students’ words, teacher feedback was ‘very,’” “definitely,” or “totally” useful while peer feedback was ‘‘basically,’” ‘‘sometimes’’ or “less” useful. This different acceptance of written feedback can be seen in the excerpts below:

“I think teacher feedback is worthier than peer feedback. It was really helpful and very detailed in all aspects from grammar, idea, to the conclusion were commented by the instructor. (Cinderella, interview)

Cinderella explained the usefulness of teacher feedback by using the word “very” to intensify the degree of how helpful and detailed the teacher’s comments she received. Furthermore, she praised teacher feedback on all aspects of writing which shows her trust in teacher’s knowledge and competence. Meanwhile Sherlock used the word “enough’ which is a lower degree of intensifier when talking about the quality of peer feedback that she received. She also only praised one particular aspect of writing, in this case grammar where she thought her peer was competent to comment about.
About 50% [of peer feedback was used in revisions], because I think my friend’s suggestions are good enough, especially about grammar. (Sherlock, Written feedback survey 1)

The last indication that students valued teacher feedback more than peer feedback is the different amount of teacher and peer feedback incorporation. As seen in the results of frequency count of written feedback incorporation in Figure 17, students incorporated higher percentage of teacher feedback (86%) in their revisions, meanwhile for peer feedback, only 69% was used in revisions. This discrepancy of feedback incorporation was also admitted by students as highlighted in the following excerpts:

I took 50% of comments from my peer because I think [only] 50% of the comments are right and useful for my essay… Most of the comment I have from teacher feedback, 90% of comments I took because I think the comments from teacher’s feedback is really helpful. (Cinderella, written feedback survey 1)

I used 40% of my peer feedback in my revision. I do that because I think the correction is wrong… I used 80% (of teacher feedback) in my essay because I think my teacher has more knowledge than me. (Princess, written feedback survey 1)

Both Cinderella and Princess admitted of using much higher teacher feedback than peer feedback in their revisions. Despite their different reasons for doing so, the fact that they incorporated more teacher than peer feedback also indicated that they value teacher feedback more.
In summary, students gave more credits to teacher comments more than peer comments. In this case, students have higher confidence in teacher feedback which resulted in higher percentage of teacher feedback incorporation in revisions. However, it should be noted that student valued both teacher and peer feedback although with different levels of confirmation.

**Theme two: Claim authority as feedback providers and receivers.** Another principle in hierarchical culture is the high-power distance between teachers and students. Thus, educational practice in cultures of hierarchical relationships places a great emphasis on ‘maintaining a hierarchical but harmonious relation between teacher and student. Students are expected to respect and not to challenge their teachers’ (Hu, 2002, p. 98). In addition, Indonesians as collectivist society also practice face-saving strategy to maintain cohesion and group harmony among the group members. However, the data analysis demonstrated that despite the high-power distance between teachers and students and the practice of face-saving strategy in Indonesian society, students in this study were not hesitant to claim their authority as feedback receivers and feedback providers.

When receiving feedback from teacher and peers, students were not reluctant to voice their disagreement and reject the feedback for personal reasons such as “I don’t think the comments are correct,” “I dissatisfied with the feedback provided,”. In addition, as the writers, they were also aware that they were the decision makers in deciding what comments to incorporate or ignore in their revisions. They rejected the feedback using some reasons such as “the original draft is better,” “suggestions/revisions changed the intended meaning,” and “feedback interfered with writer’s voice and style. In the interaction below, Mr. Potter showed how he claimed his authority as the writer of the
essay. Although he confirmed the quality of the feedback, he rejected to use it in his revision because he saw this contribution as intrusive. It can be said that students valued teacher feedback and confirmed its quality, but it was not necessarily for them to agree with and incorporate it in their writings.

Interviewer: In your reflective journal, you wrote that you took only 50% of teacher feedback. Why?

Mr. Potter: The teacher gave me only two suggestions. I took one but ignored the other because I think the suggestion [which was ignored] was not applicable in my writing. The other I think was acceptable although a little bit difficult to make it flow with my sentences, with my idea. I admitted the first comment was good, but if I kept using it in my revision…what can I say…the idea didn’t flow so I had to rewrite everything. (Mr. Potter, interview)

When serving as feedback provider, students did also not hesitate to give comments on her peers’ drafts which was shown in their statements like, “I provided as much feedback as necessary,” “I gave feedback based on one’s understanding,” “I gave feedback to help improve peer’s essay,” “I did not hold back when giving criticism,” and “I believe that the writers will not be offended with my feedback.” Those statements indicate that students realized that being a feedback provider allowed them to speak as a teacher might. They also knew that the purpose of their giving comments on peers’ drafts was to state their opinions on what peers needed to do to improve their writings. When providing criticism, they also did not hold back just because of not wanting to hurt anyone’s feelings. As a result, students in this study were not concerned with maintaining group harmony and practicing face-saving strategies.
As long as I think it is necessary, I will give feedback on my peers’ drafts. Because I believe that my friends know that I had no intention to insult or offend them. I personally also expected that my friends be honest to me when giving feedback. When they think it’s good, they can praise it. When they think it’s not good, they can criticize it. Even when they think my essay was good, I still expected them to provide me much feedback. (Sherlock, interview)

The interview excerpt above clearly illustrates that Sherlock’s only intention was to help her peers improve their writing by not holding anything back when providing feedback. She furthermore explained that she expected the same treatment from her peers. This indicated that she was not concerned about practicing face-saving strategies to maintain harmony with her peers by subordinating honesty to politeness.

Summary

This study was conducted to provide an in-depth explanation of Indonesian students’ perceptions of different constructs of written feedback in the writing classroom. This study is primarily qualitative, although some of the qualitative data was analyzed quantitatively. The following results were summarized from the data analysis:

The first research question sought to ascertain the form and the focus of written feedback that students preferred to receive. The analysis of frequency counts of the responses to the closed-ended items in the Written Feedback survey showed that the students preferred direct correction when receiving written feedback from both their peers and the teacher. Meanwhile for the focus of written feedback, they indicated different preferences. They expected more feedback focusing on local issues from peers but more on global issues from the teacher.
The second question asked students’ perceptions on the benefits of written feedback. The analysis of thematic content analysis revealed that students perceived three benefits. First, they reported that getting involved in the written feedback activities helped them improve their writing quality and their language and writing skills. Second, it encouraged their critical reasoning as they tended to examine the written feedback they received by consulting other resources, finding a second opinion, and/or examining feedback applicability before deciding to use or ignore them in revisions. Finally, giving and receiving written feedback contributed to their learning autonomy as they gained the ability to self-identify their mistakes and weaknesses and self-revise them without any assistance from peers or teacher.

The third question dealt with how students incorporated written feedback in their writings. The analysis of the frequency count of the written feedback received on the drafts and used in the revisions showed that students incorporated more teacher feedback than peer feedback. It was also found that the amount of self-revisions students made in their revisions outnumbered the amount of the written feedback they received from peers and the teacher combined. Furthermore, the result of thematic content analysis in relation to the reasons why students incorporated or ignored/rejected feedback in their revisions revealed three findings: (1) students incorporated or ignored feedback because of the factors related to the feedback provider i.e. their levels of confidence on the feedback provider and the feedback provider’s competence; (2) students incorporated feedback because of the factors related to the feedback receiver herself such as her limited knowledge and her preference of feedback focus; and (3) students incorporated or ignored feedback because of the factors related to the written feedback they received.
which included whether its legitimacy was confirmed before it was incorporated and its low quality, inefficiency, and negative impact on their essay which caused it to be rejected.

Finally, the last research question aimed to examine any cultural issues that might influence students’ perceptions of written feedback. The results showed that the hierarchical culture in Indonesian society played a role in shaping students’ perceptions of the value of written feedback. They reported to value more teacher feedback than peer feedback. However, the culture of power distance and collectivist society did not seem to have any influences in students’ perceptions because they were not reluctant to voice their disagreements with the teacher and peers and did not hold back when criticizing peers’ drafts.
CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This study was conducted to fill a gap in the existing literature on EFL students’ perceptions of written feedback in L2 writing. Specifically, this study described the most commonly preferred form and focus of written feedback in an Indonesian EFL writing class, the benefits of written feedback from students’ perspectives, and the amount of feedback used in students’ writings. It also provided an exploratory explanation to understand why students incorporated written feedback and how culture influenced students’ perceptions. This study involved a writing course experiment consisting of seven meetings with each meeting lasting for two hours. Eleven sixth-semester students of the English Education department, the State Islamic University of North Sumatra participated in this study. They participated in two cycles of the experiment: writing an agree & disagree essay (Essay 1) and writing a comparison & contrast essay (Essay 2). In each cycle, they went through four essay writing stages: writing the first draft, making the two revisions (2nd and 3rd drafts), and writing the final draft (4th draft); and three written feedback provision segments: peer feedback on global issues, peer feedback on local issues, and teacher feedback on global and local issues.

A qualitative case study approach was applied in this study. The data were collected from various sources including demographic and written feedback surveys, reflected journals, writing samples, and face-to-face interviews. The data were analyzed using two methods: (1) frequency count to describe the participants’ responses to close-ended questions in the Written Feedback survey and the numbers of written feedback provided and used in their writings; and (2) thematic content analysis to explore students’
INDONESIAN STUDENTS’ PERCEPTIONS OF WRITTEN FEEDBACK IN SLW

perception of written feedback benefits, possible influencing factors in incorporating or not incorporating feedback, and cultural issues that might influence students’ perceptions. Since the data analysis and findings have been provided in the previous chapter, this chapter focuses on the discussions of those findings. However, before discussing the findings, the following limitations of this study should be considered.

**Limitation of the Study**

1. This study was conducted in an after-class writing course, which means that it did not represent the real atmosphere as that found in a formal EFL writing class setting.

2. The students voluntarily joined this class, which could indicate their positive attitude towards English writing class. Meanwhile, in a formal class setting, students do not take the class voluntarily, but because it is compulsory, and they have no other options except taking it. This means that students taking English writing class in a formal class setting may have either positive or negative attitude towards it.

3. The research was involved in teaching the writing course experiment which may raise questions whether students gave their true perceptions or just reported what they thought the teacher/researcher wanted to hear.

4. The participants were quite homogenous in terms of first language and represented only Indonesian college students majoring in English department. This particular group of students did not represent the majority of Indonesian students who learn English in classrooms where English is not commonly used as the language of instruction. This also means that the extent to which the
participants in this study may represent Indonesian students in other contexts is debatable.

5. The qualitative data clearly did not provide a basis for statistical generalization, but did enable student viewpoints to be aired and analyzed.

Discussion of the Findings

Students’ Preference of the Form of Written Feedback (Addresses Research Question 1A)

The first part of research question one sought to describe the form of written feedback that students preferred to receive on their writings. As presented in Chapter 4, the results of data analysis revealed that students wanted their peers to indicate errors in their papers by indicating and correcting them or by indicating, correcting, and categorizing them. However, in practice, both the peers and the teacher provided feedback in the form of direct and indirect correction. This finding demonstrates that students strongly preferred direct correction when receiving written feedback from both their peers and teacher. However, there was a slight difference of preferred methods of error indication from peers and teacher. Students rated the option of indicating the error, correcting and categorizing it higher than that of indicating the error and correcting it when referring to peer feedback. When referring to teacher feedback, their preferences of those two methods were equally shared. Furthermore, although students preferred that the feedback providers corrected their errors, the results also showed that the error indication method by hinting the location and categorizing without correcting the errors was also acceptable. From these results, it can be inferred that students preferred direct form of written feedback with or without the provision of corrections to their errors.
The finding showing students’ preferences for direct correction over indirect one is consistent with those of Chen, Nassaji, and Liu’s (2016), Lee’s (2005), and Zaman and Azad’s (2012) and is somewhat different from Hong’s (2004) and Ji’s (2015). In their study, Chen, Nassaji, and Liu (2016) who studied 64 EFL learners in a public university in China, found that students of different levels of language proficiency showed different preferences of error correction techniques. However, they concluded that overall “the students preferred direct correction to indirect correction” (p. 12). Lee (2005) investigating L2 secondary students’ perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes about error correction in the writing classroom in Hongkong reported that the majority of the students in her study “wished their teachers to mark and correct errors for them” (p. 1). Finally, Zaman and Azad (2012) used a survey to explore 120 Bangladeshi EFL university students’ perceptions of the issue of feedback and one of the findings was students “talked in favor of direct feedback” (p. 146). On the contrary, Hong (2004), and Ji (2015) who conducted their studies in the United States and China respectively reported that their participants were not content when receiving more direct feedback than indirect feedback. This discrepancy might be indicative of pedagogical differences not only between different contexts of EFL and ESL classrooms but also between EFL classrooms in different contexts.

For the explanation of students’ preference for direct to indirect feedback, Zaman and Azad (2012) asserted that it might have been influenced by the reality of EFL context that learners lack enough proficiency and confidence in handling the target language forms. However, I do not think that this is the case in this study. Although the findings related to students’ self-identification of English language and writing skills show that
they considered their skills in the level of average and below (as seen in Figure 8) but other findings show a contrasted fact. As seen in Figure 26, the total number of self-revisions that students made in their revised drafts was much higher than the total number of suggested revisions from peers and the teacher combined. It suggests that they had enough proficiency and confidence in revising their writings. Based on this finding, I assume the reality described by Azam and Azad (2012) was not the reason to explain the students’ preference.

To understand the reasons behind this finding, additional research is needed. Two example speculations might be suggested beyond the data, regarding the reasons of students’ preference of direct correction: (1) the students did not want the written feedback they received become inefficient, which means they did not understand what was being suggested or revised; and (2) the students simply wanted things easier for them. I make these speculations based on the findings of one the factors influencing students to not incorporate feedback, which was its inefficiency. In their explanations, they reported that any comments that they found unclear, understandable, or confusing would be ignored. This indicates that indirect feedback may cause confusion in understanding what suggestions reviewers want to make, as stated in the following excerpt:

My friend put a question mark and made some circles in some words, but she doesn’t give any note. I don’t know exactly what she means. If she gave the note what she means, I can easily understand her comments and use them in my revision. I think it’s just useless and [I] better to ignore them. (Princess, reflective essay 2)
Students’ preference of direct correction may also indicate that they did not want to work harder or put extra effort to find out the corrections for the identified mistakes, which means it would make things more complicated. This assumption is consistent with that of Lee (2005) who stated that the students in her study chose direct feedback mainly because “this would make life easier for the students” (p. 7).

Finally, students’ preference of one method of error indication over the other for direct correction from peers may indicate their lack of confidence in peers’ competence as feedback providers. That is why when they received peer feedback, they wanted their errors to be categorized, as well as be indicated and corrected, to make sure that the feedback providers really had a good understanding on the topic they commented on.

**Students’ Preference of the Focus of Written Feedback (Addresses Research Question 1B)**

The second part of research question one is to ascertain students’ preference of the written feedback focus. The results of data analysis revealed three findings. Firstly, students reported to have the strongest preference on comments focusing on idea expression, which was part of global issues. Secondly, overall students preferred different focuses of written feedback from their peers and teacher. When receiving feedback from peers, they indicated preference on feedback focusing on local issues, particularly those related to grammar. On the contrary, they expected teacher’s comments to be focused on global issues. Finally, although students reported to most expecting comments on particular issues on their papers, they also indicated that they took all comments equally seriously. The reason underlying such a difference may lie in students’ perceptions of the feedback provider’s competence. They did not believe peer comment on global issues
because it was less measurable, unlike grammar, punctuation, and vocabulary whose correctness can be checked from other sources like books and dictionary. Suggestions on global issues tend to be subjective which may vary from person to person.

The results of this study have some similarities with those of Diab (2005). Focusing only on teacher feedback, she investigated 156 EFL university students’ preferences for error correction and paper-marking techniques and their beliefs about what constitutes effective feedback. Similar to some results of this study, Diab found that most students who participated in her study also preferred to have comments on global issues from their teacher. More specifically, most students chose comments on the writing style and ideas/content as the most important ones to look at. They findings also revealed that students generally equated the importance of feedback on both local and global issues in their writing. Contradicted findings were found in the study conducted by Tom, Morni, Metom, and Joe (2013) who investigated ESL university students’ preferred feedback in helping them revise and improve their written assignments. The findings revealed that the majority of the students valued feedback on local issues more than that focusing on the global issues, particularly feedback in the form of grammar correction and suggestions on how to improve. They also indicated that the students’ main concern was to edit their writing to make it error-free instead of revising it to make the message clearer to the readers. In terms of students’ different preferences of feedback focus, Lee (2008a) found similar findings when investigated the reactions of ESL students to their teachers’ feedback. However, her findings showed that students’ preferences of the focus of feedback were different according to the level of proficiency, not according to the feedback provider as found in this study. She reported that students of high proficiency
wanted the teacher to give more feedback on global issues, particularly on content, while lower proficiency students were more divided in their preferences between local and global issues.

In summary, although some of the findings of this study are in line with those of previous studies by Diab (2005) and Lee (2008a), it is important to notice that those two studies only investigated teacher feedback with no peer feedback involvement. Thus, the findings of this study could fill the literature gap of EFL students’ preference of feedback focus from peers since, based on the existing literature about written feedback in EFL contexts that I’ve read there are very limited studies investigating students’ preference of the focus of teacher written feedback in comparison to that of peer feedback in an EFL writing context.

**Students’ Perception of the Benefits of Written Feedback (Addresses Research Question 2)**

The students reported some benefits of taking parts in the written feedback activities as feedback receivers and providers. Thematic content data analysis results showed that all of the students found the written feedback helped them improve either their language and writing skills, essay quality, or both. The benefit of feedback in improving students’ writing skills has been confirmed by other researchers. Lundstrom and Baker (2009) affirmed that giving feedback is important for learning writing skills and for developing writing proficiency. In line with them, Hyland and Hyland (2006a) argued that providing feedback is one of the most appropriate ways of instruction to help L2 learners successfully learn a writing skill (Hyland & Hyland, 2006a). Meanwhile, the benefit of feedback in improving essay quality has also been reported in many studies.
(e.g. Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2006; Jahin, 2012; Kamimura, 2006). However, most of them investigated students’ writing improvements using quantitative approach and very few exist that focus on students’ perceptions of the benefits of written feedback.

Eksi’s (2012) study was one among the few that investigated students’ perceptions of the usefulness of peer review in comparison to that of teacher feedback in an EFL academic writing in Turkey. The findings were similar to those of this study showing that the majority of the students viewed the feedback process as helpful either when giving or receiving feedback and found the comments they received from their peers were useful in improving their writing. However, she employed different methods of data collection involving writing drafts and reflective journals only. Using reflective journals as the only instrument to record students’ experiences had its limitation as they provided limited space for students to share their stories. Furthermore, reflective journals could not really explore students’ perceptions of the feedback process as much as a face-to-face interview could do in capturing verbal and non-verbal cues such as body language and facial expression. Realizing the limitation of reflective journals, I used various instruments of data collection which provided me different nuances of information with the hope that the findings of this study could offer more insights of the benefits of written feedback as perceived by the students.

The results of thematic data analysis also revealed that students perceived two other benefits of written feedback activities, namely; encouraging critical thinking and promoting learner autonomy. Hudgins and Edelman (1986) define critical reasoning as one’s way to find evidence to support her conclusion or to request evidence from others before accepting their conclusions. Meanwhile, one key principle of learner autonomy as
Holec (1981) explained is the emphasis on the role of the learner rather than the role of the teacher or other people. Similar to this, Balçıkani, (2010) stated that autonomy allows learners to learn more about themselves and what they like, what they do not, and how they can be more effective by themselves and not by the help of others. In other words, students should be active participants in their own learning. For the implementation of critical thinking, the students in this study reported seeking evidence by consulting other resources such as grammar books and dictionaries; finding a second opinion from other friends or other teachers; and applying their analytical skill to examine feedback applicability to respond to any suggestions and corrections. They particularly became more critical when looking at peer feedback before deciding to use or ignore it in revisions. Meanwhile, learning autonomy was shown through students’ active participation in criticizing their own work which resulted in self-identification of mistakes and weaknesses and self-revision of those mistakes without any initiation from peers and the teacher.

These results also indicated that the written feedback activities in this study had successfully helped the development of students’ higher psychological processes within their ZPDs, which are characterized with the emergence of voluntary regulation and conscious awareness of mental processes (Mahn, 2012). ZPD as defined by Vygotsky (1978, p. 86) is “the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.” He furthermore explained about the development of psychological functions that “...any function in the child’s cultural development appears on stage twice, that is, on two
planes. It firstly appears on the social plane and then on a psychological plane. Firstly among people as an inter-psychological category and then within the child as an intrapsychological category” (1983, p. 145) and in the transition from interpsychological to intrapsychological functioning, the child or learner moves through stages of other-regulation to complete self-regulation, the stage when he or she is capable of independent problem solving (Vygotsky, 1987).

In this study, taking parts as feedback receivers and providers in the written feedback activities impacted students’ learning at the intra-psychological category, the higher cognitive level. King, Goodson, and Rohani (2013) stated that critical thinking is one of higher order thinking skills, besides logical, reflective, metacognitive, and creative thinking, which are activated when individuals encounter unfamiliar problems, uncertainties, questions, or dilemmas. Throughout the written feedback stages, students were stimulated to activate their critical thinking. For example, they activated their critical thinking when questioning the legitimacy of the written feedback they received from their peers and teacher. Furthermore, when they had to read their peers work, reflect about its qualities and formulate constructive and helpful feedback, they had to think critically about what they are reading.

Since ZPD refers to that metaphorical space between what learners are able to do on their own and what they are able to do through the help of a more knowledgeable or experienced other, learner autonomy may also be used as another indication that students expanded their ZPDs. Through written feedback activities, students first intellectually imitated their peers’ and teacher’s mental processes by understanding the feedback they provided, especially that in the form of indirect correction and focusing on the idea
development of the writing, and incorporating it in their writings. This intellectual imitation helped students develop their conscious awareness of their own mental processes, which resulted in the ability to self-regulate their own writing by self-identifying the errors and self-revised them without any assistance from other people. These three stages of intellectual imitation, conscious awareness, and self-regulation are the essence of higher psychical processes within the ZPD. This also shows that students had reached the phase of internalization as they moved from other-regulation to self-regulation.

Finally, since the ZPD theory is also used to incorporate the relationship between every day and academic concepts, students’ ability to self-identify their own mistakes could also indicate that they had expanded their ZPDs. Mahn (2015, p. 257) pointed out that “conscious awareness plays a significant role in the transformation of thinking as students, around adolescence, become aware of their own thinking processes and learn how to control their learning and to think in concepts which is key to attaining academic concepts.” When revising their essays after each written feedback session, the student writers were often aware of their own mistakes and weaknesses which eventually led to self-revision. This showed that they were aware of their own thinking processes and learned how to control their learning and to think in concepts.

The benefits of written feedback to improve writing quality, encourage critical thinking, and promote learner autonomy were also reported in Berg’s (1999), Miao, Badger, and Zhen’s (2006), and Villamil and De Guerrero’s (1998) studies, although the first and the last ones involved no teacher feedback. Berg (1999) who studied ESL students in the USA confirmed the effectiveness of peer feedback as a means of aiding
writing development and the benefit of feedback to encourage critical reasoning. Miao, Badger, and Zhen (2006) examining peer and teacher feedback in two large ESL classes in China reported that peer feedback led to improvements and appeared to encourage student autonomy, so it could be seen as a useful adjunct to teacher feedback. Similar to the findings of Miao, Badger, and Zhen’s, Villamil and De Guerrero (1998) who investigated Spanish speaking ESL college students in Puerto Rico found that peer feedback had a beneficial effect on the quality of writing and also led to more learner autonomy.

The Amount of Incorporated Written Feedback (Addresses Research Question 3A)

The first part of research question number three asked about the amount of written feedback students incorporated in their writings. The results of data analysis from students’ writing drafts showed that students incorporated more teacher feedback than peer feedback in their revisions. In details, they incorporated 69% of peer feedback and 86% of teacher feedback in revisions. This finding echoes Miao, Badger, and Zhen’s (2006) and Tsui and Ng’s (2000). Miao, Badger, and Zhen (2006) found their students adopted more teacher feedback than peer feedback with a ratio of 90% to 67%, while Tsui and Ng (2000) reported that most of their students incorporated more than 50% of teacher feedback but less than 50% of peer feedback. Furthermore, the results of this current study also revealed that during the editing and revising processes, students made self-revisions, the total number of which surpassed the total number of suggestions/corrections from peer and teacher feedback combined. Of these self-revisions, 81% were made after the peer feedback process while the other 19% after teacher feedback.
From this finding, it can be interpreted that the written feedback activities helped students to be more autonomous as they did not completely depend on the feedback they got from their teacher or peers. The more they doubted the written feedback, the more likely it was that they would develop their own independent ideas for revision. Furthermore, it can also be said that the impact of teacher and peer feedback on promoting learner autonomy is different. Although students incorporated peer feedback less than teacher feedback in their revisions, they made more self-revisions after peer feedback than teacher feedback. It suggests that exposure to peer feedback seemed to promote more learner autonomy and in contrast, exposure to teacher feedback promote less learner autonomy. Such a finding confirms Miao, Badger, and Zhen’s (2006, p. 193) “peer feedback, though it had less impact than teacher feedback, does lead to improvements and appears to encourage student autonomy…” I speculate two reasons regarding this finding: (1) the students believed that the teacher had pointed out all their mistakes and there was no need for further correction meanwhile their peers had not (2) they simply did not trust the quality of either the peers as feedback providers or the suggestions/corrections provided by them. The less confidence on peers is likely to increase the students’ initiative and lead to more self-initiated corrections after peer feedback. However, it is also worth mentioning that the different number of self-revisions made after peer and teacher feedback might also be because the time of feedback provision. Since teacher feedback was provided almost at the end of the feedback stages, students might not have many things to revise anymore, which resulted in less self-revision.
From the sociocultural perspective, this finding also indicated social interactions through written feedback activities helped students develop higher psychological functions within the ZPD as they co-constructed knowledge with their peers and teacher, with the collaboration with peers seemed to have more impact on higher psychological development than that with the teacher. Through social interactions in peer feedback activities students were more encouraged to develop their own independent ideas for revisions, which indicated that in their revising processes, they had moved from interpsychological to intrapsychological functioning, from other-regulation to self-regulation. This is in line with what Leont’ev (1981) explained:

Higher psychological processes unique to humans can be acquired only through interaction with others, that is, through interpsychological processes that only later will begin to be carried out independently by the individual. When this happens, some of these processes lose their initial, external form and are converted into intrapsychological processes. (p. 56)

During this collaboration, peers and teacher provided the students with the appropriate level of assistance, known as scaffolding, which helped stretch them beyond their current level towards their potential level of development. The scaffolding in the written feedback processes in this study came not only from the written feedback provided on students’ drafts but also from their being a feedback provider to peers’ writings. When proving feedback, students gained knowledge by reading their peers’ work, formulating constructive feedback, and comparing the quality of their peers’ work with that of their own, as seen in the following excerpt:
I think there’s something missing in my conclusion but I didn’t know what it was. When reading my peer’s draft, I suddenly realized that her conclusion was more detailed, more complete. I then revised my draft based on what I learned from my peer’s. (Mr. Potter, interview)

The Influencing Factors in Written Feedback Incorporation (Addresses Research Question 3B)

The second part of research question number three aimed to investigate the factors that might influence students in incorporating or not incorporating written feedback in their writings. The results of thematic content data analysis from written feedback surveys, reflective journals, and interviews indicated that students incorporated written feedback in their revisions because of three factors, namely: (1) feedback provider-related factors, which includes high confidence in the feedback provider and feedback provider’s competence; (2) feedback receiver-related factors including feedback receiver’s limited knowledge and feedback receiver’s preference of feedback focus; and (3) confirmed legitimacy of written feedback which is a written feedback-related factor. Furthermore, feedback provider-related factors and written feedback-related factors were also found to be the factors that might influence students in not incorporating written feedback in their writings. A closer look at the results revealed that students’ low confidence in the feedback provider and feedback provider’s incompetence as factors related to the feedback provider, and written feedback’s low quality, inefficiency, and negative impact on essay as those related to the written feedback received.

Most of the findings are in line with what Allen (2015) reported in his study. Using an online survey, he investigated students’ perceptions of the factors that may
mediate the types of interaction and the amount and the type of feedback provided in peer feedback among EFL university students in Japan. The results showed that the factors related to the feedback provided dominated the reasons why students either incorporated or did not incorporate feedback, followed by feedback provider-related factors, as seen in the following quotation.

In summary, the primary reasons that suggestions were not incorporated were that they were inaccurate or grammatically incorrect. The high proportion of students who thought that grammatical inaccuracies were a reason for not incorporating feedback shows that there is some criticism of the peer’s language ability…According to writer perceptions, their peer’s language proficiency was a less common reason than topic knowledge for not incorporating suggestions in the revision process. (Allen, 2015, pp. 57-58)

Interestingly, despite student’s criticism of their peers’ incompetence, they did not seem to be critical of their own limited knowledge, thus it was not mentioned to be an influencing factor in Allen’s study. It also differentiated my findings from his.

Finally, although my findings shared much similarity with those of Allen’s, it should be noted that his study only used survey as the method of data collection. It is known that as a self-report-based instrument of data collection, surveys may yield false information about what the respondents say to what the real practice is in the field. Thus, the findings of this study could enrich the existing literature by providing more insights on the factors influencing students in incorporating or refusing/rejecting written feedback.
Cultural Influences on Students’ Perceptions (Addresses Research Question 4)

The final research question asked if there were cultural issues that might influence students’ perceptions of the written feedback activities. The results of data analysis revealed two findings. First, students valued teacher feedback more than peer feedback, which indicates that there was some influence of the hierarchical relationship culture. Similar findings were also found from the analysis of the demographic surveys which were administered prior to the study. Almost all students rated teacher feedback as more valuable than peer feedback. Second, students were not hesitant to claim authority as feedback providers and receivers, which indicated that the concept of power distance between teacher and students and the culture of collectivist society practicing face-saving strategy did not seem to have much influence on them during the written feedback activities.

The influence of hierarchical culture on students’ perceptions of the value of written feedback was expected to come out from this study. Lewis (as cited in Novera, 2004) explained the relationship between Indonesian teachers and students. Indonesian students view teachers as the fountain of knowledge, the persons who know better in classroom settings. This was also found in some statements made by the students in this study.

I think teacher feedback is more qualified. I personally trust teacher feedback more than all my peers’ feedback. (Dibala, interview)
I took more teacher feedback than peer feedback because I think teacher is more expert than my peer and have more experience in feedback than my friends. (Roy, interview)

This finding is in line with those of Miao, Badger, and Zhen’s (2006) and Tsui and Ng’s (2000). Miao, Badger, and Zhen (2006) who investigated two Chinese EFL writing classes reported that the students in their study “value teacher feedback more highly than peer feedback but recognize the importance of peer feedback” (p. 193). Similar to this, Tsui and Ng (2000) studying the roles of teacher and peer comments in revisions in writing among ESL learners in Hong Kong found out that their student favored teacher comments. They furthermore explained that the reasons were because the students thought that “the teacher was more experienced and a figure of authority and that teacher's comments guaranteed quality” (p. 160). Two among the reasons, namely: “the teacher was more experienced” and” the teacher's comments guaranteed quality” were also mentioned by my students to explain why they valued more teacher feedback.

Interestingly, the other reason saying that the teacher was a figure of authority whose words should be followed did not seem to be a reason. Although hierarchical societies tend to accept more power distance, including the distance between a teacher and a student, my students did not hesitate to disregard teacher’s suggestions and to voice their disagreement with them. This indicates that power distance did not have any significant influence in students’ perceptions of written feedback.

The second finding showing students’ willingness to criticize peers’ writings and to voice their disagreement with peers’ comments is quite the contrary of Carson and Nelson’s (1996). They investigated Chinese students’ interaction styles and reactions to
peer response groups in culturally heterogenous ESL composition classes. The results of their study showed that that “the Chinese students’ primary goal for the groups was social-to maintain group harmony-and that this goal affected the nature and types of interaction they allowed themselves in group discussions” (p. 1). They furthermore described some characteristics of the Chinese students’ interactions: (1) reluctance to criticize drafts because they thought might be hurtful to other group members; (2) reluctance to disagree with peers because it would create conflicts within the group. Based on these findings and the findings from another study they conducted, Nelson and Carson (1998) concluded that

members of collectivist cultures believe that the collective or group is the smallest unit of survival… the primary goal of the group is to maintain the relationships that constitute the group, to maintain cohesion and group harmony among the group members. (p. 2)

Thus, it may be difficult for students of a collectivist society to respond to other students’ written texts in any manner other than being positive by saying what the writer wants to hear rather than what might be helpful to improve her writing.

I assume such different findings between this study and that of Carson and Nelson (1996) may lie in two reasons; (1) students’ understanding of the written feedback purpose and (2) the nature of feedback interactions. In the beginning of this study, the students were introduced to the concept of written feedback through the ALA protocol which was explained in detail in Chapter Three. Through this activity, students got a very good understanding of the purpose of peer feedback throughout the composing process that is to help improve the quality of the writing and develop writing skills of both
feedback receivers and providers. Thus, they characterized their interactions in the peer feedback activities as task oriented. They focused on providing comments that helped improve their peers’ essays and viewed the social dimension of maintaining the state of cohesion as subordinate to the task dimension, as seen in the following excerpts:

I will give as much feedback as necessary because everything that I give to my friends that is for their benefits. I think all my feedback was to help them improve their essays. I believe they would not feel offended with my comments. (Rachel, interview)

As long as I think it is necessary, I will give feedback on my peers’ drafts. Because I believe that my friends know that I had no intention to insult or offend them. (Sherlock, interview)

Although Indonesians belong to a collectivist society which practices face-saving strategies to maintain cohesion and group harmony among the group members, students’ mutual understanding of the written feedback purpose in this study seemed successful to prevent them practicing those strategies which may not work toward the fulfillment of the purpose.

Another speculation to explain the contrast findings is that the nature of interactions between students in Carson and Nelson’s (1996) study was different from that in this study. In the former, students provided feedback through discussions in groups of three or four consisting of speakers of different mother tongues. In the latter, students worked in pairs or groups to provide written feedback on drafts. This means that students in this study did not involve in face-to-face interactions where the feedback
provider would look at the face of the writer when giving suggestions or criticism.
Furthermore, face-to-face interactions would also allow the feedback provider to read the
feedback receiver’s emotions through verbal and nonverbal cues, such as facial
expression, which perhaps could be a factor that made students of collectivist society
practice face-saving strategies in peer feedback to maintain group harmony. Thus, the
nature of interactions in this study might make it easier for students to be as honest as
possible when providing feedback.
CHAPTER 6
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This final chapter presents a summary of the study, closing thoughts from me as the teacher/researcher, implications of the study, and recommendations for future studies. The first part of the chapter presents the summary of the research findings and the discussion. The research findings are presented based on the order of the questions addressed. The second part contains my reflections of what I experienced during the study. I share any concerns and surprises I encountered and what I perceived as the benefits in conducting this study. Based on the research findings, the implications of this research are discussed in the third part. To end the chapter, recommendation and suggestions for further study are offered.

Summary

This study provided descriptive information on Indonesian students’ perceptions of different aspects of written feedback in second language writing. The following are the conclusion of the findings and analysis:

1. Students wanted to receive written feedback in the form of direct correction. Specifically, they wanted their peers and teacher to indicate, correct, and categorize their errors or to indicate and correct them. However, when the feedback providers did not correct their errors, they wanted them to be located and categorized. Regarding the preference of written feedback focus, the students favored teacher feedback to focus on global issues while peer feedback on local issues. Additional research is needed to unveil the reasons underlying students’ preference of direct feedback, however I speculate that this preference was
because my students tried to avoid inefficient written feedback or simply wanted things easier for them. Interestingly, although the results showed students’ preferences on particular focus of feedback, when reading comments provided on their drafts, the students reported to pay equal attention to each comment regardless its focus.

2. The students perceived multiple benefits of written feedback. They stated that their writing quality was improved after incorporating written feedback from teacher and peers. They also reported to have improvement of writing and other language skills as the result of taking part in the written feedback activities as feedback receivers and providers. Social interactions during the written feedback process had also helped the students develop higher order thinking skills through the implementation of critical thinking and learner autonomy. They became more critical when reading peers’ drafts so they could formulate constructive and helpful feedback to their peers. When receiving feedback, they always checked its legitimacy by consulting other resources, finding a second opinion, and examining feedback applicability before deciding to use or reject it. During the revising process, students also developed the ability to self-identify mistakes and self-revise them, which indicated that they had moved from other regulation to self-regulation. All of these are the indications of the development from current to potential level in the ZPD.

3. Students received a large amount of suggestions/corrections during the written feedback process, with the amount of peer feedback outnumbering that of teacher feedback. However, students incorporated more teacher than peer feedback in
their writings. Furthermore, despite the big amount of suggestion/correction students received during the written feedback process, the total number of self-revisions that students made during the revising process was even larger than that of the provided suggestions/corrections. The analysis of frequency count showed that they made more self-revision after peer feedback, which indicated that the exposure to peer feedback encouraged more critical thinking and learner autonomy than the exposure to teacher feedback. However, there was also a possibility that the different number of self-revisions made after peer and teacher feedback might be influenced by the time when the feedback provided. Since teacher feedback was provided almost at the end of the feedback stages, students might not have many things to revise anymore, which resulted in less self-revision.

4. The factors that might have influenced students’ decisions to incorporate or ignore/reject feedback could be categorized into three big themes. First, the factors which were related to the feedback providers. In this theme, students’ high confidence in the feedback providers and their competence in providing suggestions/corrections became the factors that influenced students to incorporate written feedback in their writings. On the contrary, students’ low confidence in the feedback providers and their incompetence seemed to be the factors why they did not incorporate written feedback in their writings. The second theme was factors related to the student writers themselves. When they perceived themselves to have limited knowledge about particular aspects of writings being commented or when the written feedback focused on the aspects that they preferred, the
student writers tended to incorporate it in their writings. Finally, factors related to the provided written feedback also influenced students’ decisions. When the legitimacy of the written feedback was confirmed, the students would incorporate it. When the written feedback was not efficient or had a low quality and negative impact on the essay, they preferred to ignore or reject it.

5. Some cultural influences still played a role in shaping students’ perceptions. However, providing students with mutual understanding of the written feedback purpose, those influences could be minimized. The students in this study valued teacher feedback more than peer feedback, which reflected a characteristic of hierarchical culture. Interestingly, power distance between teachers and students, which is characterized with the latter following every instruction by the former, did not appear to have much influence in the written feedback activities in this study. Students were not reluctant to disagree with their teacher or to claim authority as the writer who had a full control of what to include or delete in their writings. The face-saving strategy which is commonly practiced in a collectivities society seemed had little influence, as students did not hold back when criticizing peers’ drafts. This finding might be caused by the nature of the interaction during the peer feedback because students did not need to have a face-to-face communication when criticizing their peers’ work.

**Researcher Reflections**

My choice of conducting a writing course for this study was impelled by my desire to implement peer feedback and introduce a process approach in teaching English writing in my home institution. However, since this approach is not commonly practiced
in the department where I conducted my study, implementing it directly in a regular class would be difficult due to time constraint and binding curriculum. Thus, it was necessary for me to propose a review toward the current curriculum to the head of the department who is in charge in designing and adjusting it, so it can accommodate the implementation of written feedback in classroom practices, particularly in writing classes.

In this study, I played the role as a teacher-researcher with the hope that it would allow direct engagement with my participants in a manner that I believe captured their real perceptions, understandings, and experiences with written feedback. It also enabled me to examine both my own teaching and research practices and assumptions, and rethink and reformulate them in my desire to gain as much and valuable data as possible for this study.

Since it is the trend in educational research in Indonesia to have high percentage of participant involvement, it was my expectation to get a large number of potential participants who would show interest in this study. When deciding to select only 14 participants out of 109 candidates, my only consideration was to have a class with a manageable size so the written feedback could be done effectively within the allocated time. I anticipated participant’s withdrawal as what happened by the midpoint of the writing course, but I did not predict that I could not use all the data from the actively participating students due to the delays in task submission.

Prior to starting the study, I had some concerns related to participants’ commitment in attending all meetings and completing their tasks. However, it came as a big surprise to me the extent to which my students showed their strong commitments as the participants in this study while enjoying all class activities and assignments. I often
read in their reflective journals how they felt thankful to be given the opportunity to join this class and to gain new experiences in receiving and providing written feedback on written drafts. I could also observe their excitement in every class meeting, which most of the time was extended up to half an hour because they still had many questions to discuss. In addition, the students requested me to give them more essay prompts to write and add more meetings so they could practice their writing skill as well as feedback provision skill more.

Teaching a writing course for this study has provided me with invaluable lessons. For example, I learned from this research that peer feedback training is a very important part of the whole written feedback session, if teachers want to maximize its effect. Furthermore, the training should provide students with sufficient theoretical as well as practical knowledge so they could offer constructive feedback on peers’ drafts. Overall, this research journey has left me more knowledgeable about practical issues related to written feedback implementation, and better equipped to handle the challenges I will face in the future when implementing it as my teaching practice.

Implication

The results of this study have several implications.

1. Since Vygotsky focused his research on the processes of children’s development of psychical functions from birth to adolescence, this study may contribute to the Vygotskyan theoretical framework of sociocultural theory as it illustrates a more expanded understanding of Vygotsky’s concept of ZPD, particularly in relation to adult EFL learners. This study also shows how the essence of Vygotskyan concept of higher psychical processes within the ZPD through the three stages of
intellectual imitation, conscious awareness, and self-regulation was applied to adult EFL learners’ thinking process during the written feedback activities.

2. This study provided evidence that (a) Indonesian students wanted to receive direct feedback with the provision of correction to their errors, however, it should also be noted that indirect feedback was also welcome with the provision of clear information of what and where the errors were; and (b) Indonesian preferred different focuses of written feedback from peers and teacher. These findings can be used to inform ESL/EFL writing teachers who would like to incorporate written feedback in their teaching practice to put students’ preferences into consideration if they want to maximize its benefits.

3. The finding showing the participants in this study made more self-revisions after peer feedback than teacher feedback may encourage teachers and researchers in the ESL/EFL field to implement peer feedback as an adjunct to teacher feedback. Furthermore, since the exposure to peer feedback seems more effective to encourage critical thinking and learner autonomy, the provision of peer feedback before teacher feedback may be a good option.

4. One of the challenges in providing feedback for the students in this study was not knowing what to say or comment on, thus, it is necessary for the teachers to provide students with sufficient training prior to the implementation of peer feedback in their classes. In Indonesian EFL context, a formal class setting typically has a large number of students, a peer feedback training with the students working in groups perhaps more suitable than working in pairs as it will
give them more opportunity to receive more feedback on their writings and to practice their skills in providing feedback on peers’ drafts.

5. With some adjustment to accommodate the different contexts of where it is implemented, teachers who would like to incorporate peer feedback in their teaching practice could make use the ALA protocol to introduce the students with the concept of peer feedback. This protocol could also be used to provide students with a fundamental understanding of the purpose of peer feedback, so it could minimize negative influences of cultural issues.

6. The result of this study showed that written feedback helped students extend their ZPDs. Thus, it is encouraged that written feedback be implemented not only in writing classes but also in other English language skill classes. Furthermore, the results of this study also indicates that written feedback helps develop students’ higher order thinking skills, which is also one of the purposes of higher education, English Education programs and other social science programs might consider encouraging faculty members to incorporate written feedback in their teaching practices.

7. This study might lead to similar research studies that may collectively provide a more extensive framework for understanding ESL/EFL students’ perceptions of feedback in second language writing.

**Areas for Further Research**

I have learned many important lessons in conducting this research study, and I believe that this research has much to contribute to the literature. However, I am also aware that there are several limitations to this study. Thus, several research studies could
be conducted to further explore the topics under investigation. Some of the suggestions are provided below.

1. This study was conducted in a non-formal college-level writing class, with a limited number of participants. A similar study in formal classes in the same institutions with a larger size of participants could be conducted to increase the generalizability of the results.

2. This study was conducted in the English Education department in an institution, so the results cannot be generalized to other institutional contexts. Therefore, this research could be duplicated in different instructional contexts to see if they come up with similar or different findings.

3. Students in this study had no previous experience with peer feedback in writing classes and received only a 2-hour training of providing feedback peers’ drafts. Further studies involving a longer training of peer feedback might yield different findings.

4. Although students in this study were given the freedom to choose what language they wanted to use (Indonesian, English, or the combination of both languages) during the written feedback activities, the writing of reflective journals, the completion of the written feedback surveys, and the face-to-face interview, this study did not investigate how students’ preferences of language used impact the written feedback activities. Thus, a study focusing in this topic will also be interesting to conduct.

5. It might be interesting to investigate students’ perceptions of the combination of written and oral feedback in second language writing.
6. The reasons underlying Indonesian students’ preferences of the form and the focus of written feedback can be investigated.

7. Although this study only focused on students’ perceptions of written feedback, there is an indication of improvement of students’ writings after written feedback activities. Thus, quality improvement of students’ writings can be the focus of future research.

8. The reasons why some cultural issues influence or not influence students’ perceptions of written feedback could also be further investigated.

9. The findings related to the benefits of written feedback are based on self-report data from students. They, however, may not accurately reflect the real condition. Thus, studies that compare students’ opinions about the usefulness of written feedback with their actual performance could be helpful.
Appendix A

Demographic Survey

1. Name:
2. Age: _____ years _____ months
3. Gender:
4. Semester:
5. Native language:
6. Please self-evaluate your English skills on the five scales.

| 1 (very low) | 2 (low) | 3 (average) | 4 (high) | 5 (very high) |

7. Please self-evaluate your English writing skill on the five scales.

| 1 (very low) | 2 (low) | 3 (average) | 4 (high) | 5 (very high) |

8. If you have taken any English proficiency test before, please fill in the score.
   - TOEFL ITP (   )
   - TOEFL iBT (   )
   - IELTS (   )
   - TOEIC (   )
   - Other English Test (please specify):_________ (   )

9. Do you have experience with peer feedback activities? If yes, what is your opinion about it? (answer overleaf)

10. What is your opinion about teacher feedback on your paper? (answer overleaf)
Appendix B

Written Feedback Survey

Directions: This survey is being conducted in an effort to find out students’ perceptions of written feedback in second language writing. Please respond to all questions. There are no right or wrong answers to these questions. You should draw on your own experience and feel free to write your honest opinions.

Part I: Peer Feedback

1. When responding to your paper, your peer should always (please range your answer from the most preferable (1) to the least one (6):

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<tr>
<td>a.</td>
<td>Point out errors in grammar (verb tenses, subject/verb agreement, article use, etc)</td>
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<tr>
<td>b.</td>
<td>Point out errors in spelling and punctuation</td>
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<tr>
<td>c.</td>
<td>Point out errors in vocabulary choice</td>
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<tr>
<td>d.</td>
<td>Make comments on the organization of the paper</td>
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<tr>
<td>e.</td>
<td>Make comments on the writing style (the way you express your thought and arguments)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f.</td>
<td>Make comments on the ideas expressed in your paper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h.</td>
<td>Other (please specify):</td>
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2. How do you want your peer to indicate an error in your paper (you may choose more than one answer)?

   a. By indicating (underline/circle) the error and correcting it
   b. By indicating the error, correcting and categorizing it (with the help of a marking code)
   c. By indicating errors, but not correcting them.
   d. By indicating errors, categorizing, but not correcting them
   e. By hinting at the location of errors – e.g. by putting a mark in the margin to indicate an error on a specific line.
   f. By hinting the location of errors and categorizing them – e.g. by writing ‘Prep’ in the margin to indicate a preposition error on a specific line.
   g. Other (please specify): |

3. How do you look at your peer marks/comments on your paper?

   a. You read every one carefully
   b. You look at some marks/comments more carefully than at others.
   c. You mainly pay attention to comments on the ideas expressed in the paper.
   d. Other (please specify): |

4. If you look at some of marks/comments your peer makes on your paper, which ones do you consider most important to look at?

   a. Mark indicating errors in grammar
   b. Marks indicating errors in vocabulary choice
c. Marks indicating errors in spelling and/or punctuation  
d. Comments on the ideas/content  
e. Comments on the writing style  
f. Comments on the organization of the paper  
g. Other (please specify):  

5. How much of peer feedback do you use in your revised draft? Why?  

6. What are some of the things that you like most regarding feedback you have received from your peer?  

7. What are some of the things that you like least regarding feedback you have received from your peer?  

8. What is the biggest concern you have regarding feedback you have received from your peer so far? Why?  

9. Do you have any additional comments pertaining to peer feedback you wish to make?  

**Part II: Teacher Feedback**  
1. When responding to your paper, your teacher should always (please range your answer from the most preferable (1) to the least one (6):  

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<td>b.</td>
<td>Point out errors in spelling and punctuation</td>
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<td>c.</td>
<td>Point out errors in vocabulary choice</td>
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<td>d.</td>
<td>Make comments on the organization of the paper</td>
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<td>e.</td>
<td>Make comments on the writing style (the way you express your thoughts and arguments)</td>
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<tr>
<td>f.</td>
<td>Make comments on the ideas expressed in your paper</td>
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<tr>
<td>h.</td>
<td>Other (please specify):</td>
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</table>

2. How do you want your teacher to indicate an error in your paper (you may choose more than one answer)?  

a. By indicating (underline/circle) the error and correcting it  
b. By indicating the error, correcting and categorizing it (with the help of a marking code)  
c. By indicating errors, but not correcting them.  
d. By indicating errors, categorizing, but not correcting them  
e. By hinting at the location of errors – e.g. by putting a mark in the margin to indicate an error on a specific line.  
f. By hinting the location of errors and categorizing them – e.g. by writing ‘Prep’ in the margin to indicate a preposition error on a specific line.  
g. Other (please specify):  

3. How do you look at your teacher marks/comments on your paper?
e. You read every one carefully
   a. You look at some marks/comments more carefully than at others.
   b. You mainly pay attention to comments on the ideas expressed in the paper.
   c. Other (please specify):

4. If you look at some marks/comments you teacher makes on your paper, which ones do you consider most important to look at?
   h. Mark indicating errors in grammar
   a. Marks indicating errors in vocabulary choice
   b. Marks indicating errors in spelling and/or punctuation
   c. Comments on the ideas/content
   d. Comments on the writing style
   e. Comments on the organization of the paper
   f. Other (please specify):

5. How much of teacher feedback do you use in your revised draft? Why?

6. What are some of the things that you like most regarding feedback you have received from your teacher?

7. What are some of the things that you like least regarding feedback you have received from your teacher?

8. What is the biggest concern you have regarding feedback you have received from your teacher so far? Why?

9. Do you have any additional comments pertaining to teacher feedback you wish to make?
Appendix C

Reflective Journal Prompt

Please write about your experience with the written feedback you have had in this study. You may use the following prompts to give you ideas of what you want to write in your reflective journal.

- What do you think of the comments provided by your peer?
- What do you think of the comments provided by your teacher?
- How do you use the feedback that you receive when revising your writing?
- Do you have any consideration of the feedback provider when using their feedback in your writing? Why?
- Is there any improvement in your writing skill as the result of the written feedback? Explain.
- What parts of the feedback that help you improve your writing skill?
Appendix D

Essay Prompt

1. Agree and Disagree essay:
   - Do you agree or disagree with the following statement? **Only** people who earn a lot of money are successful. Use specific reasons and examples to support your answer.
   - Do you agree or disagree with the following statement? Parents are the best teachers. Use specific reasons and examples to support your answer.
   - Do you agree or disagree with the following statement? Sometimes it is better not to tell the truth. Use specific reasons and details to support your answer.

2. Comparison and Contrast essay:
   - When people move to another country, some of them decide to follow the customs of the new country. Others prefer to keep their own customs. Compare these two choices. Which one do you prefer? Support your answer with specific details.
   - Some people think that children should begin their formal education at a very early age and should spend most of their time on school studies. Others believe that young children should spend most of their time playing. Compare these two views. Which view do you agree with? Explain why.
   - Some people trust their first impressions about a person’s character because they believe these judgments are generally correct. Other people do not judge a person’s character quickly because they believe first impressions are often wrong. Compare these two attitudes. Which attitude do you agree with? Support your choice with specific examples.
Appendix E

Peer Feedback Guideline

The purposes of peer review are 1) to help improve your classmate's paper by pointing out strengths and weaknesses that may not be apparent to the author and, 2) to help improve editing skills. For these purposes, you need to focus on answering the following questions as thoroughly as possible. You may write your answers on a separate sheet of paper or write marginal comments on your peer paper. You may answer the questions in English or in Indonesian.

A. Review on global issues

1. Can you easily identify the theme/topic of the composition? Describe it briefly, and suggest ways in which this can be improved.

2. Can you easily identify the point of view your partner selected? Describe it and give an example of what helped you identify it.

3. Is there anything that your partner can add to make the composition better? Give examples.

4. Is there anything that your partner could delete to make the composition better? Give examples.

5. Are the paragraphs well organized, including the use of transition words? What can your partner do to improve this?

6. Does the composition have a clearly defined introduction? What can your partner do to improve it?

7. Does the composition have a clearly defined conclusion? What can your partner do to improve it?

8. Do the ideas in the composition flow and are they well-developed? What can your partner do to improve this?

B. Review on local issue

9. Have you identified any salient punctuation mistakes? Mark them on your partner’s essay and provide suggestions on how to correct them.

10. Have you identified any salient, recurring grammar mistakes? Mark a few examples on your partner’s composition and provide suggestions on how to correct them.

11. Have you identified any salient vocabulary mistakes? Mark a few examples on your partner’s composition and provide suggestions on how to correct them.

12. Have you identified any salient sentence structure mistakes? Mark a few examples on your partner’s composition and provide suggestions on how to correct them.
Appendix F

Agree & Disagree Essay Sample 1

Question:
Do you agree or disagree with the following statement?
Always telling the truth is the most important consideration in any relationship
Use specific reasons and examples to support your answer.

Response:

Some people believe that it is one of the most important value in many relationships to tell the truth all the time. However, it cannot be always the best choice to tell the truth in many situations. Sometimes white lies are indispensable to keep relationships more lively and delightfully. There are some examples to support this idea.

Firstly, in the relationships between lovers, it is often essential to compliment their lovers on their appearance and their behavior. Even though they do not think that their boyfriend or girlfriend looks good on their new shoes and new clothes, it will probably diss them by telling the truth. On the other hand, little compliments will make them confident and happy making their relationship more tight.

Secondly, parents need to encourage their children by telling lies. Even if they are doing bad work on studying or exercising, telling the truth will hurt their hearts. Hat they need is a little encouraging words instead of truthful words.

Thirdly, for some patients telling them their current state of their disease will probably desperate them. It is accepted publically not to let the patients know the truth. They may be able to have hope to overcome their disease without knowing the truth.

In conclusion, it is not always better to tell the truth than lies. Some lies are acceptable in terms of making people’s life more profusely. Not everybody has to know the truth, and it will lead them more happier not knowing it. In these cases, white lies are worth to be regarded as a virtue of people’s relationships.
Appendix G

Agree & Disagree Essay Sample 2

Question:

Do you agree or disagree with the following statement?

Playing games is important for adults

Use specific reasons and examples to support your answer.

Response:

Yes, I'm quite agree with this statement because games are not only for kids or teen ages, but also for adult people. There are some reasons to support my argument.

First, because adults are taking the highest pressure of peoples in all ages, the pressure may come from their jobs, their families and their children...etc, so they need leisure activities to release the pressure badly. There are many kinds of games which is prefered by peoples of different ages. For example, the computer games, nowadays, the game producer are more and more concern about making good games for adults. Though this maybe due to the reason that the adults are main consumption resources, it's a obvious evidence which showes that adults can play games and they need to play games.

Second, its functions is not for just fun, good games can always make people to think or learn some thing. For example, playing cards will require players having a good memory and a clear mind. In order to win, you need to remember certain sequence of cards and calculate your chance to win. So by playing cards, you also practise your memory and calculation abilities.

Therefore, playing game is also important for adults, not only to release their pressure, but also help them to develop certain abilities which will also be useful in their career.
Appendix H

Unstructured Interview Questions

1. What do you mean by this (referring to parts of students’ statements in written feedback survey and/or reflective journal)?

2. Why did you say this?

3. Could you explain more about this statement?

4. What do you think of teacher and peer feedback?

5. What are your considerations to incorporate or not incorporate feedback in your revisions?

6. What are your considerations when providing feedback to your peer?

7. Please give your comment about the whole written feedback process you had in our writing class.
Appendix I

Consent Form

Indonesian Students’ Perceptions of Written Feedback in Second Language Writing
Consent to Participate in Research
January 1, 2017

Purpose of the study: You are being asked to participate in a research study that is being done by Dr. Holbrook Mahn, the Principal Investigator and Ms. Rahmah Fithriani, a doctoral student, from the Department of Language, Literacy, and Sociocultural Studies. The purpose of this study is to investigate students’ perceptions of written feedback in second language writing classrooms to help them become aware of their preferences and practice in English writing for their classes. You are being asked to take part in this study because you are a 5th or 6th semester student enrolled in the Department of English Education, the State Islamic University of North Sumatra, Indonesia and 18 years or older.

This form will explain what to expect when joining the research, as well as the possible risks and benefits of participation. If you have any questions, please ask one of the study researchers.

What you will do in the study: You will be asked to attend an after-class writing course that will take place twice a week and will consist of nine meetings in total, with a meeting lasting for an hour and a half. During this course, you will be asked to complete the following:

- Peer feedback training: You will take a 45-minute training session on reviewing their peers’ writing. Through a whole class session, you will learn how to suggest improvements on samples of writing in the two types of argumentative essay during this training. You will also be provided a list of questions to help you with the review.
- Written feedback questionnaire: You will be asked to fill out a questionnaire related to your preferences and beliefs about written feedback in L2 writing twice during this study (in meetings 5 and 9). You will be given 45 minutes to complete each questionnaire. The questionnaire consists of close-ended and open-ended questions with a total number of 18 questions.
- Reflective journal: During this study, you will be asked to write a reflective journal for about 15-20 minutes at the end of every written feedback session. You will write in a total of six reflective journals by the end of the study. In writing your reflective journals, you will respond to prompt questions. You can write your reflective journal in Indonesian, English, or the combination of both languages.
- Writing draft: You will need to write two argumentative essays; agree & disagree and comparison & contrast during this study. You will be provided the essay prompt which consists of three possible topics from which to
choose. For each type of essay, you will produce four drafts, with the total of eight drafts by the end of the study.

- **Face-to-face interview**: seven or eight students in this study will be selected to a 45-minute interview with Ms. Fithriani. The interview will be recorded by an audio recorded and will be transcribed. You may skip any question that makes you uncomfortable and stop it at any time.

Participation in this study will take a total of 14 – 15 hours over the period of the writing course and the interview.

**Risks:** There is a minimal risk in participating in this study. Participants may feel stressed and intimidated in reflecting and discussing their class assignments with the researcher. There is also a risk of loss of privacy and confidentiality associated with participating in this research study.

**Benefits:** The benefits of participating in this study are the following:

- **Individual**: Participants may have a chance to develop their writing skills and practice giving and receiving feedback on writing drafts. They may also have the opportunity to reflect on their learning process. This helps them be more aware of their writing strategies, they use in accomplishing the writing tasks. They may also be aware of their preferences in developing their writing skills.

- **Scholarship**: By participating in this study, the researchers may gain more understanding on students’ perceptions of written feedback and their role in L2 writing classroom. The study may make contribution to the composition studies and teacher education scholarships.

**Confidentiality of your information:** The confidentiality procedures will be as followed:

- All personal information found in all data will be removed and replaced with pseudonyms.

- **Written data**: Personal information will be erased from the written documents by the researcher. Pseudonyms will be provided to each participant. The written data will be kept in a locked file cabinet in Ms. Fithriani’s office.

- **Face-to-face interview data**: The face-to-face interview audio files will be accessed by Ms. Fithriani. The audio files will be transported with the password protected USB device.

- **Interview transcription**: The face-to-face interview data will be transcribed by Ms. Fithriani. During the transcribing process, personal data will be replaced with pseudonyms. After the transcription, the audio file will be erased from the computer. The transcription file will be saved in the password-protected folder in Ms. Fithriani’s laptop.

We will take measures to protect the security of all your personal information, but we cannot guarantee confidentiality of all study data. The University of New Mexico
Institutional Review Board (IRB) that oversees human subject research may be permitted to access your records. Your name will not be used in any published reports about this study.

**Payment:** You will not be paid for participating in this study.

**Right to withdraw from the study:** Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You have the right to choose not to participate or to withdraw your participation at any point in this study without penalty. Should you decide to withdraw at any point in this study, all your data will be eliminated and there are no penalties.

If you have any questions, concerns, or complaints about the research study, please contact:
Rahmah Fithriani, Department of Language, Literacy, and Sociocultural Studies, 1 University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, NM 87131. (505) 484-0270.
rfithriani@unm.edu.

If you would like to speak with someone other than the research team to obtain information or offer input or if you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, please contact the IRB. The IRB is a group of people from UNM and the community who provide independent oversight of safety and ethical issues related to research involving people:

UNM Office of the IRB, (505) 277-2644, irbmaincampus@unm.edu. Website: http://irb.unm.edu/
CONSENT

You are making a decision whether to participate in this study. Your signature below indicates that you have read this form (or the form was read to you) and that all questions have been answered to your satisfaction. By signing this consent form, you are not waiving any of your legal rights as a research participant. A copy of this consent form will be provided to you.

I agree to participate in this study.

Name of Adult Participant       Signature of Adult Participant       Date

Researcher Signature (to be completed at time of informed consent)

I have explained the research to the participant and answered all of his/her questions. I believe that he/she understands the information described in this consent form and freely consents to participate.

Name of Research Team Member       Signature of Research Team Member       Date
Appendix J

Approval from the UNM OIRB

UNM Office of the Institutional Review Board

DATE: January 24, 2017
REFERENCE #: 00317
PROJECT ID & TITLE: [1008830-1] Indonesian Students' Perceptions of Written Feedback in Second Language Writing
PL OF RECORD: Holbrook Mahn, Ph.D
SUBMISSION TYPE: New Project
BOARD DECISION: DETERMINATION OF EXEMPT
EFFECTIVE DATE: January 23, 2017
REVIEW CATEGORY: Exempt category 1 & 2

DOCUMENTS:
• Advertisement - Recruitment Script (UPDATED: 01/12/2017)
• Application Form - Project Information Form (UPDATED: 01/12/2017)
• Consent Form - Consent Demographic Survey (UPDATED: 01/19/2017)
• Consent Form - Consent Form (UPDATED: 01/12/2017)
• Letter - Los Islamic University of N. Sumatra, Indonesia (UPDATED: 01/5/2017)
• Other - Project Team Form (UPDATED: 01/5/2017)
• Other - Departmental Review (UPDATED: 01/5/2017)
• Protocol - Protocol (UPDATED: 01/19/2017)
• Questionnaire/Survey - Demographic Survey (UPDATED: 01/11/2017)
• Questionnaire/Survey - Instruments (UPDATED: 01/12/2017)
• Training/Certification - CITI Fithriani (UPDATED: 01/17/2017)

Thank you for your New Project submission. The UNM IRB has determined that this project is EXEMPT from IRB oversight according to federal regulations. Because it has been granted exemption, this research project is not subject to continuing review. It is the responsibility of the researcher(s) to conduct this project in an ethical manner.

- Informed Consent is required and documentation is required and waived for the demographic survey portion of the study. Use only approved consent document(s).

This determination applies only to the activities described in the submission and does not apply should any changes be made to this project. If changes are being considered, it is the responsibility of the Principal Investigator to submit an amendment to this project for IRB review and receive IRB approval prior to implementing the changes. A change in the research may disqualify this research from the current review category.

The Office of the IRB can be contacted through: mail at MSC02 1685, 1 University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, NM 87131-0001; phone at 505.277.2644; email at irbmaincampus@unm.edu; or in-person at 1805 Sigma Chi Rd. NE, Albuquerque, NM 87106. You can also visit the OIRB website at irb.unm.edu.

Sincerely,

[Signature]
J. Scott Tonigan, PhD
UNM IRB Chair
## Appendix K

### Results of Frequency Count Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATION</th>
<th>PEER FEEDBACK</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>TEACHER FEEDBACK</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<td></td>
<td>Participant</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P.1 P.2 P.3 P.4 P.5 P.6 P.7</td>
<td></td>
<td>P.1 P.2 P.3 P.4 P.5 P.6 P.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By indicating (underline/circle) the error and correcting it</td>
<td>√ √</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>√ √ √ √</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By indicating the error, correcting and categorizing it (with the help of a marking code)</td>
<td>√ √ √ √</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>√ √ √ √ √∩</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>By indicating errors, but not correcting them.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>By indicating errors, categorizing, but not correcting them</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>By hinting at the location of errors - e.g. by putting a mark in the margin to indicate an error on a specific line.</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>By hinting the location of errors and categorizing them - e.g. by writing 'Prep' in the margin to indicate a preposition error on a specific line.</td>
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Table 8. Preference of error indication in essay 1
### Table 9. Preference of error indication in essay 2

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<td>P.2</td>
<td>P.3</td>
<td>P.4</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>By hinting at the location of errors - e.g. by putting a mark in the margin to indicate an error on a specific line.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>By hinting the location of errors and categorizing them - e.g. by writing 'Prep' in the margin to indicate a preposition error on a specific line.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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INDONESIAN STUDENTS’ PERCEPTIONS OF WRITTEN FEEDBACK IN SLW

Note: 1 = most preferable…6 = least preferable

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<tr>
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<th>TEACHER FEEDBACK</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<td>Participant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P.1</td>
<td>P.2</td>
<td>P.3</td>
<td>P.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point out errors in grammar (v tenses, subject/verb agreement, article use, etc)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Point out errors in spelling and punctuation</td>
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<td>Point out errors in vocabulary choice</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Make comments on the organization of the paper</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Make comments on the writing style (the way you express your thought and arguments)</td>
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<td>Make comments on the ideas expressed in your paper</td>
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Table 10. Preference of response focus in essay 1
Note: 1 = most preferable...6 = least preferable

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<th>TEACHER FEEDBACK</th>
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<td>P.1</td>
<td>P.2</td>
<td>P.3</td>
<td>P.4</td>
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<td>Point out errors in grammar (v tenses, subject/verb agreement, article use, etc)</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td>Point out errors in spelling and punctuation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Point out errors in vocabulary choice</td>
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Table 11. Preference of response focus in essay 2
### Table 12. Consideration of mark/comment importance in essay 1

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<th>CONSIDERATION</th>
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<tr>
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<td>Mark indicating errors in grammar</td>
<td>P.1 P.2 P.3 P.4 P.5 P.6 P.7</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marks indicating errors in vocabulary choice</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marks indicating errors in spelling and/or punctuation</td>
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<td>Comments on the writing style</td>
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### Table 13. Consideration of mark/comment importance in essay 2

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<tr>
<td>Marks indicating errors in vocabulary choice</td>
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<td>Comments on the ideas/content</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comments on the writing style</td>
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### Table 14. Focus when reading marks/comments in essay 1

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<th>TEACHER FEEDBACK</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<tr>
<td>You read every one carefully</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you look at some marks/comments more carefully than at others</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you mainly pay attention to comments on the ideas expressed in the paper.</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>-</td>
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</table>

### Table 15. Focus when reading marks/comments in essay 2

<table>
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<tr>
<th>FOCUS</th>
<th>PEER FEEDBACK</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>TEACHER FEEDBACK</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<td>You read every one carefully</td>
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<td>√</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>you look at some marks/comments more carefully than at others</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you mainly pay attention to comments on the ideas expressed in the paper.</td>
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### Table 16. The numbers of feedback received, used, and self-revision in essay 1

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<tr>
<th>PARTICIPANT</th>
<th>FOCUS OF WRITTEN FEEDBACK</th>
<th>GLOCAL ISSUES</th>
<th>LOCAL ISSUES</th>
<th>LOCAL ISSUES</th>
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<td>Teacher Feedback</td>
<td>Self-Revision</td>
<td>Peer Feedback</td>
<td>Teacher Feedback</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Received</td>
<td>Used</td>
<td>Received</td>
<td>Used</td>
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<td>Dibala (P.2)</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roy (P.6)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sherlock (P.7)</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>6</td>
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### Table 17. The numbers of feedback received, used, and self-revision in essay 2

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<th>PARTICIPANT</th>
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<th>LOCAL ISSUES</th>
<th>LOCAL ISSUES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>Peer Feedback</td>
<td>Teacher Feedback</td>
<td>Self-Revision</td>
<td>Peer Feedback</td>
<td>Teacher Feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Received</td>
<td>Used</td>
<td>Received</td>
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<td>9</td>
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<td>Dibala (P.2)</td>
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<td>Mr. Potter (P.3)</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>Princess (P.4)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>Rachel (P.5)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<td>Roy (P.6)</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sherlock (P.7)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
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</table>
Appendix L

Results of Thematic Content Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overarching Theme</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Subcategory</th>
<th>Descriptor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Generate Improvement</td>
<td>Essay Improvement</td>
<td>Improvement in some aspects of writing</td>
<td>• Idea development/expression improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Introduction and/or conclusion improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Cohesion and coherence improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Paragraph organization improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Punctuation and spelling improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Transition improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Enriched vocabulary used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Less grammar mistakes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Stronger argument to support ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Clearer meaning expressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Improvement of overall writing</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Better final product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>quality</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Better revised drafts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Improved writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill improvement</td>
<td>Improvement of English writing</td>
<td>• Improvement in idea development</td>
<td>• Improvement in paragraph organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>skills</td>
<td>• Improvement in paragraph organization</td>
<td>• Improvement in sentence structures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Improvement in Style &amp; voice development</td>
<td>• Improvement in vocabulary usage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Improvement in presenting stronger argument</td>
<td>• Improvement in meaning-making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Improvement in writing coherence</td>
<td>• Improved reader awareness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 18. The analysis of perceived benefits of written feedback
| Improvement of other English language skills | • Grammar proficiency  
• Vocabulary enrichment  
• Critical reader/reading skill  
• Feedback providing skill |
|---|---|
| Encourage critical reasoning | Consulting other resources | • Books  
• Online resources (journal articles, websites, handouts from online courses, Wikipedia)  
• Dictionary  
• Class notes |
| Finding a second opinion | | • Other classmates’ opinions  
• Class instructor’s opinion  
• Other teachers’ opinions |
| Examining feedback applicability | | • Feasibility  
• Logicality  
• Flow with the essay  
• Meaning making |
| Promote Learner Autonomy | Self-identification | Self-identification of mistakes  
• Grammatical mistakes  
• Wrong usage of vocabulary  
• Wrong spelling and punctuation  
• Redundancy  
• Unclear meaning |

Table 18. (Continued)
| Self-identification of weaknesses | • Weak in grammar  
| • Limited vocabulary  
| • Careless writer  
| • No/little knowledge about global issues of writing |
| Self-revision | • Deletions to improve composition  
| • Additions to improve composition  
| • Rewriting sentences to improve composition |

Table 18. (Continued)
## Table 19. The analysis of influencing factors in incorporating written feedback

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overarching Theme</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Descriptor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Feedback provider-related factors | High confidence in Feedback Provider (FP)   | • Believe in FP’s expertise  
• Trust FP’s corrections  
• Feeling sure of FP’s capability  
• Believe FP’s suggestions are correct  
• Think FP’s feedback is really helpful |
| Feedback Provider’s Competence | Feedback Provider’s Competence  | • Better knowledge  
• More professional  
• Experienced feedback provider  
• High proficiency in overall English language skills |
| Feedback receiver-related factors | Feedback Receiver’s Limited Knowledge   | • Sometimes make mistakes  
• Weak in grammar  
• Have limited vocabulary  
• Need suggestion in developing main idea  
• Need suggestion in paragraph organization |
| Feedback receiver-related factors | Feedback Receiver’s preference of feedback focus | • Like feedback about grammar  
• Like feedback about grammar & idea  
• Hope feedback on idea development and organization  
• Expect suggestions on diction choice |
| Written feedback-related factor | Confirmed legitimacy of written feedback   | • In accordance with other sources such as text book and dictionary  
• Approved by other party (classmates or teachers)  
• Consistent with writer’s background knowledge |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overarching Theme</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Descriptor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Feedback provider-related factors| Low confidence in feedback provider | • Distrust FP’s corrections  
• Doubt FP’s capability  
• Think FP has little/less knowledge to provide feedback on certain topics  
• I’m not sure about peer feedback |
|                                 | Feedback provider’s Incompetence | • Limited Knowledge on particular aspects of writing  
• Equal Capability  
• Inexperienced feedback provider  
• Fellow learners  
• Low proficiency in overall English language skills |
| Written feedback-related factors | Low quality of written feedback | • Corrections are wrong  
• Comments are not good enough  
• Disagree with comments |
|                                 | Inefficiency of Written Feedback | • Confusing  
• Unclear  
• Not understandable  
• Not feasible and applicable  
• Not specified |
|                                 | Negative impact on essay        | • Change the intended meaning  
• Change writing style and voice  
• Interfere ownership  
• Intrusive to overall writing |

Table 20. The analysis of influencing factors in not incorporating written feedback
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overarching Theme</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Sub-category</th>
<th>Descriptor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Value teacher feedback more than peer feedback | Confidence in feedback provider | High confidence in teacher feedback | • Trust teacher as the source of knowledge  
• Confidence in teacher’s capability in providing feedback  
• Believe TF made essay much better  
• Think that TF is more accurate than PF  
• Think that TF is good in all aspects  
• Teacher feedback is more trustworthy  
• Teacher feedback is more accurate  
• Teacher feedback is more qualified  
• Teacher is always smarter than students  
• Teacher is more expert  
• Teacher has more experience |
|                    | Low confidence in peer feedback | | • Distrust of the quality of peer feedback  
• Doubt peers’ capability in providing corrections  
• Uncertain about the correctness of peers’ comments  
• Have better knowledge than peer  
• See peers as fellow learners  
• Peer has no or little experience |
| Confirmation of written feedback usefulness | Absolute confirmation of teacher feedback usefulness | | • TF is really helpful  
• TF is really good  
• TF is definitely useful  
• TF is totally useful  
• TF really helped improve writing quality |

Table 21. The analysis of cultural influences in shaping students’ perceptions
Reserved confirmation of PF usefulness

- PF is basically good
- Peers’ comments are good enough
- Some comments can be useful
- Corrections are sometimes right
- PF made essay better
- Think PF is less useful

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of feedback incorporation</th>
<th>High percentage of TF incorporation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use about 80% to 100% of teacher feedback in revision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Receive all revision from teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Revise the drafts using most of TF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low percentage of PF incorporation</th>
<th>Use about 50% or less of PF in revision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Claim authority as feedback providers and receivers

As feedback receivers: eagerness to disagree with comments

- Don’t think the comments are correct
- The original draft is better
- Dissatisfied with the feedback provided
- Reject feedback that changed the intended meaning
- Ignore feedback if interfering with writer’s voice and style
- Ignore feedback that did not make essay better

As feedback providers: eagerness to criticize drafts

- Provide as much feedback as necessary
- Give feedback based on one’s understanding
- Give feedback to help improve peer’s essay
- No holding back when giving criticism
- Believe that the writers will not be offended with the feedback provided

Table 21. (Continued)
INDONESIAN STUDENTS’ PERCEPTIONS OF WRITTEN FEEDBACK IN SLW

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