CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This section discusses issues that are related to the theories of the research problem and conceptual framework. The first is the theories of the research problem which is consist of three parts. The first is theoretical review covering three topics, namely writing skill, genre-based approach, and designing learning materials. The writing skill includes the nature of writing, steps in planning a writing course, micro and macroskills of writing, types of classroom writing performance, types of writing tasks, characteristic of written language, roles of teacher in writing, and writing skill in junior high school. Genre-based approach includes the nature of genre, text-based curriculum and genre approach, curriculum cycle, and genre-based approach in teaching writing. The designing materials includes the learning materials and models of the designing materials and tasks. The second is a conceptual framework.

A. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Writing

a. Nature of Writing

Studying English as a foreign language cannot be separated from its macro skills. Those are listening, speaking, reading, and writing. All of those macro skills have their own difficulties to be mastered by the students. Richards and
Renandya (2002: 303) state that there is no doubt that writing is the most difficult skill for L2 learners to master.

However, transferring the thought in the form of written text is not an easy thing. Langan (2001: 10) describes that many people find it difficult to do the intense, active thinking that clear writing demands; it is frightening to sit down before a blank sheet of paper or a computer screen and know that an hour later, nothing on it may be worth keeping; it is frustrating to discover how much of a challenge; it is annoying to transfer thoughts and feelings from one’s head into words; and it is upsetting to find that an apparently simple writing subject often turns out to be complicated.

According to Hamp-Lyons (1990) in O’Malley, Michael, and Pierce (1996: 136), writing is a personal act in which writers take ideas or prompts and transform them into “self-initiated” topics. It can be concluded that there are three elements in writing, i.e. ideas, transformation, and topics. In writing, the writer should gather ideas first and then transform the ideas into a topic. Brown (2001: 335) also states that writing is the nature of the composing process of writing. He says that writing is a process which consists of thinking (collecting ideas), drafting (writing), and revising (redrafting) that require specialized skills. Writing does not only need some stages but it also has special conventions related to grammar, vocabulary, letter, words, and text-formation that are manifested by handwriting, spelling, layout and punctuation (Harmer, 2007;323). Thus, to write well, the writer should pay attention to the conventions of writing above.
In line with Hamp-Lyons and Brown, Sokolik (2003) in Linse and Nunan (2006: 98) defines writing as a combination of process and product. Writing needs both the process and the product. In other words, writing is done through the process and resulted in a written product that is comprehensible to readers.

Langan (2001: 4) highlights the four basic principles that must be learnt by the students to write effectively: start with a clearly started point; provide logical, detailed support for the point; organize and connect the supporting materials; the revise and edit so that the sentences are effective and error-free. Those previous explanations describe the effective teaching and learning of writing.

b. Steps in Planning Writing Course

Designing syllabus for teaching writing determine how effective the teaching and learning process of writing is. Raimes in Richards and Renandya (2002: 306) outlines ten steps in planning a writing course. The first is ascertaining goals and institutional constraints. The teacher should decide what goals that her/his students have to reach in her/ his writing class. Ascertaining goals is a necessary first step in designing a course. The teacher should also find out what constraints imposed upon teachers by their institution. Such constraints include assigned curricula, approved textbooks, and designed proficiency examinations. By knowing the institutional constraints, the teacher can do some actions for maximizing her/his ability in teaching writing in order to pursue the goals that have been decided.
The second is deciding on theoretical principles. Benesch (1993: 705) in Richards and Renandya (2002: 307) points out that “all forms of ESL instruction are ideological, whether or not educators are conscious of the political implications of their instructional choices”. She claims that all writing is ideological. Thus, the teacher first needs to confront her/his ideological position and recognize her/his perceptions of the relationship between the type of writing she or he teaches and the roles she or he is preparing students for in academica and the wider world of work.

The third is planning content. The teacher should understand the value of writing that it is a valuable tool for learning not only about subject matter but also about language. The teacher is more that just selecting content that is not based on rhetorical models of form. The teacher also involves what content will actively encourage students to use writing as a tool for learning and for communication and to become engaged enough with their writing to have an investment in examining it, improving it, and revising it for readers.

The fourth is weighting the elements. Writing consists of many elements and the teacher needs to consider which ones will be the most important for a course: content, organization, originality, style, fluency, accuracy, or using appropriate rhetorical forms of discourse. The teacher has to form priorities and weight the elements according to the students’ needs and her/his point of view.

The fifth is drawing up a syllabus. After deciding on content and weighting the elements, the teacher should organize the content and the learning
experiences in the classroom. She/ he should adapt the types of syllabus organization for writing courses, such as structural, functional, topical, situational, skills and processes, and task syllabus. A combination of approaches is often used. What they are and in what proportion they are used depends on the students, goals, theoretical principles, and institutional constraints. She/ he has to make principles selections every time she or he plans a lesson or a course.

The sixth is selecting materials. There are seven features that a teacher should considered if she or he decide s to use an ESL writing textbooks and not books and articles written for authentic purposes. They are topics, types of writing, opportunities for and instruction in methods of generating ideas, instruction on principles of rhetorical organization, opportunities for collaboration, opportunities for revision, and instruction in editing and proofreading.

The seventh is preparing activities and roles. The teacher has to make sure that she or he does not try to bank too much in the students’ brains all at once. It helps the teacher thinks about what students will be doing and learning in the classroom rather than the comprehensiveness of the information she or he will be imparting.

The eighth is choosing types and methods of feedback. A teacher should know the purpose of her/his response. First, in the case of the large class, not every piece of writing has to be corrected or even seen by the teacher. Second, whoever responds has a variety of physical methods of responding: a comment to
or a conversation with the writer; an interlinear response with computer software; an audio taped response; or a written response. Third, the teacher has to select the type of response she/he prefers to give. Fourth, teacher and students need to agree the purpose of the response.

The ninth is evaluating the course. A popular evaluation in the writing course is the combination of student evaluation and course evaluation that is the use of portfolio.

The tenth is reflecting the teacher’s experience. The teacher should reflect upon her/his experiences during the teaching learning process. She or he has to ponder why one class or activity works and another does not. Through this reflective teaching, the teacher can plan a new strategy in teaching, with the hope that it will be better.

Those ten steps above are used to make an effective teaching of writing. The teacher should follow those steps so that the teaching learning process will be effective especially in writing.

c. Micro- and Macroskills of Writing

Writing is one of the productive skills that involves producing language rather than receiving language. Based on the Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (Hornby, 1995: 1383), writing is the activity or occupation of writing e.g. books, stories, or articles. This activity is closely related to the English teaching and learning process as writing is one of the English macro skills. As one
of the macro skills, people have to consider its micro skills as well. Brown (2001: 343) enumerates micro and macroskills for writing.

Micro skills:

1) Produce graphemes and orthographic patterns of English

Graphemes is one of a set orthographic symbols (letters or combinations of letters) in a given language that serve to distinguish one word from another and usually correspond to or represent phonemes, e.g. the f in fun, the ph in phantom, and the gh in laugh.

2) Produce writing at an efficient rate of speed to suit the purpose.

When people write they should consider the time for finishing it. The rate of speed is important to adjust the aim.

3) Produce an acceptable care of words and use appropriate word order patterns.

When people write a sentence or paragraph, they have to know about the word order. Word order is very important in English; but it is not complicated, and can be reduced to a few basic rules or principles.

4) Use acceptable grammatical systems (e.g. tense, agreement, pluralization), patterns and rules.

Grammatical systems, patterns, and rules are very important in writing. Both of them will appear when people write something. So, they have
to be careful when they use it. Tense is the time of a verb’s action or state of being, such as past, present, and future. Agreement is grammar correspondence in gender, number, case, or person, between words. Pluralization is the act of pluralizing or attributing plurality to.

5) Express a particular meaning in different grammatical forms.

They have to know where a word or expression is given a particular meaning, other parts of speech and grammatical forms of that word or expression have a corresponding meaning.

6) Use cohesive devices in the written discourse.

An awareness of cohesion and coherence in all texts is a very important skill for students to develop. Cohesion can be thought of as all the grammatical and lexical links that link one part of a text to another. Coherence can be thought of as how meanings and sequences of ideas relate to each other. When sentences, ideas, and details fit together clearly, readers can follow along easily, and the writing is coherent. Cohesive devices certainly include transitional words and phrases that clarify for readers the relationship among ideas in a piece of writing. For example: repetition, synonyms, pronouns, transitional words, and sentence patterns.

Macroskills of writing

1) Use the rhetorical forms and conventions of written discourse.
Rhetorical pattern is a mode in which an article’s details are organized. The rhetorical pattern includes: examples, definition, comparison, and contrast, sequence of events, cause and effect, description, and narration.

2) Appropriately accomplish the communicative functions of written texts according to form and purpose.

There are some types of communicative function according to form and purpose:

Table 1. The Types of Communicative Function

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function type</th>
<th>Communicative task</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Question: yes-no</td>
<td>Conveys information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wh- question</td>
<td>Asks hearer to say whether something is true or false</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternative question</td>
<td>Asks hearer to fill in a missing piece of information, represented by the wh-word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Request</td>
<td>Asks hearer to choose between alternatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Command</td>
<td>Asks for goods and services</td>
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<tr>
<td>Exclamation</td>
<td>Demands goods and services</td>
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Makes an emphatic comment

Examples of other communicative functions:

- Apology: I do apologize!
- Complaint: The service is appaling!
- Echo- question: London, did you say?
- Warning: Be careful there.

- Threat: Stay where you are, or else.

3) Convey links and connections between events and communicate such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, giving information, generalization, and exemplification.

In writing, writing must have to make a clear relation between main ideas, supporting idea, and conclusion so that the information can be delivered to the reader.

4) Distinguish between literal and implied meanings when writing.

Literal meaning means a concrete expression directly. For example: “I hate this ugly dress”. Implied meaning means to indicate expression indirectly. For example: “Well maybe you should wear something else.”

5) Correctly convey culturally specific references in the context of the written text.

People should know how to use a specific reference in a sentence. Reference is the relationship between a grammatical unit that refers to (or stands in for) another grammatical unit, usually a pronoun and a noun. For example: he, she, it, we, and they.
6) Develop and use a battery of writing strategies, such as accurately assessing the audience’s interpretation, using prewriting devices, writing with fluency in the first drafts, using paraphrases and synonyms, soliciting peer and instructor feedback, and using feedback for revising and editing.

Those are used to design syllabus in teaching writing. Brown (2001: 418) points out those skills have traditionally been attempts to identify the micro skills underlying the use of the four macro skills as a basis for a syllabus design.

d. Types of Classroom Writing Performance

According to Brown (2001: 343-346) there are five major categories of classroom writing performance presented as follows.

1) Imitative or Writing Down

Brown (2001: 343-344) states that imitative or writing down means that students “write down” English letters, words, and possible sentences in order to learn the conventions of the orthographic code. The dictation is usually done in this type of writing performance. The steps which are usually applied such as a
teacher reads a short paragraph once or twice at the normal speed, a teacher reads the paragraph in short phrase units of three or four words, and each unit is followed by a pause and during the pause, students write exactly what they hear, and so on.

2) Intensive or Controlled

Brown (2001: 344) states that in the writing activity, intensive writing can be done by presenting a paragraph to students in which they have to alter a given structure throughout. Brown (2004: 225) states that in this stage, the students are intended to produce language to display their competence in grammar, vocabulary, or sentence formation, then to convey meaning for an authentic purpose.

3) Self- Writing

As stated by Brown (2001: 344), self-writing is a writing with only the self in mind as an audience. The activities included in it are note-taking and diary or journal writing. In the note-taking activity, the students take notes during a lecture for the purpose of their recall.

4) Display Writing
For all language students, short answer exercises, essay examinations, and area research reports will involve an element of display. For academically bound ESL students, one of the academic skills that they need to master is a whole array of display writing technique.

5) Real Writing

The example of real writing activities can be seen in the form of academic, vocational or technical, and personal activities. In the academic activities, the language experience approach gives groups of students opportunities to convey genuine information to each other. Content-based instruction encourages the exchange of useful information, while group problem-solving tasks may have writing components in which information is genuinely sought and conveyed. The last one, peer-editing work adds to what would otherwise be an audience of one and provides real writing opportunity.

e. Types of Writing Task

Brown (2004: 221-237) describes the types of writing tasks that may be applied in the teaching learning process of writing. The tasks are presented in the following table.

Table 2. The Types of Writing Tasks Proposed by Brown (2004)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Writing</th>
<th>Types of Tasks</th>
<th>Example of Tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Immitative Writing | a. Tasks in (hand) writing letters, words, and punctuation | o Copying the letters or words.  
|                   |                                                   | o Listening to selection closed tasks.  
|                   |                                                   | o Picture-cued tasks (the students write down the word that the picture represents).  
|                   |                                                   | o Form completion tasks.  
|                   |                                                   | o Converting numbers and abbreviation to words.  
|                   |                                                   | o Spelling tasks.  
|                   | b. Spelling Tasks and detecting Phoneme           | Picture-cued tasks (pictures are displayed with the objective of focusing on familiar words whose spelling may be unpredictable).  
|                   |                                                   | o Multiple choice technique (presenting words and phrases in multiple choice tasks).  
|                   |                                                   | o Matching phonetic symbols. |
| Intensive or Controlled Writing | a. Dicto- Comp                                    | A paragraph is read at a normal speed, then the teacher asks the students to rewrite the paragraph from the best of their recollection. |
|                   | b. Grammatical Transformational Tasks             | Changing tense in a paragraph or changing statements into yes/no questions or WH-questions, combining two sentences, etc.  
|                   | c. Picture-Cued Tasks                             | o Short sentences (writing a brief sentence based on the simple action shown by the pictures).  
|                   |                                                   | o Picture description.  
|                   |                                                   | o Picture sequence description. |

(continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Writing</th>
<th>Types of Tasks</th>
<th>Example of Tasks</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>d. Vocabulary Assessment Tasks</td>
<td></td>
<td>Defining and using words in a sentence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Ordering Task</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ordering or reordering a scrambled set of words into a correct sentence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Short answer and Sentence Completion</td>
<td></td>
<td>Completing the sentence based on the provided clues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tasks</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td></td>
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<td>----------------------------------------</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responsive and Extensive Writing Tasks</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Paraphrasing</td>
<td>A series of questions that essentially serve as an outline of the emergent written text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Guided Questions and Answer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Paragraph Construction Tasks</td>
<td>○ Topic sentence writingtopic development within a paragraph.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>○ Development of main and supporting ideas across paragraph.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mc. Donough (2003: 155) purposes six types of writing that can be applied in the classroom. The six types and the examples will be presented as follows.

1) Personal writing such as diaries, shopping list, packing list, recipes, journals, reminder for oneself, and address.

2) Public writing such as letters, form filling, and applications.

3) Creative writing such as poems, stories, rhymes, dramas, songs, and autobiography.

4) Social writing such as invitations, notes, and telephone messages.
5) Study writing such as making notes while reading, taking notes from lectures, summary, synopsis, reviews, reports of experiments, workshops, essays, and bibliography.

f. Characteristics of Written Language

Written language, like oral language, has several characteristics. Brown (2001: 303-305; 341-342) states that some characteristics of written language both from the writer’s and reader’s viewpoints. First, writing could be said as a permanent product in which the reader has an opportunity to return again and again, if necessary, to a word or phrase or sentence, or even a whole text. The writer, meanwhile, abdicates the certain power such as power to mead, to clarify, and to draw, something which is written down and delivered in its final form to its intended audience.

Second, written language is related to a production of time. It means that written language makes the writers aware of the time limitation because a writer can become a ‘good’ writer by developing efficient processes for achieving the final product with the stretches of time. Next, written language allows messages to be sent across physical distance and temporal distance. In this case, the writers are able to literary schemata, specific subject matter knowledge, and how their choice of language will be interpreted (Brown, 2001-342).

Fourth, related to the orthography, written language captures everything from simple greetings to extremely complex ideas. It means that the written language begins with the easier and the basic ideas and then is followed with the
more complex ideas which are wanted to be produced. Fifth, written language has a complexity that the writers must learn how to move redundancy, how to combine sentences, how to make references to other elements in a text, how to create syntactic and lexical variety.

Sixth, in relation to the vocabulary, written language places a novice demand on vocabulary use than speaking and each word used in the written language presents the certain meaning. Consequently, in written language, the use of words is usually adjusted with the context. Last, related to formality, the written language gives formal features of a written text such as rhetorical, organizational, paragraph topics, etc, which will ensure the difficulty faced by the readers when they understand a written text. The information, then, can be used by them when they produce a written language.

g. Roles of the Teacher in Writing

There are a number of tasks that the teacher needs to perform in the writing classroom in order to help her/his students to become better writers. Among the tasks which the teacher has to perform before, during, and after the students writing are the following (Harmer, 2004:41-42).

The first role is demonstrating. Teachers have to be able to draw such features like writing conventions and genre constraints in specific type of writing to their attention. In whatever way students are made aware of layout issues or the language used to perform certain written functions, for example, the important
issue is that they are made aware of these things—that these things are drawn to their attention.

The second is motivating and provoking. Teachers can help provoking the students into having ideas, enthuse them with the value of the tasks, and persuading them what fun it can be in order to make the students keep going on the writing task. It helps, for example, if teachers go into class with prepared suggestions so that when students get stuck they can immediately get help rather than have, themselves, to think of ideas on the spot.

The third is supporting. Teachers need to be very supportive when students are writing in the class, always available (except during exam writing of course), and prepare to help students to overcome difficulties. Students need a lot of help and reassurance once they get going, both with ideas and with the means to carry them out.

The fourth is responding. When responding, teachers react to the content and construction of a piece supportively and often make suggestions for its improvement. When teachers respond to a student’s work at various draft stages, they will not be graded the work or judging it as a finished product. Instead, they will tell the students how well it is going so far. When students write texts teachers may respond by reacting to what they have said rather than filling their text entry full of correction symbols. Teachers might also make comments about their use of language and suggest ways of improving it but this is done as part of a process rather than part of an evaluation procedure.
The last is evaluating. When evaluating the students’ writing for test purpose, teachers can indicate where they wrote well and where they made mistakes and teachers may award grades; but although test-marking is different from responding, teachers can still use it not just to grade students but also as a learning opportunity. Then teachers hand back marked scripts, teachers can get students to look at the errors they have highlighted and try to put them right—rather than simply stuffing the corrected pieces of work into the back of their folders and never look at them again.

Those five roles should be done by the teacher in teaching writing. The teacher should maximize her/his roles in the writing class so that her/ his students’ writing skills can be improved optimally and they will become better writers.

h. Writing Skills in Junior High School

The essence of teaching writing is guiding and facilitating students to work. This is supported by Brown (2000: 7) who proposes that “teaching is guiding and facilitating learning, enabling the learner to learn, and setting the conditions for learning”. It implies that teaching cannot be separated from learning. When teachers teach writing to students, they do not only teach how to develop ideas in writing, but they also need a serious attention of how to write English sentences grammatically. Hence, teaching writing depends on the teacher’s ability how to teach writing effectively which can makes students’ ability being improved.
Kimble and Garmezy in Brown (2000: 7) claim that learning is a relatively permanent change in behavioral tendency and learning is the result of reinforced practice. It means that in teaching writing, the teacher has to show and help students to learn how to write, give instructions, guide students in writing, provide students with knowledge of writing, and make students to understanding how to write effectively.

Teaching writing for students of junior high school is one of the important things that has to be done well because English is one of the compulsory subjects that has to be thought for students of the junior high school level. English learning in junior high school is targeted to make the students reach the functional level, that is, to communicate written and oral in solving daily problems. One scope of English learning at junior high schools is that students can understand and produce a short functional text and short essay in the form of procedure, descriptive, narrative, and recount (Depdiknas, 2006).

In producing the text, students of junior high schools still make some mistakes in their writing. Edge (1989) as quoted by Harmer (2007: 99) suggests that mistakes can be divided into three broad categories. Firstly, “slips” is mistakes which students can correct by themselves when the mistake has been pointed out to them. Secondly, “errors” means mistakes which cannot corrected by the students themselves and need explanation. The last, “attempts” is when a student tries to say something but does not know yet the correct way of saying it. To respond to student’s mistake, teachers can use feedback that contains specific
criteria for writing task and criteria that have been taught and communicated to the learners.

Writing in junior high schools has some aims to the students. They are intended to understand the meaning of short functional text to interact with their friends, parents, teachers, or people around them. Students can express their ideas in the form of short functional text using many types of language style. Students will also make some shopping lists, advertisements, announcements, greeting cards and instructions. Writing covers some aspects such as, vocabulary, grammar, spelling, punctuation, written expression, make sentences, make paragraphs, and text models.

Students in the junior high school have to know about some kinds of text. Some texts that the teacher uses in their lesson are narrative, explanation, exposition, procedure, and recount. The purpose of the narrative text is to construct a view of the world that entertains or informs the reader or listener. The purpose of the explanation text is to explain how or why something occurs. The purpose of the exposition text is to argue or persuade by presenting one side of an issue. The purpose of the procedure text is to instruct someone on how something can be done. The purpose of the recount text is to retell a series of events, usually in the order they occurred.
2. Genre Based Approach

a. The Nature of Genre

Paltridge (2001: 11) states that genre describe types of activities such as personal letter, advertisement students essay and the term of text type represent group of text which are similar in linguistic form such as procedure, anecdote, and description. Paltridge (2001: 11) states that genre or types of the text is a staged, goal oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of a culture.

Swales (1990: 58) identified a genre as “a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. His definition offers the basic idea that there are certain conventions or rules which are generally associated with a writer’s purpose.

Besides, Martin (1984, as cited in Kay and Dudley- Evans (1998: 309) presented these circumstances as examples of genres: buying fruits, telling a story, writing a diary, applying for a job interview, writing an invitation letter, and so on. Swales (1990) and Martin (1984), as cited in Kay and Dudley- Evans (1998: 309) shared an essential viewpoint that all genres control a set of communicative purposes within certain social situations and that each genre has its own structural quality according to those communicative purposes. Therefore, the communicative purposes and the structural features should be identified when genres are used in writing classes.
b. Text-Based Curriculum and Genre Approach

A genre-based approach is based on a systemic functional theory of language developed by Halliday (1978, 1994), and elaborated by Martin (1992), Christie (1999) and Macken-Horarik (2001) among others. This model of teaching writing has been successful with students from disadvantaged backgrounds (Christie 1999; Macken-Horarik 2001; Rothery 1996). The approach is based on a teaching-learning cycle where strategies such as modelling texts and joint construction are promoted. The approach is based on “learning through guidance and interaction” (Painter 1986, cited in Macken-Horarik 2001:26). There are three stages of the learning-teaching: (1.) modelling a text, (2.) joint construction of a text, and (3.) independent construction of a text.

According to Lin (2006: 2) in Genre-Based Approach, teaching and learning focuses on the understanding and production of selected genres of texts. Teaching and learning around text genres has become increasingly influential in mainstream ELT in a number of situations, including ”primary, secondary, tertiary, professional and community teaching contexts “ involving native speakers of English as well as ESL and EFL learners”. Furthermore explanation from Gao (2007: 5) says that genre approach shows a powerful response to the deficit of process models.

Genre-based approach begins with the whole text as the unit in focus rather than the sentence. The focus on the whole texts implies that there is the
higher level of order and patterning in language than just in sentence-grammar at the level of discourse organization and meta-patterning of grammatical features. A Genre-based approach emphasizes that this higher order must be attended to for effective language use. The specification of genres to be taught is based on the classification used by many systemic functional linguists, especially in application to classroom teaching of English (Lin, 2006).

Gee (2005) states that genre presented a stage or goal- oriented social process: “genres are referred to as the social process because members of culture interact with each other to achieve them; as goal oriented, because they have evolved to get things done; as staged because it is usually takes more than one step for participants to achieve their goals”. Lin (2006) states that genre based approach facilitates clear links to the students’ purposes for writing beyond the writing classroom.

Feeze and Joyce (2002: 24) indicate that: “Approaching language learning from the perspective of texts requires an accompanying methodology which can enable the students’ knowledge and skills to deal with spoken and written texts in social contexts”. They also suggest that genre approach is the most effective methodology for implementing a text-based curriculum. There are three assumptions underlying this method. First, learning language is a social activity, and is the outcome of collaboration between the teacher and the student and between the student and the other students in the group. Halliday (1992: 19) describes language learning as “learning how to mean and to expand one’s meaning potential”. He proposes a language learning model with three outcomes:
students learn language, students learn through language, language students learn about language. This model of language learning shows that social interaction enables language students to develop: a resource for making meaning, a tool for interpreting and organising reality, knowledge about language.

Second, learning occurs more effectively if teachers are explicit about what is expected of students. Many educators are proposing more principled approaches to teaching and learning based on a “visible pedagogy” (Bernstein 1990:73) which clearly identifies what is to be learned and what is to be assessed. The genre approach is concerned with providing students with explicit knowledge about language.

Third, the process of learning is a series of scaffolded development the developmental steps which address different aspects of language. The methodology applied within the genre approach is based on the work of the Russian psychologist Vygotsky (1934/1978) and the American educational psychologist Bruner (1986). Vygotsky proposed that each learner has two levels of development: a level of independent performance, and a level of potential performance. The gap between these two levels which Vygotsky called “the zone of proximal development” (ZPD) (Feeze and Joyce 2002: 25-26).

Vygotsky’s ZPD can be represented as in the following diagram.
Corden (2000:8) suggests that “classroom learning can best be seen as an interaction between teacher’s meanings and those of the pupils, so what they take away is partly shared and partly unique to each of them”. This implies that classroom activities need to be carefully organized in order to provide learning experiences that trigger a child’s development as an individual and social being.
Hyland (2004: 10-11) elaborates the advantages of genre based writing instruction that can be summarized as follows.

Genre teaching is:

1) Explicit. It makes clear what is to be learned to facilitate the acquisition of writing skills.

2) Systematic. It provides a coherent framework for focusing on both language and contexts.

3) Needs-based. It ensures that course objectives and content are derived from students needs.

4) Supportive. It gives teacher a central role in scaffolding student learning and creativity.

5) Empowering. It provides access to the patterns and possibilities of variation in valued texts.

6) Critical. It provides the resources for students to understand and challenge valued discourses.

7) Consciousness raising. It Increases teacher awareness of texts and confidently advise students on their writing.

c. Curriculum Cycle
In the classroom, the activities of genre approach looks like a cycle or wheel, so that it is known as the curriculum cycle (Gee, 2005). The cycle consists of a number of stages. Each stage has special objectives and activities, such as the cycle described by Martin and colleagues in Chappel (2004) are as follows:

1) The field-building activities: that is aiming at immersing the learners in the context of culture and social purpose of spoken text, their temporal and spatial context, the roles and relationships of the related components, and the role of the language within the activity, as well as the medium chosen.

2) The text modeling and a deconstruction of the text involves analysis of the rhetorical staging on the spoken text, the lexical and grammatical resources used.

3) The joint production of similar spoken text is carried out by the teachers and learners.

4) The independent construction of the text by learners themselves.

To implement the 2004 curriculum there were two cycles and four stages recommended as represented in following diagram:
In the first cycle, this study starts from the first stage called Building Knowledge of the Field (BKOF) where teachers and students build cultural context, share experiences, discuss vocabulary, grammatical patterns and so on. All of these are geared around the types of spoken texts and topics they are going to deal with at the second stage.

The second stage is called Modeling of Text (MOT) where students listen to statements of short functional texts, conversations, and monologues that are geared around a certain communicative purpose. For example, if students are expected to produce procedurals texts, then, the short functional texts, conversations, and the monologues are developed with one main
communicative purpose, that is, giving instruction or direction. In short, at the second stage, students listen and respond to various texts with similar communicative purposes.

After listening, students enter the third stage called Joint Construction of Text (JCOT). At this stage they try to develop spoken texts with their peers and with the help from the teachers. They can create different announcements, conversations on showing how to do things, monologues on how to make something and so on. They need to demonstrate their speaking ability and to show confidence to speak.

After having the experience of collaborating with friends, they enter stage four called Independent Construction of Text (ICOT). At this stage, students are expected to be able to speak spontaneously or to carry the monologues that are aimed at giving directions or showing ways to do things such as how to make a kite, how to make a paper cap, and so on. Thus, the first cycle integrates the development of speaking and listening skills.

The second cycle is aimed at developing the ability to use written language. The teachers and students go through all the four stages, but in MOT students are exposed to written texts. Here students develop reading skills, followed by joint construction in writing texts, and finally they write texts independently. Like the strategies employed in the first cycle, activities in this cycle are also geared around the same communicative purpose. Students read short functional texts and procedurals texts, and then they write
texts similar to what they have read. In this way, the integration of the four skills is created by the communicative purpose(s) of texts. Students speak what they have heard, read what they have talked about, and write what they have read.

Feeze and Joyce (2002: 28) also suggest fifth stages that can be applied in foreign language contexts especially if there are bright students in the class or those who are “born writers” who are able to link related texts together. Knowledge on intertextuality can help students to understand how genres change, develop and are transformed for new contexts and purposes (Hyland 2004:81). Citing Crowston and Williams, Hyland presents some fact that among “48 different internet genres, classifies by their purposes, from a random sample of 1,000 web pages, 60 percent were directly reproduced from familiar paper formats and another 30 percent simply added technical changes. Therefore people can say that genre evolution does happen, but it happens slowly. This is the reason why this fifth stage is optional in foreign language and high school contexts. If the situation does permit, the learning stages can be extended to cover the fifth stage.

d. Genre- Based Approach in Teaching Writing

Writing in process approaches is seen as predominantly to do with linguistic skills, such as planning and drafting, and there is much less emphasis on linguistic knowledge, such as knowledge about grammar and text structure.
In the ELT field, Dudley-Evans (1997; 154) identifies three stages in genre approach to writing. First, a model of a particular genre is introduced and analyzed. Learners, then, carry out exercises which manipulate relevant language forms and finally produce a short text.

Genre-based approaches see writing as essentially concerned with knowledge of language, and as being tied closely to a social purpose, while the development of writing is largely viewed as the analysis and imitation of input in the form of texts provided by the teacher.

Gee (1997: 25) says that the process approach generally represents a reaction against the product-based approach whereas the genre approach represented a reaction to the so-called the progressivist curriculum.

Similarity, Kamler (1995: 9) criticizes the genre approach because of its narrow focus on language and text and its lack of attention to the instructional and disciplinary contexts in which texts are constructed.

Swales (1990: 83) pointed out how rhetorical instruction plays as pivotal a role in writing improvement as prior knowledge. In this context, the genre approach is very beneficial because it brings together formal and functional properties of a language in writing instruction, and it acknowledges that there are strong associations between them.

Kay and Dudley-Evans (1998: 310) say that there is no doubt that writing tasks can be more demanding than other language skills, so students at the low
level of proficiency absolutely need something that they can rely on since they have little exposure to English writing.

3. Designing Learning Materials

a. Learning Materials

Tomlinson (1998: 2) states that materials can be defined as anything which is used by teachers or learners to facilitate the learning of a language and it could obviously be cassettes, videos, CD-rooms, dictionaries, grammar books, newspaper, and so on. Tomlinson also says that materials could refer to anything that is deliberately used to increase the learners’ knowledge and/or experience of the language.

From the definition above, the material development is very important in order to facilitate the teaching learning process. Designing or developing the materials must be based on the principles that can be used as a guideline in designing or developing the materials. Tomlinson (1998: 7-21) proposes the principles that are relevant to the development of materials for language teaching which are delivered as follows.

1) Materials should achieve impact.

2) Materials should help learners to fill at ease.

3) Materials should help learners to develop confidence.
4) What is being taught should be perceived by learners as relevant and useful.

5) Materials should require and facilitate learner self-investment.

6) Materials should expose the learners to language in authentic use.

7) Materials should provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve the communicative purpose.

8) Materials should take into account that learners differ in the style.

(Tomlinson :1998: 7-21)

b. The Models of Designing Materials and Tasks

There are three designing material models. The first model is Dubin’s and Olshtain’s models (1986). The second is Hutchinson’s and Waters’ models (1987). Two of them are more concerned at the way of designing or developing the materials. Both will be used as the basis to develop the materials. The third one is Nunan’s model (1989, 2004), which gives many explanations about designing tasks that will be used as the guideline to design be develop the writing tasks. The three models will be presented below.

1) Dubin’s and Olsthain’s Models

Dubin and Olsthain state that developing materials are started by considering the implication of focus within the curriculum. They explain how to
relate the focus to the materials where the focus on language content will be different from that on the process and product.

**a) Focus on Language Content**

Language content includes structure, situations, themes or topics, concepts (notions), and functions. Dubin and Olsthain (1986) use the term Inventory. They are Inventory A for grammar and notion (a list of grammatical topics and notion topics) and Inventory B for-themes and topics, and Inventory C for list of communicative and sociocultural functions.

In Inventory A, the developer has to be able to combine both of the grammatical topics and notional topics in order to show their interaction. Dubin and Olsthain (1986: 108) state that grammatical topics, which should be taught during the course, must be organized in a sequence suitable for systematic learning and for generalizations that can be developed along the way. On the other hand, the notional categories are taught during the course.

Inventory B has two main purposes; they are to provide appropriate cultural contextualization for the language material in the syllabus, and to motivate interest by using topics that are relevant and appealing to a particular group of learners. In this section, the main focus on materials is the topic or themes. The developer has to consider the topics that are interesting for the learners and then design the materials that relate to the topic desired.
In Inventory C, Dubin and Olsthain (1986: 109) provide the information that should be considered when the materials focus on this inventory. They are (1) the typical situation in which speech act is used by native speakers, (2) the extent to which the speech act changes in or selection of the particular utterance according to the participants taking a part, and (3) the most frequent utterances that native speakers use to carry out this speech act in formal and informal setting.

It should be realized that the materials should consist of the three inventories. Hence, the materials developer can combine those inventories and should be the basic one when she/he wants to start to develop materials.

b) Focus on the Process

The thing that should be considered by the materials developer in this section is the expansion of the process dimension of activities whether the activities are global directed at overall language use rather than at discrete elements, cognitive which either prepare learners for or stress intellectual aims, or creative practices which give learners the widest possible opportunities to use language for self expression (Dubin and Olsthain, 1986: 95).

For the list of practice types, Dubin and Olsthain (1986: 95-96) use the term “workouts” which means as language learning and language using activities which enhance learner’s overall acquisition process and providing planners and teachers with a variety of ways through to make this process engaging and rewarding. They also propose ten practice types related to global activities. Those practice types are:
(1) Operational or transformational which enables learners to focus on semantics-grammatical features that are necessary aiming at accuracy in language use;

(2) Warm-ups or relaxes as a motivational workout adds an element of enjoyment and personal involvement.

(3) Informational-centered tasks which enable learners to use language naturally during the activities.

(4) Theatre games, i.e. the activities that stimulate within the reality in the classroom situation;

(5) Meditation intervention which enables learners to experience bridging the information gap while using the target language;

(6-7) Group dynamic activities which provide opportunities for sharing personal feelings and emotion among learners;

(8) Problem-solving tasks which involve the learners in making decisions about issues while using the target language and enables them to focus on the features of the activities;

(9) Transfers or reconstruct information which emphasizes cognitive use of language;

(10) Skill-getting strategies which enables learners to develop their specific skill areas in the target language.
c) Focus on Product

In this section, the material developer has to pay heed to the expansion of the process dimension that is emphasized on skills and needs when the curriculum and syllabus focus on product.

Dubin and Olsthain (1986: 100) state that the communicative approach focuses on message rather than form. Furthermore, they also state that the communicative approach has enlarged the materials developer’s concern with language skills, moving away from the encoding and decoding levels to the use of skills for real communication in real time, those should be provided because they are really needed by learners.

According to Dubin and Olsthain (1986), the four skills in English – speaking, listening, reading, and writing, should be based on communicative goals. It means that the skills should be taught based on its purposes, for example, speaking is defined in the form of the communicative use that the learners will be able to make of it. Listening is also seen as an independent counterpart of speaking, reading and writing and also needs to be based on the communicative goals. Reading may be different from reading a magazine and be focused on the purpose for reading itself, while the writing activity, which becomes and the interactive process is conducted to communicate to the audience.

2) Hutchinson’s and Waters’ Model
Hutchinson and Waters (1987) propose a material design model which is aimed at providing a coherent framework for the integration of the various aspects for learning and basically they describe the development of programs and materials for ESP. In conducting a program planning, Hutchinson and Waters propose two steps. First, in the beginning of the program planning, they begin by doing the needs analysis, meaning that they analyze the needs of the learners first. The second is the continuity from the needs analysis, which is translating the needs into a syllabus design from which the designer designs the materials.

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 96), there are three types of materials design. The first is something like designing materials by selecting from the existing materials, called materials evaluation. The second one is an activity concern at writing the materials by the materials designers or developers themselves, called material developments. It means that the designer or developer writes the materials by themselves. The last one is materials adaptation, which is related to modification of the existing the materials. In this research, the researcher concerned with materials development.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) also state that materials developers need to understand the principles of the materials when they want to develop and define the purpose of the materials themselves. Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 107-108) convey six principles to identify the purposes of the materials which are presented as follows.
a) Materials provide a stimulus to learning a good materials do not teach but encourage learners to learn.

b) Materials help to organize the teaching learning process, by providing a path through the complex mass of the language to be learnt. Good materials should provide clear and coherent unit structure which will guide the teacher and learners through various activities.

c) Materials embody a view of the nature of language and learning. Someone, as an author, is making all manners at the statement about what people think language learning consists of materials. Materials should, therefore, truly reflect what we think and feel about the learning process.

d) Materials reflect the nature of the learning task. Materials should try to create a balanced outlook which both reflect the complexity of the tasks yet makes it appear manageable.

e) Materials can have a very useful function in broadening the basis of teacher training by introducing teachers to new techniques.

f) Materials provide models at correct and appropriate language use. This is a necessary function of materials, but is all too often taken as the only purpose, with the result that materials become simply a statement of language use rather that a vehicle for language learning.
In the basis of the purpose of the materials design model and principles given above, Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 108) propose their materials design model which consists of four elements. Those four elements are explained as follows.

a) Input

Input provides the stimulus materials to activities, new language items, correct models of language use, a topic for communication, opportunities to use their information processing skills and to use their existing knowledge both of the language and the subject matter. The input may be a text, dialogue, video recording or anything depending on the needs analysis defined in the analysis.

b) Content Focus

This element is concerned at the definition of language that language is not an end itself but a means of conveying information and feelings about something. Non-linguistic content should be exploited to generate meaningful communication in the classroom.

c) Language Focus

In this part, the students are provide with the necessary language knowledge that may be used in the communicative tasks and activities and they are also given the opportunities to synthesize and analyze the language.

d) Task
In this step, the language use as the ultimate purpose of language learning is provided to the learners. In this case, the materials should be designed to read towards the communicative task in which the learners use the content and the language knowledge they have learned. The relation of the four elements is presented in the diagram below.

![Diagram showing the relation among the elements of materials design.](image)

**Figure 3: The Relation Among the Elements of Materials Design.**

From the figure above, it is clearly seen that the focus on the materials design is a task. It shows that the input delivers the informations for the content and the language. Then, the information in content and language are applied in the task. It means that the task is an area for applying the knowledge of language. On the other hand, the learners will apply their knowledge of language when they do their task.

3) **Nunan’s Model**
Nunan (2004) explains the way to develop the task for communicative classroom. He also explains clearly about the definition of the task, the component of the task, and how to sequence them. The material design proposes by Nunan will be discussed as follows.

a) Definition of Task

Nunan (1989: 5-6) uses two perspectives in defining the term of task. First, he tries to define tasks from non-linguistics perspective. He cites Long (1985: 89) who states that task is a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. The second one is from the pedagogical perspective in which he gives two definitions of task. First, he (1989: 6) cites Richards, Ratt and Weber (1986: 289) who stated that task is an activity which is carried out as the result of processing or undertaking the language (i.e. as a response). According to them, tasks may or may not involve the production of language and a task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be regarded as successful completion of the task.

Second is the definition delivered by Breen (1987: 23) who defined the task as:

...any structured language learning endenvour which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task. ‘Task’ is therefore assumed to refer to a range of workplans which have the overall purpose of facilitating language learning from the simple one and brief experience type, to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem solving or simulation and decision making. (Breen, 1987: 23)
From this definition, it can be concluded that task is the representation of the activities which should be in relation to some indicators in the curriculum and attain a certain skill.

b) The Component of Tasks

Nunan (1989: 17-93) suggests the six components of tasks: goals, input, activities, learner roles, teacher roles, and setting. Then, Nunan (2004) changes the two components of task. They are activities which change to procedures and activity types which are changed into task types. The six components will be explained as follows.

(1) Goals

Goals are the vague general intention behind any given learning (Nunan, 2004: 51). They provide a point of contact between the task and the broad curriculum. According to Nunan (2004), goals may relate to a range of general outcomes (communicative, affective, or cognitive) or may directly describe teacher or learner behaviour. Goals cannot be clearly stated meaning that the task developers can decide what the goals of an activity are just when they do the activity and relate it to the curriculum.

(2) Input

Candlin (1987) in Nunan (1989: 17) states that input refers to the data presented for learners to work on. It means that many types of data or sources can
be used as a basis of the tasks. This statement is in line with Hover (1986) in Nunan (1989: 53), who suggests that input can be in the form of sources, such as letters, newspapers, picture stories, memos, postcards, invoices, menus, street map, magazine quizzes, recipes, and so on. Further, Nunan (2004: 47) states that input refers to the spoken, written, and visual data that learners work within the course of completing a task.

According to Nunan (1989: 54), when the input is discussed, it will be related to the materials and tasks. The input which is included in the materials should be authentic. The authenticity, in this context, refers to the use of spoken and written materials that have been produced for purposes of communication not for purposes of language teaching, and the tasks should be in the term of ‘real-world’ tasks, meaning that the task should be in relation to the students’ real life in the environment around them.

(3) Activities or Procedure

The component which is changed by Nunan (2004) is this third component. Nunan (2004) changed the term activities into procedure. However, the meaning of these terms are the same. Nunan (2004: 52) defines activities or procedure as what the learners actually do with the input which forms the point of departure for the learning task.

Nunan (1989: 59) also states that there are three ways of characterizing activities. First is authenticity, meaning that the task should parallel with the real world as closely as possible. Second are skill getting and skill using, the stage
where the learner will combine their cognition (knowledge), production, and interaction (real communication) in learning and using language and the last are accuracy and fluency. Third, the analyzing learning procedures is into those that focus the learner on developing accuracy and those that focus on the development of fluency.

(4) Activity Types or Task Types

The second component which is also changed is the fourth component in which activity type is changed into task types. Prabhu, Pattinson, and Richards in Nunan (2004) propose three principal activity types used. They are information gap activity, which involves a transfer of given information from one person to another-or from one form to another, or from one place to another-generally calling for the decading or encoding of information from or into language, reasoning-gap activity, which involves deriving some new information from given information through the process of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationship or patterns; and opinion-gap activity, which involves identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling, or attitude in response to a given situation.

Second, Pattinson (1987) in Nunan (2004: 57-58) proposes seven tasks and activities types, they are question and answer, dialogues and role plays, matching activities, communication strategies, pictures and picture stories, puzzle and problems, and discussions and decisions. The last one is from Richards
(2001: 162) in Nunan (2004: 58-59), who proposed five typologies of pedagogical tasks which are presented as follows.

(a) *Jigsaw task* which involves learners in combining different pieces of information to form a whole.

(b) *Information-gap task* is a task in which students or group of students has a complementary set of information, then they must negotiate and find out what the other parts information in order to complete the activity.

(c) *Problem-solving task* in which students are given a problem and a set of information, and then they must arrive at a solution to solve the problem.

(d) *Discussion-making task* in which the students are given a problem for which there are a number of possible outcomes and they must choose one through negotiation and discussion.

(e) *Opinion-exchange task* in which the learners engage in discussion and exchange of ideas but they do not need to reach agreement.

(5) Teacher roles and learner roles

Nunan (1989: 79) states that “roles” refers to the part that the learners and teachers are expected to play in carrying out learning tasks as well as the social and interpersonal relationship between the participants. Nunan (1989: 80) states that there are several roles of learners, they are:
(a) The learner is the passive recipient of outside stimuli.

(b) The learner is an interactor and negotiation who is capable of giving as well as taking.

(c) The learner is a listener and performer who has a little control over the content of learning.

(d) The learner is involved in a process of personal growth.

(e) The learner is involved in the social activity and the social and interpersonal roles of the learner cannot be divorced from psychological learning processes.

(f) Learners must take responsibility to their own learning, developing autonomy and skills in learning-how-to-learn.

Beside the learners, the teachers also play their role in doing the program of activity. Richards and Rodgers in Nunan (1989: 84) said that the teachers plays the role as catalyst, consultant, and guide. It means that the teachers have to understand how learning takes place and decide the contents and activities that will used in the program. The teachers also play a role in developing the interaction in the activity, and being a learning partner and consultant for their students. Breen and Candlin (1980), still in Nunan (1989: 87), state that the teacher has three main roles in the communicative classroom. The first is to act as a facilitator of the communicative process; the second is to act as a participant, and the third act is an observer on learner.
(6) Setting

Nunan (1989: 91) states that setting refers to the classroom arrangement specified or implied in the task, and it also requires consideration of whether the task is to be carried out wholly or partly outside the classroom.

c) Analyzing Language Skills

According to Nunan (1989: 22), analyzing the language skill is necessary for designing and monitoring tasks because in real life as in the classroom, most tasks of any complexity involve more than one macro skill. Nunan (1989: 23-37) proposes several comprehension tasks related to the four skills, but in this research, the researcher only concerns the macroskills in relation to the nature of writing. Nunan (1989: 35) says that it has been argued that learning to write fluently and expensively is the most difficult of the macroskills for all language users regardless of whether the language in question is a first, second, or foreign language. Furthermore, Nunan (1989: 36) states successful writing involves several categories, as presented below.

(1) Mastering the mechanics of letter formation;

(2) Mastering and obeying conversation of spelling and punctuation;

(3) Using the grammatical system to convey one’s intended meaning;
(4) Organizing content at the level of the paragraph and the complete text to reflect given new information and topic or comment structures;

(5) Polishing and revising one’s initial efforts;

(6) Selecting an appropriate style for one’s audience

d) Grading Tasks

Nunan (1989: 36) cites in Richards, Platt, and Weber (1986: 125) states that grading is the arrangement of content of a language course or a text book so that it is presented in a helpful way. He also states that gradation would affect the order in which words, word meaning, tenses, structures, topics, functions, skills are presented and gradation may based on the complexity of an or its importance for the learner.

According to Nunan (1989: 97) the grading contents for a language programe is an extremely complicated and difficult business, even for syllabus designers who have had a great deal of experience. He considers that the perspective of inputs, learners, and activities are the factors that the involved in determining difficulty. A brief explanation about those factors is presented as follows.

(1) Input Factors

There are several things that should be noticed about the input. First is the topic. Nunan (1989: 101) states that the abstract topics will pose greater problems for readers than concrete topics. However, he states that the extent of such
problems will depend on the extent of the learners’ background knowledge of the topic in question. Second is the complexity of the text which is affected by the grammatical factors. Third, the amount of support provided to the students will also have a bearing on a textual difficulty. A passage with heading and subheading, for example, which is supported with photographs, drawings, tables, and so on should be easier to process than one in which there is no contextual support. He, finally, states that the extent of such problems will depend on the learner’s background knowledge and the role of the learner in relation to task difficulty is an important one.

(2) Learner Factors

The learner’s background knowledge which will influence the comprehension of the learners is included in this factor. Pearson and Johnson in Nunan (1989: 102) suggest that comprehension is a process of building bridge between the known and the unknown so the designer should start with a knowledge framework to attempt to fit new information into it. Brindley still in Nunan (1989: 102) suggests that in addition to background knowledge, learner factors will include confidence, motivation, learning place, and observed ability in language skills, cultural knowledge or awareness, and linguistic knowledge.

(3) Activity Factors

According to Brindley (1987) in Nunan (1989: 109) the relevance, complexity, amount of context provided prior to tasks, process ability of language of the task, amount of help available to the learner, degree of grammatical
accuracy or contextual appropriacy and time available to the learner are the factors that will determine the complexity of what learner has to do. Nunan (1989: 110) cited in Candlin and Nunan (1987), suggests that activities can be graded according to the general cognitive demand they make; attending and recognizing, making sense, going beyond the information given, and transferring and generalizing.

B. Conceptual Framework

Considering the aims of teaching English stated in the School Based Curriculum that the students should be able to communicate both in written or oral language, the researcher is convinced that the students should master the four English skills. In regard with this statement, writing is one of the basic skills that should be mastered by the students. Writing is usually considered as a complex activity because there are many elements included in it, such as grammar, sentence structure, vocabularies and the type of texts that should also be understood by the students.

Realizing that writing is a complex activity, the researcher concludes that there is a way that should be done to make the students interested in doing the writing activity. It is by providing good writing materials. Good materials do not teach but encourage the learners to learn. The materials, furthermore, should represent the students’ needs. Besides, the materials have to meet students’ interest, experiences, and future and the policy stated in the School-Based
Curriculum. Developing the materials is an important point since it helps the students to reach their purposes in the teaching and learning process.

Based on the theories, the basis of the researcher to develop the material is the procedure in developing the materials themselves. First, the researcher needs to understand and comprehend the curriculum and the theories of developing of sequencing the material. Then, the researcher needs analyzing in order to find the students’ needs. A need analysis which is aimed at finding the learners’ need and interest.

Next, the result of comprehending the curriculum, the theories of developing materials, and the analysis of students’ needs and interests are used as a basis in developing the course grid, writing materials, and designing the tasks and activities. When the materials have been designed, the materials are used in teaching and learning process.

The material however, must be tried out first in the school in order to know whether they are suitable or not. Besides, the evaluation is also conducted by the researcher through giving questionnaire or interview some respondents to get the feedback from the students. Finally the result of the tried out and questionnaire or interview are used as an evaluation to revise the materials.