Karya Ilmiah

TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN INDONESIA

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. The Background of the Study

This study is concerned with investigating effective ways to help students develop critical capacities in learning to write academic English at the tertiary level in Indonesia. Indonesia has had a long commitment to teaching English at all levels of education and there are many reasons why Indonesia needs to develop effective programs for the teaching of English. Some of these reasons are to do with the status of English in the modern world and its significance for trade and commerce, economic development, tourism and intergovernmental communications of many kinds, and the role of English in a great deal of scholarship and research in areas as broad as science and technology. Apart from these matters, as will be discussed in Section 1.5, since the commencement of the Reform era, which started with the retirement of President Soeharto on May 21st, 1998, increasing the general levels of performance in English is now seen as an important part of building a much more critical and independent community of people in Indonesia. The development of a critical capacity in the workforce at all levels is now seen as of great national importance, and the teaching of writing in both

English and Indonesian assumes a new significance as a means by which critical capacities can be promoted.

In Section 1.2, this chapter will firstly introduce some discussion of government policies about education, including the teaching of English, and the role of English in the Indonesian national school and the university curricula. In Section 1.3 the history of the development of the English curriculum for junior (grades 7-9) and senior (grades 10-12) high schools in Indonesia will then be provided. Here, it will be shown that different approaches to the teaching of English have been advocated over some years now. However, as the discussion in Section 1.4 will reveal, the evidence suggests that despite attempts at reform, most teaching of English remains focused on traditional grammar teaching. The teachers seem to have little interest in broader questions to do with meaning in language, for example, in the teaching of discourse patterns in which critical capacities might be developed, as Hunter (2002) suggests. The teaching of English writing in particular has been neglected, and this finding confirms the general disappointing conclusion that students are poorly prepared and reluctant to undertake sustained writing tasks.

Then the discussion in Section 1.5 will turn to some consideration of the calls for the development of greater critical capacities, as well as the

urgency of the change in the centralized curriculum and application of critical pedagogy in the classroom. Interest in critical pedagogy has been mushrooming since the commencement of the Reform era. The mastery of English and the teaching of English have been considered as one effective way to promote critical capacity and cognitive development of Indonesian students. It will be suggested that the teaching of English should be made relevant to the current situation in Indonesia, leading to the development not only of language skills but also of critical thinking and critical literacy, and a higher awareness of the diversity of ways of thinking and valuing (Alwasilah, 1998, 2001; Bundhowi, 2000).

In Section 1.6, an account of the teaching of English writing and a close examination of sample syllabi of writing courses offered in the research site will be presented. It will be suggested that the teaching of English writing in the research site needs improvement for three reasons, to do with insufficient time for the teaching of writing, lack of practice in writing a complete coherent text in various genres and the fact that the teaching of writing still follows the "traditional one-off writing task" (Gibbons, 2002, p. 67). Then, drawing from the problems presented in the previous sections, Section 1.7 will focus on the significance of the study as an attempt to address the problems. Section 1.8 will present an outline of the paper.

1.2. English in Official Policies

The importance and the need for English and the teaching of English in Indonesia have been explicitly stated in several official documents released by the government, especially those related to education. The first document is the Competence-Based English Curriculum, released by the Department of National Education of Indonesia (Depdiknas, 2001a,b). In the rationale of this curriculum, it is stated,

> As a language which is used by more than half of the world's population, English is ready to carry out the role as the global language. Apart from being the language for science, technology and arts, this language can become a tool to achieve the goals of economy and trade, relationship among countries, socio-cultural purposes, education and career development for people. The mastery of English can be considered as a main requirement for the success of individuals, the society and the nation of Indonesia in answering the challenges of the time in the global level. The mastery of English can be acquired through various programs, but the program of English teaching at school seems to be the main facility for Indonesian students (Depdiknas, 2001 alb, p. 1-2).

The curriculum further mentions the role of English in Indonesia as described below:

> In Indonesia, English is a means to grasp and develop science, technology and arts and culture. Furthermore, English has a tremendously significant role in founding the relationship between the nation of Indonesia and others in various fields such as social economy, trade and politics. Therefore English can be considered as a means to accelerate the developments of the Indonesian nation and country (Depdiknas, 2001 alb, p. 2; see a similar statement from the Director General of Secondary Education in Depdiknas 2001g,

Important and interesting evidence of the significance of English in Indonesia is the decision of the Congress of Bahasa Indonesia VII in Jakarta in 1998 (summarised by Erdina, 2001). Although the congress focused on Bahasa Indonesia as bahasa persatuan (language for unity), the decision of the congress stresses the prominence of English as a foreign language, and considers that the skills of English cannot be separated from the development of human resources in facing the globalization era. The decision of the congress, under the section Follow Up regarding English as a Foreign Language, states:

1. The improvement of English skills is an inseparable part of the development of human resources in facing the globalization era. Therefore, the availability and the use of the facilities as well as educational technology which can support the acquisition of the target language (English) need to be accorded a special importance.
2. The facilities and human resources for the teaching of English in tertiary education need to be developed to strengthen the position of the language as an effective tool in the international constellation … (cited in Erdina, 2001, p. 2).

Moreover, the policy on the development of communicative competences in foreign languages for vocational school graduates, made by the Directorate General for Vocational Secondary Schools, the Department of National Education (SMUnet, April 5th, 2002) confirms the significance of English in Indonesia. The policy requires that all vocational students master English. To realize this, to enhance the quality of English teaching and to help

students to achieve a significantly better result of their English learning, a TOEIC (Test Of English for International communication) program in a number of vocational schools has been implemented. Launching the policy on the implementation of the TOEIC program, the Director General of Secondary Education said,

> Facing the free trade era, Indonesia has to prepare its people especially those at the age of the work force to have a competitive capacity in the job market - international as well as domestic. One of the key competences to get into the free global job market is the capability to communicate in foreign languages, specifically English (SMUnet, April the 5th , 2002).

Other authorities state a similar point on the need for English. The Indonesian Minister of Research and Technology, in the regime of Abdurrahman Wahid, A.S. Hikam (2000), for example, claims that English plays a very important role in the process of a technological transfer. Without the mastery of that language, Hikam argues, we will not be able to maximize the process (cited in http://japan.istecs.org/Workshop00). His claim has been supported by Alwasilah, saying that foreign languages, specifically English, function as a source language in the process of transferring technology from other countries and "the more people who master English, the more textbooks and publications in bahasa Indonesia will be" (2000, p. 15). Alwasilah also contends that English is important in empowering

someone in the society, by maintaining that those who master English tend to be more respected than those who do not and that the latter groups of society do not get as many economic privileges (Alwasilah, 2000, p. 8). The importance of English can also be seen in the national school and the university curricula, which will be taken up below.

1.3. English in the National School and University Curricula

In Indonesia, there are three levels of education: primary, secondary and tertiary. Primary education consists of nine grade levels, with grades one to six in primary school and the other three grades in junior high school (see Table 1.1 below). Secondary education consists of three grade levels, with students in grade one and two learning the same subjects (see Table 1.2), and those in grade three grouped into three programs of specialization, namely: language, science and social science programs (see Table 1.3).

In tertiary education, different programs are offered by different universities. Some universities offer a Diploma program, with the duration of one to four years, and a Bachelor's degree which should be accomplished in four years. Some universities, especially state universities, offer postgraduate programs, including Master's and Doctoral degrees. What follows is the description of the position of English in the three levels of education in Indonesia.

1.3.1. English in the National School Curriculum: Primary and Secondary Education

The position of English in primary and secondary education can be depicted in the following tables on the teaching program in primary and secondary education, released by the Department of Education, based on the decree of the Minister of National Education No:061/U/1993[2] (cited in Universitas Negeri Jakarta /Jakarta State University, 2002).

From Table 1.1, it can be seen that in primary education (grades one to six) English is not explicitly mentioned as a subject. However, it has become one of the subjects for the local content. Based on the decree of the Minister of Education No. 060/U/1993 and the policy referring to the 1994 curriculum (cited in Kasihani, 2000), the teaching of English is formally encouraged in primary schools as the subject for the local content. Kasihani's (2000) report indicates that several provinces or districts have decided to choose English as a compulsory local subject. According to Kasihani, the research carried out in ten provinces in the year 2000 indicated that 61.6% of junior high school students revealed that they had been learning English since primary school. Provinces that have developed the curriculum of English for primary schools, among others, are West Java, Special District Yogyakarta, and East Java. In high school, English has been a compulsory foreign language subject

throughout Indonesia. In junior high schools (grades 7-9), English is taught in four teaching periods a week, occupying the second highest number of teaching periods after the main subjects such.

Table 1.1. The Teaching Program in the Curriculum for Primary Education

Subjects	Primary School (Grades 1-6)						Junior High School (Grades 1-3)		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3
	Number of teaching periods								
Pancasila (Five Principles of Indonesian way of life) and Civic Education	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Religious education	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Bahasa Indonesia (Indonesian language)	10	10	10	8	8	8	6	6	6
Mathematics	10	10	10	8	8	8	6	6	6
Science	-	-	3	6	6	6	6	6	6
Social Science	-	-	3	5	5	5	6	6	6
Handicrafts and arts	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Sports	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
English							**4**	**4**	**4**
Local Content*	**2**	**2**	**4**	**5**	**7**	**7**	**5**	**5**	**5**
Total number of teaching periods	30	30	38	40	42	42	42	42	42

Notes: The length of every teaching period for grade one and two of primary school is 30 minutes,
for grade three to six 40 minutes and for high school 45 minutes.
*The local content consists of subjects, the kind and content of which are determined by the location of each school. The term "local" can refer to the level of provinces, districts, subdistricts, or of the school. Those who determine the subjects, are among others, the local government, education experts, and leaders of the society. The determination is also influenced by the local environmental and socio-cultural conditions.

In addition, as Tables 1.2 and 1.3 show, English also has an important position in the senior high school curriculum. This can be seen from the

proportion of teaching periods for English in secondary education which is high. English is taught four teaching periods a week in grade one and two, one teaching period less than Physics and Bahasa Indonesia and two teaching periods less than Mathematics. In grade three, English gets a higher proportion, which is five teaching periods a week, especially for the language program, which is 11 teaching periods a week.

Table 1.2. The Teaching Program in the Curriculum for General Secondary Education (Grades 1 & 2)

Subjects	Grade 1	Grade 2
	Number of teaching periods	
Pancasila and Civic education	2	2
Religious education	2	2
Indonesian language and literature	5	5
National and general history	2	2
English	**4**	**4**
Sports	2	2
Mathematics	6	6
Science		
a. Physics	5	5
b. Biology	4	4
c. Chemistry	3	3
Social Science		
a. Economics	3	3
b. Sociology	-	2
c. Geography	2	2
Arts education	2	-
Total number of teaching periods	42	42

Table 1.3. The Teaching Program in the Curriculum for General Secondary Education (Grade 3)

Subjects	Program		
	Language	Science	Social
	Number of teaching periods		
Pancasila and civic education	2	2	2
Religious education	2	2	2
Indonesian language and literature	3	3	3
General history and national history	2	2	2
English	5	5	5
Sports	2*	2*	2*
Special			
Indonesian language and literature	8	-	-
Physics	-	7	-
Economics	-	-	10
English	6	-	-
Biology	-	7	-
Sociology	-	-	6
Other foreign languages	9**	-	-
Chemistry	-	6	-
System of Government	-	-	6
Cultural history	5	-	-
Mathematics	-	8	-
Anthropology	-	-	6
Total number of teaching periods	42	42	42

Notes: *) Conducted in the extra curricular activities and adapted to the chances available in the environment of the schools; and **) The decision of other foreign languages is made by the schools based on the condition and need of each school. Students choose other foreign languages offered by the school.

1.3.2 English in Tertiary Education

The organisation of tertiary education is based on the decree of the Minister of National Education No. 232/U/2000 about the guidelines of arrangement of tertiary education and students' learning assessment (Depdiknas, 2000). Chapter 4, article seven, paragraph one of the document mentions that the curriculum for tertiary education which becomes the basis for the organization of a study program consists of: a) A core curriculum; and b) An institutional curriculum. In relation to the subjects of each department in a university, based on the decree of the Minister of Education of the Republic of Indonesia No. 045/U/2002, the subjects of each department should be developed by each university (Depdiknas, 2002).

Regarding English, article ten, paragraph two of the decree No 232/U/2000 states that English can be one of the subjects included in the institutional curriculum. The paragraph reads: "In the group of institutional subjects can be included Bahasa Indonesia, **English**, Basic Social Science, Basic Cultural Science, Basic Science, Philosophy of Knowledge and Sports" (Depdiknas, 2000, p. 6).

In addition to learning English as a subject, students in the university are also obliged to master English in line with the National Education Law (Depdiknas, 2001c). Many universities have made English one of the

requirements of graduation, especially for their postgraduate programs. In the University of Indonesia for example, the Mathematics department requires that its undergraduate students take an English Proficiency Test to identify their English capacity, and before they graduate, they should pass the test (Universitas Indonesia, 2002, http://www.math.ui.ac.id/ indo/siswa/sekilas.htm).

The university where this current study took place (a state university in Bandung, West Java, 2000), requires that all candidates, especially in its postgraduate program, have a TOEFL score of at least 450, and those who have not achieved such a score should attend a 60-hour English course in the language centre of the university. Other universities, such as Bandung Institute of Technology (ITB, 2001) and Trisakti University (Universitas Trisakti, 2000) apply a similar regulation. Other colleges which are not under the Department of Education, such as the State College of Accountancy (STAN, 2001), a college under the Financial Ministry, have enacted a policy which is aimed at creating highly educated and qualified accountants who can compete globally. This college has established a special class in which English is used as the medium for the teaching and learning activities and only those who pass the selection can get into this class.

1.3.3. Official Policies on English Curriculum for Secondary Education from Indonesian Independence to the Present

The teaching of English in Indonesia dates from independence. This can be seen from the history of the development of the curriculum of English for Junior and Senior High School. As presented by Kasihani (2000), the journey of English curriculum development for junior and senior high school is described in Table 1.4 below.

Table 1.4 shows that the curriculum of English has experienced changes several times with the aim to achieve better student results in learning English. Unfortunately, it appears that in reality the changes in the curriculum have not been followed by the changes in the classroom. To date, teacher practice remains the same as it was in the past when the first English curriculum was created, that is they focus on grammar. This has happened because the changes or the developments of the curriculum have not been followed by the development of teachers' understanding of the concepts that underlie the curriculum (Kasihani, 2000; Sudjana, 2000). It is said that in practice, teachers often misunderstand the concepts of the curriculum. Therefore, Sudjana further argues, curriculum development should involve teachers as the agents of the curriculum and it should be based on their critical analysis of their own teaching. "The changes in the curriculum will be accepted only if the teachers act as the main agent in the changes of the

curriculum through their critical analysis and contemplation of their own performance to achieve the expected mastery of English" (2000, p. 38). Sudjana goes on to maintain that to better the teaching of English in secondary schools, what is needed is not only an amendment of the curriculum, but the more important thing is the promotion of the teachers' competence in order that they can teach more creatively and innovatively, and can, for example, change a boring, but useful them, into a useful and interesting one.

Table 1.4.   Journey of f English Curriculum Development for Indonesian Junior and Senior High School from Independence to the Present (Based on Kasihani, 2000)

Year	English curriculum used	Features
1945-1950	Formal education could not be carried out smoothly due to political situation.	No significant features.
1954	*Kurikulum Gaya Lama* (An Old Style Curriculum)	The instructional objective was not clear; English was taught four hours a week; using the grammar translation method.
1962	*Kurikulum gaya baru* (A New Style curriculum)	Accompanied by the teaching materials called "The Salatiga Materials" for junior high schools; The materials used an audio-lingual approach, in line with the popularity of the approach in the 1960s and the 1970s in other parts of the world.
1968	The revised New Style Curriculum, called *Kurikulum gaya baru yang disempurnakan* (Perfected New Style Curriculum).	Still advocating the audio lingual method; Accompanied by the teaching materials for senior high schools, called *English for the SLTA* (high schools).
1975	The 1975 curriculum, based on the decree of the minister of education No.008-E/U/1975	Better than previous ones, having clearer instructional objectives; Still advocating the audio-lingual method.
1984	The 1984 curriculum (based on the amendment of the 1975 curriculum)	Emphasising students' active learning; Using a communicative approach, which was considered the best approach to teaching English, as it is even up until now?
1994	The 1994 curriculum (based on the revised 1984 curriculum, referring to the input and the results of a nation-wide research on students' learning mastery)	Still advocating a communicative approach.
2001	The Competence-Based curriculum	Developing English using target competences, though a close reading shows it is similar to the one it replaced.
2004	The 2004 curriculum was released	Involving SFL and the SFL genre-based approach.

With respect to the release of the 2004 curriculum, through which the genre-based approach to teaching Engkish was introduced to Indonesian schools, the socialization of the curriculum which has been carried out so far by the government, involving some teacher education institutions should lead to the promotion of teachers' competence in applying the curriculum in the class. In doing so, the release of the new curriculum will also bring about changes in the teaching practice of English in the classroom, unlike the cases of the previous curricula.

1.4. Research and Cases Portraying Performance and the Teaching of English in Indonesia

There are several research studies and cases regarding English performance and the teaching of English in Indonesia. The first research on English performance that is worth a mention is the one provided by Kasihani (2000) in her presentation in the National Convention on Indonesian Education in Jakarta. Kasihani stated that the teaching of English in Indonesia is still problematic, confirming the results of a nation wide study, conducted in 1989-1990, which had shown that the students of junior high school had mastered only 44.1 % of the total set of materials and in senior high school, only 31. 48%.

Moreover, a case reported by The Director General for Vocational Secondary Education, Priowirjanto, (the Kompas, January the 12th, 2001)

indicated that the proficiency of English teachers in Indonesia was still worrying. The results of a TOEIC carried out in 1999, which involved 16 model schools, showed that the range of teachers' and students' scores was almost the same that is 250-800 for teachers and 200-750 for students. This meant, Priowirjanto said, that students in several schools had a better communicative competence than their teachers did. Moreover, the result of another TOEIC, organised in the year 2000 also indicated a similar phenomenon. From 70 teachers sitting for the TOEIC, only 6 teachers could achieve a score of more than 600, with the score ranging from 175-825 (see also the low level of the general English proficiency of academics of Teacher Training and Education Institutions (LPTKs) in Indonesia, based on the study conducted by Saukah, 2000).

In relation to the teaching of English in Indonesia, the Minister of Research and Technology in the regime of Abdurrahman Wahid, A.S. Hikam said, "in Indonesia, unfortunately, the teaching of English focuses only on the grammar of English, and has not yet achieved its uses" (see Japan Istecs, 2000, http://japan.istecs.org/Workshop00). This view was supported by Arief Rahman, the chief of the Indonesian national committee for the UNESCO, who gave a similar comment and emphasized the urgency for the teaching of English which is functional (the Kompas, April 26, 2002).

Moreover, the rationale of the Competence-Based Curriculum also explicitly states:

> The results of observations have indicated that the teaching of English in Indonesia is still very much far from the goal of the mastery of expected macro skills. The graduates of secondary schools are not yet able to use this language to communicate. Students of tertiary education are not yet capable of reading English textbooks. There are various factors which have caused this failure and there is a lot to do to better this condition. One of the ways is to adapt the syllabus in order that it is in line with the demands of the time (Depdiknas, 2001a,b, p.2).

Regarding the teaching of writing, specifically English writing, Alwasilah (2001, p. 24) observed that writing is the most neglected skill in Indonesian schools. Alwasilah explains:

> Writing is not only less practised, but –if anything- is also taught unprofessionally. … Writing is the most exalted language skill, yet it has been the most neglected one in our education. Our high school and college students are subjected to unprofessional teachers and professors. Most of the teachers and professors lack writing skills, informed understanding of the nature of writing and teaching strategies (2001, p. 25-26).

Surveying 100 freshmen representing high schools in West Java, Alwasilah concluded that (i) writing was considered most difficult to learn by the majority of the students; (ii) students were barely exposed to the practice of writing; and (iii) teachers lacked information and knowledge on what they should do regarding their students' composition (2001, p. 24). From his findings, Alwasilah further insisted that Indonesian university students'

writing capacity cannot be expected to be good, for two reasons. Firstly, students who enter university do not have solid English writing skills, given the lack of provision of such skills in high school education. Secondly, colleges also fail to demonstrate a strong commitment to the development of writing skills (2001, p. 24).

This coincided with the statement from the Director General of Higher Education, Satrio Soemantri (the Kompas, January 18th, 2002) and the rector of Atma Jaya Catholic University, Kridalaksana (the Kompas January 16th, 2002) that the writing capacity of lecturers in Indonesian universities was still low. This, it was said, constituted one of the main reasons for the low research output in Indonesian universities. Kridalaksana further argued that this has also been one of the results of the system of education in Indonesia, where from primary school, students are never taught to write whole texts both in English and Bahasa Indonesia. Kridalaksana went on to suggest that "it is not surprising if university students' and even university graduates' writing ability is categorised into low" (the Kompas January 16th, 2002) .

However, the release of the 2004 English curriculum, which is underpinned by systemic functional linguistics (SFL) and involves the genre-based approach (GBA), as indicated in the previous section, indicates the

government's awareness of the necessity of the teaching of English which is functional and which can lead to students' ability in using the language in context. The incorporation of the GBA in the curriculum and the higher proportion of curriculum time for writing may also suggest that attempts to improve students' writing skills have been made.

1.5. The Teaching of English in the Reform Era (since Soeharto's Resignation)

There have been many claims that reform in Indonesia should take place, not only in the political sector, but also in other sectors, including education, particularly language education. In this connection, Alwasilah (2001) maintains that May 1998, when Soeharto resigned, marked a new era of reform for all walks of Indonesian life, including education. This new era is one of openness and transparency, when almost all social ills and injustices are subject to public discussions. Alwasilah argues:

> As public debates on politics grow intensely, many critics point their fingers at education, which, in their judgment, has failed to provide people with knowledge, skills and wisdom. If education had fulfilled its duty, critics assert, social ills such as corruption, collusion and nepotism would not be so rampant. This criticism should lead teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) and language teachers in general, to ask themselves "What relevance, if any, does teaching EFL have to the current social and political development?" (2001, p. 42).

Alwasilah (2001; see also Bundhowi, 2000) argues that teaching English should lead to the development of students' critical thinking with an

appropriate logical reasoning and the teaching of English should not be perceived simply as a process of transferring the four language skills to students. Language education, to Alwasilah, should expose students to as much information and controversial issues as possible, and sensitive issues such as corruption, collusion and nepotism, have a potential for use as topics to develop critical thinking.

In Indonesian academic discourse, since Soeharto's resignation, critical thinking has also become a new "buzz word", and this has been reflected in the National Development. Program for the year 2000-2004 on education development. Section A of the program, about General Problems, paragraph six, mentions that one of the problems in the national education is that "the culture of critical thinking is not yet socialized… ." (Depdiknas, 2001f, WWW.DEPDIKNAS.GO.ID).

To acquaint students with critical thinking through the use of English, a Catholic university in Jakarta, UNIKA Atma Jaya (1999) organized a debate competition whose participants were students from all over Indonesia. One of the purposes of the activity was to create appropriate English speakers and critical thinkers. The organizing committee said that the lack of English mastery was one of the obstacles to the development of human resources of a kind that would allow Indonesians to compete with other countries. The

organizing committee went on to argue that critical thinking was not strongly rooted in Indonesia. Moreover, it was said that the education system, which relied on indoctrination even at the level of tertiary education, had failed to bring about critical thinkers. In a debate, it was said, debaters needed more than mastery of the relevant language, for they also needed strong critical capacities.

Parallel to the calls for the inclusion of critical thinking in education, in EFL in particular, the reform era has also necessitated the practice of democracy and the inclusion of critical pedagogy in Indonesian education in various fields. Regarding the practice of democracy in education, it is said that the wind of democracy has been blowing in Indonesian society and therefore it is time now to practise democracy in the classroom through the implementation of an interactive curriculum (Hermawan, 2003, http://www.geocities.com/hermanjul/DikDemo.htm). In addition, critical pedagogy should be applied across the subjects of the curriculum, including religious education, as suggested by Qodri, the Director General of Islamic institutions, the Ministry of Religion (the Media Indonesia, April 7th, 2003), and the teaching of history of architecture, as suggested by Adityawarman, who proposes the application of Giroux's postmodernism emphasizing

pluralism (http://adhistana.tripod.com/artikel/makalah1.txt). In terms of the application of critical pedagogy, some writers, like Q-Anees (2002) and Hermawan (2003, http://www.geocities.com/hermanjul/DikDemo.htm) also refer to Freire's theory. Hermawan as mentioned above, offers an "interactive education system as a solution to develop students'critical capacity". In addition, Fanani (2002) and Musthafa, 2003 http://www.bpgupg.go.id/strategy3.htm) propose a pluralistic-multicultural and liberating education. Finally, the need for the application of critical pedagogy can also be seen from the organization of a seminar on the possibility of applying a liberating education from a gender perspective, conducted in various provinces, as released in the Swara Rahima (2003, http://www.rahima.or.id/SR/07-03/Kiprah1.htm).

In addition to the changes of the curriculum or system of education, another stage which should be taken, as Hermawan (2003, http://www.geocities.com/hermanjul/DikDemo.htm) writes, is to shift students into "written thought". Students should be given a chance and capacity to put their ideas into well-structured written composition. This, Hermawan further maintains, can help learners to expand/distribute ideas to a larger number of people, because the distribution of written thought will be more effective to reach wider society.

1.6. The Teaching of English Writing in the Research Site

This current study was undertaken in the English department of a state university in Bandung, West Java, Indonesia. The department has two programs: an educational program whose graduates will become teachers of English, and a non-educational program, whose graduates are not planning to become teachers. The number of students in each class of each program is big, around 40-50. English is the major for all students in the department and four main English skills, namely speaking, writing, reading and listening, are taught as separate subjects.

Writing is taught in five semesters, from semester two until semester six, two credits in every semester, with one credit equaling 50 minutes classroom teaching/learning activity. In the general description of the syllabus of writing subjects, it is stated:

> Writing courses (Writing I-V) are intended to equip students with knowledge and skills which would enable learners to engage in writing activities for various differing communicative purposes using resources (linguistic or otherwise) available to them at any given time. The focus is, then, on knowledge of rhetorical conventions as well as the process of writing. The topics for students' writing may range from those based on their own experience, the experience of others, and printed sources written by others. As a terminal goal, the final stage of the writing instruction (i.e., Writing V) should enable learners to engage in academic writing activities such as responding to editorials, report writing, and self-sponsored essay writing (Course Description for Writing, 1999; see Appendix 1 for the syllabi of writing courses).

Based on the researcher's observation in the research site, it was evident that most students found writing a difficult subject. In the journals made at the end of every semester by students whom the researcher taught, the majority of students mentioned writing was one of the most difficult subjects. This has been confirmed by the fact that the number of students who complete their bachelor's degree by writing a thesis is always far lower than that of those who take several courses as substitutes for the thesis. In the year 2000, for example, the number of students who graduated by writing a thesis was 22 out of 84.

In reference to the description of the syllabus of writing courses above, there are several possible reasons for this problem. The first one is to do with insufficiently allocated time for writing, which is two credits per week, per semester. If writing is taught as a craft, not as a "one shot activity", which needs a lot of practice, guidance and feedback, two credits for teaching writing in big classes (as described above) is not sufficient. It will be very difficult for the teacher to help students develop their writing skills in such a short period of time in a big class.

The second reason concerns the contradiction between the purpose of writing instruction and the syllabi. Despite the purpose of the courses as mentioned above, the syllabus for each writing course, Writing I –III, and

even writing IV and V seem to envisage only paragraph development. The courses do not provide sufficient practice and opportunity for students to become competent writers of a variety of genres.

Finally, the fact that students need to sit for the midterm and final tests indicates that the teaching of writing still follows "the traditional one-off writing task" (Gibbons, 2002, p. 67). This kind of test does not give students appropriate time to go through the process of writing, starting from researching the topic, outlining, drafting, revising, editing and proofreading, all of which can help sharpen students' critical thinking and critical literacy. However, with the socialization of the GBA by the department and the involvement of lecturers of the department in the nation-wide upgrading of English teachers regarding the GBA, the teaching of writing in the department and thus students' writing capacity will improve.

1.7. The Significance of the Study

The study reported here, in the light of the problems reviewed, has sought to do the following:

(1) to address problems of teaching English academic writing in a tertiary context in Indonesia, using a genre-based approach;
(2) to test ways of developing critical capacities (critical thinking and critical literacy) in EFL students in such a context;
(3) to investigate the possibilities and values of implementing an interactive or dialogic curriculum (where the teacher, like his/her

students, is an apprenrice, whos is also seeking) in a democratic classroom in Indonesia.

It is claimed that the study is significant in that (i) it attempts to integrate and synthesise perspectives and approaches from several areas of research about development of critical capacities in an English language program and (ii) it seeks to do this in a country where such approaches have rarely hitherto been attempted. Moreover, in terms of critical literacy, as this study focuses not only on reading, but also writing (while most work on critical literacy focuses on reading, as Kamler, 2001, suggests) this study is expected to enrich the literature on critical writing pedagogy.

Lastly, regarding the 2004 English curriculum, which involves the GBA, the study, which dealt with the GBA and started before the establishment of the curriculum, can be of great significance. The results of the study are both timely and important in terms of providing English educators and secondary English teachers in Indonesia with an interesting background to, and useful practical activities and directions for successful implementation of the new curriculum, the GBA in particular in their classes.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Critical Thinking (CT)

Critical thinking (CT) as a topic has enjoyed renewed interest and attention recently. At a broad level, the theory of CT shares some common concerns with other theories reviewed in this chapter (especially CP and CL). As CT has been central to radical education (Giroux, 1992a; Giancarlo and Facione, 2001) theorists in the fields argue that critical education, which helps to make people more critical in thought and action, can increase freedom and enlarge the scope of human possibilities (Burbules and Berk, 1999, p. 46; Giancarlo and Facione, 2001).

The main distinctive feature of the theory of CT in education is to do with its idea that specific reasoning skills undergrid the curriculum as a whole, at all levels of schooling. While it may well encourage discernment in relation to the social and human condition, CT does not specifically demand social action (as CP suggests). CT is primarily aimed at the individual, and it largely ignores the pedagogical relations, which occur between teacher and learner or between learners (Burbules and Berk, 1999; see also Canagarajah, 2002, p. 96-103 on a similar observation on differences between CP and CT).

The CT tradition concerns itself primarily with criteria of epistemic adequacy, aiming at self-sufficiency, and "a self-sufficient person is a liberated person … free from the unwarranted and undesirable control of unjustified beliefs" (Siegel, 1988, p. 58; see also Burbules and Berk, 1999, p.46-47). The theorists of CT see that "that person who is so well educated that she or he is able to think for him or herself is the person whose mind is liberated"(Schneider and Shoenberg, 1998, cited in Giancarlo and Facione, 2001, p. 29).

This section will take up several issues of CT relevant to this study, including the concept of CT used in this study, essential components of CT emphasized in this study, the teaching and assessment of CT, the relationship between CT and literacy (reading and writing) and criticisms of the CT movement.

2.2. Critical Pedagogy (CP)

Critical pedagogy (CP) has been very much influenced by critical theory (Brookfield, 1995; Kanpol, 1999; Morgan, 1999; Wink, 2000) and is actually "the doing of critical theory" (Kanpol, 1999, p. 27). Thus influenced, CP is a struggle for freedom (Freire, 1985), for empowerment of both teachers and students (Cummins, 1996).

While the CT tradition is concerned primarily with criteria of epistemic adequacy, aiming at self-sufficiency, CP begins from a very different starting

point. It regards specific belief claims, not primarily as propositions to be assessed for their truth content, but as part of systems of belief and action that have aggregate effects within the power structures of society. It asks first about these systems of belief and action, "who benefits?" The primary preoccupation of CP is with social injustice and how to transform inequitable, undemocratic, or oppressive institutions and social relations (Burbules and Berk, 1999, p. 47). In the language of CP, the critical person is one who is empowered to seek justice, to seek emancipation. Not only is the critical person adept at recognizing injustice but, for CP, that person is also moved to change (Burbules and Berk, 1999; see also Benesch, 2001). CP aims to develop students' critical awareness of those oppressive social forces, including school structures and knowledges (Morgan, 1997, p. 6).

The distinctive feature of CP, apart from some common concerns with other theories (reviewed in this study, such as the CT movement and the GBA), as Luke and Walton (1994) put it, is that it:

> Retains an instructional emphasis on expression and negotiation on the marginal and oppressed "self". It stops short of calling for direct instruction and explicit knowledge of specialized written genre and textual techniques. Relatedly, it presupposes that critical and powerful competence with these genres and techniques can evolve from a pedagogy which is centered on voice (1994, p. 1196; see also Kincheloe and Steiner, 1998; and Pennycook, 2001 about the place of teaching method in CP).

However, as critical theory and pedagogic reality are so often in disagreement, it is argued in this study that teachers who apply CP must be situationally attentive. They must work with the cultural and cognitive complexities represented by students' varying personalities, learning styles, genders, developmental levels, ideologies and backgrounds (Brookfield, 1995, p. 209). Therefore, like other participatory approaches to literacy instruction, this current study is context specific (Auerbach, 1996, 1999; Kincheloe and Steinberg, 1998; O'Brien, 2001; Pari, 1999), in two senses. First is that the principles of CP used in this study are only those relevant to the current Indonesian condition /context; and second is that the principles of CP adopted are synthesized with those from other related theories reviewed in this study.

There are mainly two theorists, whose work has significantly contributed to this study. First of all is Freire (1971, 1993), whose work in a developing country (although Freire's work does not only apply to developing or the Third World countries, as suggested by Gadotti, 1994, p. 126), in a way, is relevant to the Indonesian situation today. Underpinned by critical theory, Freire (1971) in his work with peasant students in Brazil, who had been oppressed and saw themselves part of reality or part of nature: "more part of the world than transformers of the world" (Bizzell, 1992, p. 21),

sees education as political. Freire's CL aims to arouse students' awareness of oppression imposed on them through conscientization, which refers to "learning to perceive social, political, and economic contradictions, and to take action against the oppressive elements of reality" (Freire, 1970, p.1; 1993, p. 17). Accordingly, Freirian CL emphasises "challenging the status quo in an effort to discover alternative paths for social and self development, as a social action through language use that develops us inside a larger culture", as Shor (1999, p. 1) suggests. Freirian CL also involves social action to change the nature of existing society, as Giroux (1981) and Freire and Faundes (1989) argue. Moreover, Freirian CL concerns itself with creating a dream in the students of a new society against the power in power or the political struggle to change the society, as Freire and Shor (1987) have said.

However, because the context of this study is different from the one described by Freire (1971), it is argued in this study that CP, particularly Freire's argument here, cannot be naively imported into Indonesian discussions of the politics of education (see Bizzel, 1992, and Brookfield, 1995 in American context and Cheah, 2001 in Singapore). Despite Freire's influence on this study, this study did not involve challenging the status quo or motivate the students to change those in power or to take any political action. Such a tradition of critiquing and challenging the status quo is not yet well established in Indonesia, although there are signs that this tradition has

begun to emerge (see Chapter 1, Section 1.5). Freire's principles of CP adopted in this study are to do with "reading the word and the world" (Freire and Macedo, 1987, see also Roberts, 2000); and "dialogic education" (Freire and Shor, 1987). These, as Luke and Walton (1994, p. 1195) describe, are at the heart of Freire's (1971) critique of traditional literacy education as banking education, in which "the students are the depositories and the teacher is the depositor" (Freire, 1993, p. 53), "teachers make deposits of information into the passive mind of students" (Elias, 1994, p. 132; Freire and Macedo, 1987, p. 34). These principles are essential to encourage students' critical capacity, the development of which is urgent in contemporary Indonesian education and society, as outlined in Chapter 1, Section 1.5.

The second theorist whose work has given shape to this study is Giroux (1988a, b, 1992a, b; 1997) from an advanced country, the United States, to do with the principle of the classroom as a democratic public sphere (Giroux, 1988b; 1997). This principle is deemed to be important for the enhancement of democracy that Indonesia has been seeking to achieve and realize in every aspect of life, again, as already outlined in Chapter 1, Section 1.5. Each principle of CP employed in this study will be discussed below.

2.4 Critical Literacy (CL)

Critical literacy (CL) is open to multiple interpretations (Cheah, 2001) and may take a diversity of forms (Frye, 1997; Pennycook, 2001; Comber, 1998, cited in William, http://www.cdesign.com.au/ aate/aate_papers/ 069_williams.htm). Before this section goes further to discuss CL, it should be noted here that CL envisaged in this study focused on critical reading and writing.

Based on the discussion in previous sections, it can be seen that the form of CL adopted in this study has been drawn from several orientations. The first orientation is the CT movement, as discussed in Section 2.2, in that critical reading and writing in this study imply CT applied in reading and writing. The second orientation is CP, especially "reading the word and the world" as discussed in Section 2.3. The third orientation, which will be treated in this section as mentioned above, is drawn from a general view of literacy (which has commonalities with other theories reviewed in this study), that is literacy as a social construct (Heath, 1983; Luke and Walton, 1994; Kress, 2003), supported by another orientation to CL, which is also considered as a "variant" (Lankshear et al, 1997, p. 41; Luke and Walton, 1994) of critical social theory of literacy, that is critical language awareness (CLA), which may be seen as the pedagogical wing of critical discourse analysis (CDA) (Pennycook, 2001) (see also Hyland, 2002 on the major task of

CDA from a pedagogical perspective). The last orientation, which has a great deal in common with a critical social theory of literacy will be treated in Section 2.5, to do with empowering students through the mastery of argumentative genre (genre of power), as suggested in the SFL GBA.

2.5. Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)

Systemic functional linguistics (hereafter abbreviated to SFL), which has been used in "critical linguistics" (Fairclough, 1992a; Pennycook, 2001) is a social theory of language which has been developed and influenced by previous linguists. SFL has been influenced by Malinowski, Firth, Pike and Hymes specifically in terms of the concept of context of situation and context of culture (as cited in Halliday, 1976; Halliday, 1985c; Christie, 1987; Bloor and Bloor, 1995; Mathiessen and Nesbitt, 1996). It has also been influenced by the Prague School of Linguistics, concerning its notion of functional sentence perspective, examining utterances in terms of the information they contain and the role of each part of the utterance in terms of its semantic contribution to the utterance as a whole (Halliday, 1994a; Paltridge, 1997; Connor, 1996). SFL also owes much to the work of Whorf in its focus on the relationship between language and culture, and Saussure and Hjelmslev, regarding interpreting linguistic theory as a semiotic system, specifically the notions

"system" (the paradigmatic range of linguistic choices available to the user of a language) and "function" (syntagmatic combinations of linguistic structures described in terms of their functional role within the clause) (Bloor and Bloor, 1995; Paltridge, 1997; Butt, 1996; Mathiessen and Nesbitt, 1996).

SFL has had an impact on educational studies throughout the world (Connor, 1996) and its most obvious impact has been on the teaching of writing (Wells, 1999) as revealed in the discussion in the SFL genre pedagogy later. Because SFL is also concerned with language in education, the basic concepts of SFL deal with not only the concept of language itself, but also with language learning, which will be discussed below.

CHAPTER III

THE TEACHING PROGRAM: AN OVERVIEW

This chapter sets out to describe the various stages of activities developed as part of implementing the teaching program pursued in this thesis. The description of the program will be based on the data from the researcher's field notes, the classroom observer's notes and students' journals (with students' name presented in pseudonyms). Broadly, the activities, spread out over a period of 11 weeks, fell into two groups: those that were considered preliminary to the implementation of the teaching program, and the teaching program itself. Details of the program are described in such a way that the program could be replicated by other EFL teacher educators/researchers in a similar context in Indonesia.

The objectives in the preliminary phase, as will be discussed in Section 4.2, were (i) to establish an appropriate group of students willing to work with the researcher, (ii) to find out something of their own writing capacities by asking them to write diagnostic texts, and (iii) to establish how they understood matters to do with being critical in writing and reading.

4.1. Preliminary Phase of the Teaching Program

There were four activities done in this phase, including: (i) inducting the students with the teaching program; (ii) joint decision on the topics for

writing; (iii) searching for texts and reading materials; (iv) distribution of questionnaires and diagnostic writing.

4.1.1 Activity 1: Inducting the Students with the Teaching Program

The starting point prior to the teaching program was to meet with students, to inform them clearly of the nature of the teaching program, which would involve CT and critical reading and would be based on the researcher's intention in teaching it. Possible benefits of their participation in the study were also mentioned, especially regarding CT, which is an essential capacity of citizens to live in a healthy democratic society (Kurfiss, 1988) and critical reading in the current Indonesian situation. Regarding the Discussion genre, it was mentioned that as one type of argumentative writing, this genre was very important for tertiary level students, as it represents major types of educational texts encountered by them in relation to their study (Grabe, 2002, p. 267). All this information was given to realize a suggestion from a visible pedagogy that "what is to be learned should be made clear to the students" (Feez, 2002, p. 56; see also DSP, 1989; Cope and Kalantzis, 1993b).

The medium of interaction at this stage and later stages throughout the program was mostly English, to enable students to practise their English. However, bahasa Indonesia was also used, especially when the students

found difficulty in expressing ideas in English. The use of bahasa Indonesia was expected "to provide students with additional cognitive support that allowed them to analyse language and work at a higher level than would be possible were they restricted to sole use of English" (Storch and Wigglesworth, 2003, p. 760). Bilingualism was also expected to affect positively both students' intellectual and linguistic progress and allow for their greater sensitivity to linguistic meanings and more flexibility in their thinking, as observed by several researchers reported in Cummins (1996, p. 104-105). From a CP perspective, this aimed to make the classroom a place where students use multiple discourses to ensure their active participation, where they need not silence the language they brought to class by adopting a discourse that erased their class and ethnicity (Pari, 1999, p. 110).

4.1.2 Activity 2: Joint Decision on the Topics for Writing

Based on principles arising out of dialogic education (Benesch, 2001; Berlin, 1993; Freire and Shor, 1987), the GBA (Derewianka, 1990; the DSP, 1989) and the teaching of ESL (Nunan, 1988, p. 2-4) possible topics that the researcher had previously selected were then offered to the students to decide which topic to discuss first, to initiate their active participation in their learning. This activity also aimed to build in time for students to become

comfortable with the topics and activities involved in the program before they were asked to do them (van Duzer and Flores, 1999).

4.1.3 Activity 3: Searching for Texts and Reading Materials

Upon the joint decision of the topics discussed, the next activity was to find texts and reading materials for students. The CT-related materials were based on principles discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.2, and text books about CT (see the hand out in Appendix 4). Texts for consolidation of students' CT and introduction to CL were taken from Mc Gregor (2002, p. 4-5) on arguments, to be presented later.

4.1.4 Activity 4: Distribution of Questionnaires and Diagnostic Writing

Another activity prior to the teaching program was to invite students to fill in a questionnaire, to gain students' profiles (Feez and Joyce, 1998a; Derewianka, 1990), of their experience in learning English, their attitude toward and perceptions of English writing and their critical capacities. Students were then invited to do a diagnostic writing text (Feez and Joyce, 1998a), an example of English argumentative text, on any topic they wished to write, in one sitting. These texts were then given to one of the researcher's colleague to be categorized as low, mid and high in terms of argumentative structure and proficiency in English.

4.1.5 Summary of the Preliminary Phase of the Teaching Program

This section has described various activities prior to the teaching program. It has been argued that two key principles of CP adopted in this study (the classroom as a democratic public sphere and dialogic education), which are deemed relevant to the development of the current Indonesian education, as discussed in Chapter 1, Section 1.5, had been applied prior to the teaching program. These were reflected, among others, in the nature of students' participation in this study, which was voluntary-based, and the joint decision on the topic discussed. Finally, the diagnostic writing and questionnaire constituted the basis for assessment of students' needs in their learning in the teaching program which will be illustrated below.

4.2. The Teaching Program

Working in the role of "teacher-as-researcher" (Stake, 1995, p. 91), the researcher taught the students for nine weeks. After each session the writer wrote field notes on what happened in the class, students' developments and problems. In each session, as indicated in Chapter 3, the researcher also invited one of her colleagues to act as an observer and to take notes or record each event in the class, "what is said and done by the teacher and students" (van Lier, 1996, p. 90) to contribute "to reducing the researcher's perceptual biases" (Shimahara, 1988, p. 87; van Lier, 1988, p. 13).

For the whole teaching program, a pre-established lesson plan (Appendix 5) was provided as a guide for the teacher and the learners (Feez and Joyce, 1998a, p. 2) or pathways (Feez and Joyce, 1998a, p. 73) which the students would go to along the course of the lessons. However, this was not a fixed matter, but subject to modification, "once the teaching program commenced" (Feez and Joyce, 1998a, p. 73), based on students' interests and experiences (Freire and Shor, 1987; Auerbach, 1999; Degener, 1999) (see also Nunan, 1988; Nunan and Lamb, 1996 regarding lesson preparation in the ESL context). This is because the basis of planning tasks or topic choice (as mentioned above) was often determined interactively as the lesson proceeded (Burns, 1992, p. 63). However, such an approach did not seem to be favoured by all students, as interview data in Chapter 6 will reveal that students' preference for a strict syllabus seemed to still exist.

Students' CT and CL were then consolidated in each stage of the two teaching cycles of the GBA. Classroom practices informed by CP were applied throughout the program "which are required for students' development of CL" (Wallace, 2001, p. 214; Horn, Jr, 2002, p. 143) and CT (Giroux, 1992a). Classroom practices informed by CP, as outlined in Chapter 2, Section 2.3, were mainly regarding the promotion of students' capacity to read the word and the world (Freire and Macedo, 1987); a dialogic education

(Shor and Freire, 1987) and a democratic atmosphere (Giroux, 1988, 1977) in the class. These were reflected in students' active participation in their learning and the "student-teacher interaction (especially in discussions), or human relationships, which are central to effective instruction" (Cummins, 1996, p. 73). The democratic atmosphere, especially in discussing texts, also aimed to encourage students to challenge authority, including the perceived authority in texts and possibly teacher's judgment and interpretations (Wallace, 1992, p. 63; Cummins, 1996).

In the first week, the researcher taught three times a week, with each session taking four and a half hours with 20 minutes break. This followed a suggestion from students, as they were still having a semester break. For the rest of the eight weeks, she taught twice a week, one session for two and a half hours, the other, which was on the students' day off, four and a half hours with 20 minutes break. Two additional meetings were conducted to specifically teach functional grammar (SFG), again, based on the students' suggestions. This time allocation was actually much longer than the planned schedule.

However, from a CT perspective, it was far from sufficient, as the duration of the instruction of CT should be at least one semester, or even a year of instruction (Sternberg, 1987; see also Beyer, 1997 and Wilks, 2004a, b,

on the necessity of longer periods of time for thinking instruction). From a CL perspective, particularly from that of critical reading, this was too short, as critical reading skill is a developmental process and cannot be taught just in several sessions (Varaprasad, 1997, p.12). These critical capacities, which are relatively new in

Indonesian education (in that students are encouraged to verbalise their critical perspectives on their context more openly) and may be a relatively radical concept in an Indonesian EFL context like this study (see Davidson, 1995 in a Japanese context), would certainly take much longer time to establish, as the discussion later in this chapter and Chapter 6 will reveal. From a CP point, the time allocation was much too short, as "a pedagogical shift from non-critical to critical may take many years, if not a life time and it should be seen as a journey" (Degener, 1999, p. 13).

Similarly, from the point of the GBA, this program did not allow students' comprehensive understanding on genre as a "linguistically realized activity type" (Christie, 1991, p. 236) due to lack of provision for students to practise writing and reading different genres that students should master for their success in their academic and future life. The program also did not allow students to learn functional grammar comprehensively, which could contribute to their capacity in language use for various purposes and

audiences (Cope and Kalantzis, 1993a; Rothery, 1989; Kress, 1993; Hyon, 1996; Gibbons, 2002). This is one of the limitations of the study relating to the limited time available.

After each session, students were invited to write a journal to express about "what they thought they had learnt" (DSP, 1989, p. 19) from the teacher and from friends (see Appendix 7.3-4). However, in hindsight the researcher should also have asked the students to express their feeling, particularly when they approached a particular text in the journal, to help develop students' self esteem as their feelings (and experiences) are valued (Ada, 1988, cited in Cummins, 1999, p.7).

CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided a theoretical background of the study including a detail delineation of theories of CT, CP, CL and SFL. It has been demonstrated that despite the distinctiveness of each theory reviewed, aspects of these four theories emphasised in this study are interrelated and complementary. Aspects of the theories reviewed in this chapter are also relevant to the priorities of education in Indonesia, such as to fulfill the necessity of the development of critical capacity, the urgency of the implementation of interactive pedagogy, and the promotion of democracy in the classroom through the teaching of writing and reading skills in theEFL context in particular, and across the curriculum subjects in all levels of education in general.

It has also been argued that there is a potential complementation across the four areas of theories reviewed and therefore a synthesis of the principles in each theory is possible and desirable. One important object of this study was to test the complementary nature of the four different areas of theory in designing and implementing an English academic writing program at a tertiary level in Indonesia. The forthcoming chapters will explain how the

study was designed and implemented and the nature of the findings. Chapter 3 will thus outline aspects of the methodology used, while later chapters will develop analyses of the results.

The teaching program conducted in this study. It has illustrated activities prior to and throughout the teaching program, in which attempts were made to promote students' argumentative writing skills and critical capacities. These, as mentioned earlier, are of essential importance in the current EFL teaching in particular and across the curriculum in Indonesian education in general. This suggests that the GBA is not a lockstep (Callaghan Rothery, 1988 and its application in the classroom is not linear. The GBA can start from any stage depending on the students' need and capacity. There is not one way of doing it.

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