Second Language Research and Pedagogy

Towards the Development of English Language Teaching in Indonesia

Editors:
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Second Language Research and Pedagogy: Towards the Development of English Language Teaching in Indonesia is a book containing 15 chapters. The book was originally a collection of papers written by 14 students of the Doctorate program in English Language Teaching at State University of Malang, Indonesia. The students attended a course on “Topics of Research Interest” which requires them to write a review of literature concerning the topics of research for their Doctorate Dissertation. Chapter 7 was written by the first editor of this book who was also the Professor teaching the course to the students.

Following the completion of the papers, the students were asked to present their written work in a one-day conference. The conference was attended by about 150 participants consisting of students from both Master and Doctorate programs, as well as English teachers from Malang City and some towns in East Java. It was held on May 7, 2011, with the theme “Current Issues on English Language Teaching Research and Pedagogy.” Then, there was an idea from the students to represent the conference papers into a book. Therefore, we, on behalf of the conference team, worked together for the editing process.

It is important to note that Doctorate students write topics of their dissertations based on their research interest. Therefore, the topics that they proposed are so heterogeneous that makes it difficult to be compiled in a single theme representing all of the topics. However, there are at least two common grounds for the various topics. First, chapters in this book are commonly based on the existing theories of second language acquisition (SLA). Thus, the theory of SLA provides a basis for discussion of issues leading to a focus on English Language Teaching (ELT). Second, the theories are discussed to support the research on the topic of the dissertation.

As a matter of fact, the coverage of certain topics has been made sufficient for the investigation of the topic of the dissertation; thus, they may not constitute an extensive and comprehensive review of literature for that topic. Regardless of these tendencies, the review is expected to be able to link between the theoretical bases of second language teaching and learning, leading to the development of empirical investigation and practical contribution in the area of ELT.
We would like to thank all of the contributors of the chapters in this book. We also express our gratitude to all of the conference participants and the administrative staffs at the School of Graduate Studies at State University of Malang who have supported the conference. Finally, we give our appreciation to Ms Shirly Rizki Kusumaningrum for working as a member of the organizing committee and assisting us in the finalization of this book.

Malang, September 1, 2012

Bambang Yudi Cahyono
Editors

Rohmani Nur Indah
SECOND LANGUAGE RESEARCH AND PEDAGOGY: TOWARDS THE DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING IN INDONESIA

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Research and pedagogy are like two sides of a coin. Each side shows a different thing, yet the two sides makes up the coin, something which has a value for the users. Research deals with technical knowledge, whereas pedagogy deals with practical knowledge. Each of these types of knowledge has its own characteristics. However, when research examines pedagogical practices or when pedagogy uses insights from research, the integration of the two types of knowledge provides a lot of advantages. These advantages include, for example, the great magnitude of the significance of research and the improvement of the quality of education.

Situated in the context of second language (L2) teaching and learning nowadays, this book attempts to examine whether current research and pedagogy represent two sides of a coin or whether they intersect in some way so as to contribute to better understanding of both theory and practice of L2 teaching and learning. It presents literature reviews on the current issues of L2 teaching and learning from both empirical and pedagogical perspectives and highlights the trends to which direction L2 research, especially English as a foreign language (EFL) research should be conducted and the teaching and learning of EFL should be practiced in Indonesia.

This edited volume consisted of 15 chapters which are organized into 5 parts. They are (1) Language skills and critical thinking, (2) Strategies in language learning, (3) Assessment in language learning, (4) Young learners’ language learning, and (5) ELT and teachers’ professional development. The
remaining part of this Introduction briefly outlines each of the fifteen chapters.

In Chapter 1, Syarifudin presents a review of the teaching of speaking, focusing on the various ways that can be done by English teachers when teaching this productive language skill. His main goal in discussing speaking is to depict the ways in which teaching speaking encourage students to engage in appropriate speaking activities both inside and outside the classroom. This is based on his opinion that classroom learning is only one way to practice and learn speaking, but multitudes of opportunities for learning and practicing speaking exist outside the classroom in English context. Therefore, he intends to remind English teachers and anyone who concerns with teaching speaking to help students to develop speaking habit and use it in real communication.

In Chapter 2, Toyyibah discusses some basic concepts of pragmatic and communicative competence, interlanguage pragmatic competence and studies of pragmatic competence of Indonesian EFL learners. In the process of learning second/foreign language, learners’ knowledge on their first language (L1) cultural aspects are frequently transferred into their comprehension and production of second language (L2) speech acts. This phenomenon of interlanguage pragmatics has been discovered in various contexts of second/foreign language learning. This chapter ends with the presentation of studies on the pragmatic competence of Indonesian EFL learners including how they use expressions of religiousness.

In Chapter 3, Esti Junining reviews the concept of critical thinking involving elements and standards of reasoning rooted from Bloom’s taxonomy of cognitive domain. Besides discussing the nature of critical thinking, relating critical thinking to reading skills, she also elaborates a series of assessment procedures to determine the status of a critical thinker. Some pedagogical implementation and cultural constraints are discussed comprehensively at the end part of the chapter as well. Finally, some criteria are outlined to determine whether a critical thinker is at the lowest level of thinking critically or he or she is at the accomplished level of critical thinking, or somewhere between the lowest to the advanced level.

In Chapter 4, Rohmani Nur Indah presents her review of the literature to understand the relation between critical thinking and critical writing. First of all, she elaborates the definition, conceptions, and key characteristics of critical thinking. Then, she presents critical thinking rooted from
Bloom's taxonomy and discusses the stages of critical thinking. She also proposes a cyclic model of critical writing with an emphasis on writing as an integrated critical thinking process. Finally, she provides supports for her argument that writing and critical thinking have strong link by presenting evidences from various courses employing writing tasks. Indah recommends that the teaching of writing critically incorporate the teaching of critical thinking skills and its assessment.

In Chapter 5, Rita Amalisa presents her reviews on Language Learning Strategy (LLS). She considers that LLS is something which has been dealt by human as early as the practice of the language teaching began. First of all, she examines some different definitions on LLS, and states that regardless of the various definitions of LLS, the definitions refer to the same idea and concept about LLS. She then analyzes some factors that affect LLS that include learner’s beliefs, age, gender, the level of proficiency, cultural background, career choice, motivation, learning style, experience in language learning, tolerance of ambiguity and type of task. Finally, based on the Indonesian context of bilingual education, she strongly proposes that the students need to be encouraged to use any LLS which suits them the best for their success in their learning.

In Chapter 6, Ary Setya Budhi Ningrum discusses mind mapping as a strategy that can be done before writing. Ningrum firstly explains the nature of writing which includes its definition and its role in English classroom. She then highlights writing process and elaborates each of the stages in the writing process. Furthermore, she introduces mind mapping by explaining the basic concept of mind mapping as suggested by the proposer of the activity, that is Tony Buzan. Ningrum then outlines the seven steps to create mind mapping. Ningrum emphasizes the function of mind mapping as a means of organizing ideas, knowledge, or information which is created in the form of conceptual or visual representation. Further, Ningrum also relates the use of mind map with the issue of different brain structure between males and females. Finally, she suggests that the review of using mind map across gender differences can link between pedagogy and neuroscience.

In Chapter 7, Bambang Yudi Cahyono reviews the issue of second language vocabulary learning. He initially explains the notion of words and word difficulty. He then explains some ways that enable vocabulary learning which include making the most of the role of contexts for incidental L2 vocabulary learning. The contexts highlighted include reading materials, lexi-
cal environment and native speakers' environment. He then focuses on the role of explicit teaching of L2 vocabulary. Best ideas for teaching vocabulary were also outlined. Finally, he discusses strategies for L2 vocabulary learning which include hookword method, learning from idiomatic expressions, and individual strategies.

In Chapter 8, Andang Saehu discusses high-stakes tests which are assumed to be powerful determiners of what happens in classrooms. Saehu's discussion of the high-stakes tests are divided into several parts. First, he presents a critical analysis on the notion of washback. He then introduces some studies on the washback of high-stakes tests in various countries. Finally, he portrays the directions of washback by determining whether it is positive (leading to the appropriate forms of teaching and learning) or negative (fail to reflect the teaching and learning objectives) and describes the washback in some aspects of teaching and learning process such as curriculum, teaching materials, and learning activities.

In Chapter 9, Nurhadi Muyoto discusses two major issues regarding reading literacy. The first deals with the difference between reading literacy and reading comprehension. In Muyoto's opinion, reading comprehension is learning to read whereas reading literacy is reading to learn. He adds that reading comprehension assesses how good the students master the materials, whereas reading literacy measures how good the students are in preparing to face real life challenges. The second one deals with how reading literacy is related with vocabulary mastery. He explains the functions of vocabulary in language mastery, identifies some ways to select vocabulary items to assess, and shows different types of format for testing vocabulary.

In Chapter 10, Yayuk Widyastuti Herawati attempts to find an appropriate way for assessing L2 learners' writing. She mainly concerns with how to develop writing assessment which is suitable for the L2 learners in Indonesia. Accordingly, she discusses some considerations when preparing an L2 writing assessment in order to achieve the intended objectives. She firstly reviews the nature of writing as the construct in developing a writing assessment. Secondly, she outlines some basic considerations which are worth thinking before developing a writing assessment. Finally, she elaborates the factors in writing assessment, the relation among these factors, and how the factors influence the L2 learners' writing performance. Herawati also highlighted areas of future research and emphasized the importance of performance-based assessment.
In Chapter 11, Like Raskova Octoberlina examines ways to familiarize young learners with English to create automaticity in producing the English as a second language. For this purpose, she outlines the concept of second language acquisition by highlighting the difference between competence and performance and how each plays its role in the development of young learners' second language. She also emphasizes that the success of second language acquisition is influenced by factors such as linguistic input, the learners' characteristics, age, and motivation. In the remaining part of her chapter, Octoberlina explains the nature of interlanguage and discusses several types of interlanguage variation. The types of interlanguage variation include interference, overgeneralization, and simplification.

In Chapter 12, Bambang Harmanto discusses the teaching of English to young learners (EYL) in Indonesia. In the beginning part of the chapter, he explains the way children learn a language and identifies the characteristics of young learners. Based on his belief that young learners' success in second language learning is influenced by the role of teachers, he specifies that characteristics of EYL teachers and identifies their best teaching practices. Furthermore, he suggests that some considerable ways be taken and the best practices for teaching young learners be exemplified. Finally, he encourages English teachers to be more inventive in selecting activities, to teach students in a natural way, and to create an atmosphere of trust and acceptance.

In Chapter 13, Suharyadi discusses Genre Based Approach (GBA) as he believes that it becomes a need to provide students, teachers, and other people who do not really know GBA and its development with a comprehensive and dense elaboration on GBA. The better understanding of GBA will result in better implementation in the classrooms. He explains some reasons underlying why GBA needs to be adopted. Then, he discusses the relationship between GBA and systemic functional linguistics. Further, he highlights the GBA adoption in Indonesia completed with the review of some empirical findings. Finally, for the betterment of ELT quality in Indonesia, he recommends more comprehensive and frequent implementation and research on GBA.

In Chapter 14, Tinny Mayliasari Susilo states her conviction that in the education of Indonesian society, a focus should be given not only on capacity building but also on character building. She then discusses the important issue of character building and highlights the role that English lesson
can have in building students' character. To do so, she argues that the first step would be to design a syllabus that can help teachers conduct successful English language teaching programs that entail content on character building. She then reviews different types of syllabi in order to provide options for teachers to choose the appropriate ones for the mission. She also discusses the underlying theories of syllabus development.

In Chapter 15, Muhammad Amin argues that the quality of a teacher has a significant effect on student learning by supporting the idea that "the better the quality of the teacher, the higher the likelihood to have quality student learning to take place." That is why he posits that to achieve a high degree of quality, a teacher should go through a development process. He then discusses the relationship between teaching and learning and the status of teachers as professionals. He also elaborates components required to be a professional teacher. Towards the end of the paper, he stresses the importance of teachers' efforts in pursuing continuing professional development and outlines various ways that English teachers can undertake to improve their professionalism.
Presentation 2

Critical Thinking in Writing

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Abstract

This paper undertakes a review of the literature on critical thinking in writing with the goal of developing a framework for understanding the relation between critical thinking and critical writing. Theoretically, writing is an effective way of engaging students in critical thinking. The development of writing skill is affected by many aspects involved in the process of generating the dynamic of critical thinking and both reading and writing critically. Definition, conceptions and key characteristics of critical thinking are elaborated comprehensively to highlight critical thinking. Furthermore, the issue of critical thinking rooted from Bloom’s taxonomy is also presented. To break down the critical thinking skills reflected in learner’s writing, teachers can make use of Bloom hierarchy of cognitive domain. Stages of critical thinking are also discussed in depth. This paper also proposes a cyclic model of critical writing that emerges from a review of the literature on the strong emphasis on writing as an integrated critical thinking process. Writing and critical thinking have obviously strong link across different courses and various contexts as it is generalizable. Accordingly, writing critically should incorporate the teaching and learning of critical thinking skills which involve well-designed and specific assessment model.

Biodata

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“Learning without thought is labor lost; thought without learning is perilous.” *(Confucius)*

Human beings are created with a perfect device namely mind to develop thought processing critical thinking skill. This skill also affects the development of language skills including writing. In other words, critical thinking skill shapes writing quality. Therefore, the following literature review deciphers the linkage between critical thinking and writing.

**A. Critical Thinking**

Critical thinking in Indonesian context has been a new refrain especially after Reform Era in 1998 in which the freedom to express one’s thought has become a crucial start to build critical thinkers (Emilia, 2010). As an important skill, critical thinking is defined in this part and further explained in terms of basic elements of it. The description is followed by the stages of critical thinking.

1. **The Nature of Critical Thinking**

The first concept of critical thinking is derived from roots in ancient Greek. The word 'critical' derives etymologically from kriticos or discerning judgment and kriterion meaning standards. The word, etymologically, implies the development of discerning judgment based on standards (Pithers & Soden, 2001). In Webster's New World Dictionary, it equals to careful analysis and judgment which imply an attempt at objective judgment so as to determine both merits and faults.
Applied to thinking, then, the skill involved in critical thinking aims at making judgment and utilizing appropriate evaluative standards in the attempt to determine the true worth, merit, or value of something. This might contradict to general knowledge in which some people may have impression that being critical is simply finding fault with others and other’s ideas. Therefore, critical thinking involves many skills to develop rather than evaluating things only.

Critical thinking has been defined in various ways. In the literature on the nature of ‘good thinking’ and how it might be taught, critical thinking is often used to describe competencies which seem to be applicable to teaching–learning in context but also to learning in many workplace contexts (Pithers & Soden, 2001). Thus, it can be inferred that the definition attempts to exclude creative thinking which emphasizes on creativity and imagination as the creative thinking entails specific competencies.

The competencies in critical thinking are articulated in corresponding ways in several definitions. Yet, the common purpose to understand the definitions is the need to develop the learner’s critical thinking. Critical thinking viewed from its end is defined as reasonable, reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do (Hofreiter et al., 2007). Critical thinking is also defined as the skill at conceptual and argument analysis, to recognize false inferences and logical fallacies, to be able to distinguish bias from fact, opinion from evidence, and so on. In other words, this kind critique of unexamined and possible faulty assumptions are perhaps most famously articulated in the scientific method’s principle of falsifiability where intellectual effort is devoted (Brookfield, 2007). Critical thinking is the process of purposeful, self-regulatory judgment, which drives problem-solving and decision-making (American Psychological Association, 1990). To summarize, critical thinking is characterized by one’s competencies on using reasoning and logic focusing on what to believe or do based on the mechanism such as conducting conceptual and argument analysis for problem solving and decision making.

There are two broad conceptions of critical thinking, namely general and specific conceptions. The former relies on the belief that critical thinking is generalizable and accordingly the learners may apply it in different context or
matters. The later argues that critical thinking is context specific involving background knowledge on certain subject matter only and in another (Emilia, 2010). In this case, the general conception soundly supports the belief that the teaching of this skill should refer to the development of critical thinking which is expected to be sustained across different contexts and subject matters.

2. Basic Elements of Critical Thinking

In 1956, Benjamin Bloom developed a classification of levels of intellectual behavior important in learning. His work in the 1990's was then updated by a new group of cognitive psychologist, lead by Lorin Anderson (his former student). The current taxonomy is considered reflecting relevance to 21st century work.

![Figure 1. Old and Revised Bloom’s Taxonomy on Cognitive Skills (adapted from Overbaugh & Schultz, 2008)](image)

As depicted in Figure 1, the change of the taxonomy from Noun to Verb essentially reflects the development of cognitive process. The three top stages of the original taxonomy consist of analysis, synthesis and evaluation. The first is characterized by the ability to separate material or concepts into component parts so that its organizational structure may be understood including the ability to distinguish between facts and inferences. The middle is on building a structure or pattern from diverse elements. This is done by putting parts together to form a whole, with emphasis on creating a new meaning or structure. The last is to make judgments about the value of ideas or materials (Clark, 2010). The cognitive aspects shown in learner’s writing comprise the three stages above.

In the new version of the cognitive classification, the top competence is on creating which deals with the learners’ skill to create new product or point of
view. It is reflected by the verb to assemble, construct, create, design, develop, formulate, and write. This is done after the learners pass evaluating stage in which they can justify a stand or decision by using the verb appraise, argue, defend, judge, select, support, value, or evaluate. This ability requires analyzing or the skill to distinguish between the different parts of a discourse revealed by the verb to appraise, compare, contrast, criticize, differentiate, discriminate, distinguish, examine, experiment, question, or test (Clark, 2010). These three top competencies demand the accomplishment of applying the information in new way, understanding ideas or concept and remembering certain information.

In 1990, a group of 30 experts convened in a Delphi study and determined that critical thinking is a process divided into skills and dispositions. This conceptualization of critical thinking encompasses several cognitive skills that include: 1) analysis (the ability to break a concept or idea into component pieces in order to understand its structure and inherent relationships), 2) inference (the skills used to arrive at a conclusion by reconciling what is known with what is unknown), and 3) evaluation (the ability to weigh and consider evidence and make reasoned judgments within a given context) (American Psychological Association, 1990).

Other critical thinking skills that are similarly relevant to science include interpretation (the ability to decide what to believe based on logic and the consequence of the decision), explanation (the ability to communicate the reasoning process to others), and self-regulation (the ability to monitor one’s correct flaw in logic). This disposition toward critical thinking can be understood in terms of open-mindedness, inquisitiveness, cognitive maturity, truth-seeking, analyticity, systematicity, and critical thinking self-confidence (Ernst & Monroe, 2004). These have become the most common definition on critical thinking to date attributing the description on what one should do to use critical thinking.

3. Stages of Critical Thinking

As it is conceived, critical thinking involves abilities in addition to certain dispositions. Although evaluation is seen as a core ability, hence, it deals with more skills such as identifying a problem and its associated assumptions;
clarifying and focusing the problem; and analyzing, understanding and making use of inferences, inductive and deductive logic, as well as judging the validity and reliability of the assumptions, sources of data or information available (Hofreiter et al., 2007). These activities are not done all at once but they belong to stages of critical thinking done in continuum or in cyclic process.

Critical thinkers have some transferable domains in their disposition such as being ‘open-minded’, ‘drawing unwarranted assumptions cautiously’ and ‘weighing the credibility of evidence’ (Brookfield, 2007). These abilities and dispositions occur within a global perspective in which thinking is conceptualized as a type of reasoned argument with an explicitly social dimension.

Eight essential stages on critical thinking and creative thought are important to underline. They are: asking question and be willing to wonder, defining the problem, examining the evidence, analyzing assumption and biases, avoiding emotional reasoning, avoiding oversimplification, considering other interpretation and tolerating uncertainty (Wade, 1995). These stages encourage the learners to develop their mind and critical thinking although they could perform differently in different stages.

Those who think critically typically engage in intellectual practices of the following sort: monitoring, reviewing, and assessing the goals, the way issues and problems are formulated, the information, the data or evidence presented, and the quality of reasoning being developed. In monitoring, reviewing and assessing, these intellectual constructs encourage them to strive for such intellectual ends as clarity, precision, accuracy, relevance, depth, breadth, and logicalness (Ernst & Monroe, 2004). Each of these modes of thinking helps us to accomplish the ends for which we are thinking and hence to solve the problems identified.

In the stages of critical thinking, the analysis done is also affected by emotion and morality which are not addressed in traditional critical thinking techniques (Hofreiter et al., 2007). Therefore, some aspects or factors influencing the development of critical thinking become the additional issue relevant to ELT context. This is to determine the effective technique for progressing critical thinking skill addressed to solve complex problems.
To conclude, critical thinking is characterized by one’s competencies on using reasoning and logic focusing on what to believe or do based on the mechanism such as conducting conceptual and argument analysis for problem solving and decision making. The teaching of this skill should refer to the development of critical thinking which is expected to be sustained across different contexts and subject matters. In writing context, it is expected that the cognitive aspects shown in learner’s writing comprise the ability to analyze, evaluate and create arguments. These proceed to the disposition of open-mindedness, inquisitiveness, cognitive maturity, truth-seeking, analyticity, systematicity, and critical thinking self-confidence.

B. Critical Writing

Writing as a process is seen as a recursive rather than linear, meaning that it includes prewriting, drafting and revising activities. During the process, fluency is considered more important than accuracy by helping learners understand well their own composing process (Brown, 2001). In the context of academic writing, this process requires learners critical thinking in treating the information related to the issue to be developed into an essay. Learners need to stimulate the recall of information for the purpose of reproducing knowledge (Craswell, 2005).

Writing leads to learner’s skill to identify a purpose, to produce and shape ideas and refine expression as well (White, 1995). This means that learners are generating ideas by using problem-solving process employing a range of cognitive and linguistic skills. Accordingly, the teaching of reading and writing critically is significant especially for tertiary students. It aims at developing skills of critical thinking as well as critical reading and writing practices.

Critical writing is inseparable from reading critically. In order to write a good analysis and evaluation on a topic, careful critical reading of sources is essential to strengthen the argument. The judgments and interpretations made based on the texts are the first steps towards formulating the writer’s own
approach (Knott, 2009). By reading critically, learners can develop reflective skill before they actually starting to write critically.

Therefore, it can be stated that critical thinking plays an important role in the development of writing skill. In addition such a development is also affected by the ability to read critically. This process generates the dynamic of critical thinking and both reading and writing critically.

1. Writing and Critical Thinking

Research found how to engage students more fully in deep critical thought through writing. A six month study in science classroom, sought to understand if writing in the science classroom would improve depth of thought primarily displayed through lab reports. The students were involved in co-generative dialogues with the instructor and received feedback from lab report drafts. The results indicate that written assignments in the classroom, critical thinking skills, and instructor feedback on student lab reports promotes deeper levels of thought on scientific concepts (Barry, 2007). This signifies the strong bond between writing and critical thinking.

Not only in science classroom, writing can improve critical thinking skill in a general education biology course. The critical thinking performance of students who experienced a laboratory writing treatment was compared with those who experienced traditional quiz-based laboratory. The results indicated that the writing group significantly improved critical thinking skills whereas the nonwriting group did not. In addition, analysis and inference skills increased significantly in the writing group but not in the nonwriting group (Quitadamo & Kurtz, 2007). Thus, critical thinking skill taught prior to writing instruction significantly affected critical thinking performance. With improved critical thinking skill, learners will be better prepared to solve problems given in the learning context.

Related finding on the link between writing and critical thinking is also reported in an experimental foods course. In the course, students were given
guideline for journal writing about what they think about and to reflect on their own personal values. The topics of the journal entries cover several of the core competencies as well as address several “success skills” needed (such as written communication, critical thinking, professionalism, life-long learning, interaction skills, and organizational skills). Students must reflect on classroom learning, read to understand reference and other material, clarify and understand what went on in the experiment, or take a stand or express an opinion on various value statements. The assessment was made on the gains in learning, comments from the students indicating that learning took place, critical reasoning occurred, and personal values which were analyzed (Iwaoka & Crosseti, 2008). These activities required that the student learn, use, and practice multiple cognitive skills. Such worthwhile learning activities may yield in the development of critical thinking skills.

In the context of public relation course, the connection between writing and critical thinking is obvious in peer-evaluation assignment. This task encouraged students to think critically, synthesize information and write about public relations course material. Because peer reviewers offer concrete suggestions to the original authors, students tended to report that the peer-evaluation process improved their writing skills, critical thinking ability, and their understanding of public relations concepts and theories (Todd & Hudson, 2007). This demonstrates how peer evaluation can be a positive learning exercise that prompts students to develop higher-order cognitive skills and to improve their writing skills while learning content course concepts.

In psychology class, the association between writing and critical thinking is also undeniable. The written work given had several advantages over oral discussion and assessment of student’s critical thinking. The study employed a set of short writing assignment that can tap eight essential stages of critical thinking and creative thought. They are: ask question and be willing to wonder, defining the problem, examine the evidence, analyze assumption and biases, avoid emotional reasoning, avoid oversimplification, consider other interpretation and tolerate uncertainty (Wade, 1995). The finding shows that encouraging critical
thinking through writing could guide them to shape the way they construct thought and to become more critical thinkers.

Writing and critical thinking has obviously strong link across different courses. The findings above support the conceptions that the teaching of critical thinking, given either explicitly or implicitly, is generalizable. Accordingly, the learners may apply the critical thinking skills gained in different context or matters.

Putting it back to the context of ELT in Indonesia, the teaching of writing critically to tertiary students aims at developing skills of critical thinking (Emilia, 2005). In addition, the current implementation of Genre-Based Approach can help students to develop their writing skills as well as critical thinking and critical literacy (Emilia, 2010). These reveal that critical thinking skill shapes writing quality and vice versa, the writing practice may lead to better performance in critical thinking.

2. The Model of Critical Writing

The model for critical thinking involved in writing emphasizes on the process-oriented approach of the scientific method described in Figure 2. The model is adapted from Zerba (2001) with some modification on the activities done during reading and writing stages. In addition, the result of the writing namely the learners essay is connected with cognitive domain (Overbaugh and Schultz, 2008). This means that the quality of the essay writing involves the development of several cognitive skills.
Focus or observation begins each cycle of the model, where one engages in a particular subject matter. In reading stage it deals with the text as reference and on ideas to develop in the writing stage. The question or hypothesis is made on the idea about how a system works. This part concerns with the text identification and the writing plan which is generated in the form of content.

The next component that is analysis and deliberation become the action component of the model. Here, the data of the content of the question must be scrutinized, using the most rigorous and critical procedures available. Learners evaluate whether the data are valid and use data to make generalizations. In
reading stage the generalization is made on the concept learnt. Meanwhile, in writing stage this is involves in drafting and editing process.

As the last part of the cyclic model, decision or description of the solution impinges on the choice of “best“ answer to the problem. In reading this is done on the concept to develop, while in writing stage it is completed in revising and publishing process. When it leads to a new observation or focus, the cyclic model would once again be placed in motion, returned to and gone through again and again.

Once the cyclic model has resulted essay as a product, the quality of the essay writing involves the development of several cognitive skills. Starting with the ability to remember certain information, learners are supposed to understand ideas or concept followed by the ability to apply the information in new way. These stages are fundamental before they actually do the analysis or breaking the concept into component pieces. This proceeds with making inference in evaluation to arrive at a conclusion by reconciling what is known with what is unknown. As the final stage learners are able to create their argument in the form of well-structured and convincing claim development.

C. Assessing Critical Writing

In assessing critical writing, there are some aspects to consider such as the assessment purpose, the assessment type, and the assessment aids. The first is related to the ideal purpose of assessing writing, the middle covers the choice to make on the writing assignment, while the later discusses various model of assessment aids.

On the purpose of assessing writing, it is important to note that assessment is the gathering of information for the goal of guiding instruction. A good assessment uses specific and appropriate language to describe the data gathered and the patterns that are observed (Peha, 2003). Yet, in general, the focus of writing assessment is on the language used, not on the fulfillment of the task per se. Tasks used to elicit language may resemble real-world writing tasks, but the
purpose is to display language proficiency, not the ability to persuade or apologize. In other words, the readers who score the writing than in whether they feel persuaded or ready to forgive the writer (Weigle, 2002). In this case, critical writing should be assessed not only from the language used but also the fulfillment of successful arguments as the pattern to observe.

In doing the assessment, the rater position should regard the purpose of assessing critical writing. The rater is not ‘measuring’ writing as a scientist; rather, s/he is a humanist analyzing the thinking and reasoning—equally hermeneutic and rhetorical performances—of other human beings (Petruzzi, 2008). More interpretation toward the text is required to figure out what is actually happening in the learner’s thought.

Concerning the type of assessment, there are some reasons underlying the choice between timed and non-timed writing assessment. In-class writing assessment or timed-writing implies pragmatic reason: timed writing tests are a fact of life for many students. Writing tests such as the TOEFL and the IELTS, can have a profound effect on students’ futures. Yet, other teachers might consider ways of modifying the timed impromptu essay to fit the classroom environment. These include strategies such as discussing a topic in class and doing preliminary brainstorming, allowing students to write an essay outline before writing their drafts in class, and/or writing an in-class draft for a grade, followed by revising it out of class based on teacher or peer feedback for a separate grade (Weigle, 2007). The choice must be made based on the instructional objective of the critical writing course.

The teaching of critical writing in second or foreign language context need to consider the limitation of timed-writing assessment. Giving students the opportunity to prepare the content in advance of the writing may allow them to demonstrate their best writing. The opportunity is limited in timed-writing assessment method (Kreth et al., 2010). As second language writers often have difficulties in managing both the content and linguistic demands of a writing assignment, the timed-writing should not be the only assessment type employed in critical writing course.
The choice to make on the assessment type does not only deal with the time but also the tool used, either paper-pencil or computer-based writing. Research found that students paid more attention to higher order thinking activities while evaluating their written texts in the computer session. They revised significantly more at most levels on the computer, and as the result their computer-generated essays received higher scores in argumentation than the hand-written ones (Li, 2006). This finding suggested that educators should seriously consider the impact of computers on writing assessment.

Regarding the use of assessment aids, models of writing assessment are proposed by some research. Nebraska’s Statewide Writing Assessment required a holistic scoring from more than one raters within allowable ranges as prescribed by the rubric. The rubric criteria were identified as ideas and content, organization, voice or tone, word choice, sentence fluency, and conventions. This model has strong support from teachers regarding their perception of the assessment in supporting teaching practices and student success (Dappen & Isernhagen, 2008). The rubric facilitates the raters to assess writing based on the targeted competence of the course.

Another model relies on cognitively based assessments which are built around integrated, foundational, constructed-response tasks. The model places a strong emphasis on writing as it is kind of integrated, socially situated skill since most writing tasks involve management of a complex array of skills. It is in line with the use of Bloom’s taxonomy as a guide for structuring learning objectives (Martin, 2006). This is by the reason that an effective writer must understand grammar, describe how paragraphs work together, analyze the rhetorical situation, and make evaluation on the writing quality. These mental activities belong to the application of Bloom’s taxonomy.

The hierarchy of Bloom educational objective also covers some knowledge dimensions. Factual, conceptual and procedural knowledge is reflected in the ideas written in the learners essay. When the class use portfolio, metacognitive knowledge is assessed because it typically includes samples of students’ best work, self-assessment results, and students’ reflections on the portfolio entries (Gronlund, 2009). Each knowledge requires the practice of the
activities such as remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating and creating.

Another aid for assessing student’s critical writing is by peer-evaluation assignment which encouraged students to think critically, synthesize information and write about a sound argument rather than incorporate surface information into written assignments. Because peer reviewers can improve the grades on their final papers by offering concrete suggestions to the original authors, the peer-evaluation process is helpful to improve both their writing skills and critical thinking ability (Todd & Hudson, 2007).

The use of peer-evaluation in critical writing assessment does not only benefit the writer whose essay is reviewed. With the aid of reviewing peers’ writing, significant gains can be seen in the reviewer’s own writing than did the receivers, who focused solely on how to use peer feedback. Results also indicated that givers at the lower proficiency level made more gains than those at higher proficiency levels (Lundstorm & Baker, 2009). This model is certainly employed to support the assessment done by the teacher.

Student’s performance in critical writing also can be assessed using norm-reference test which is closely related to critical thinking. It consists of two parts, the first of which requires students to respond a series of questions pertaining to an article they have been given to read. The second part requires students to write an evaluation of the article using standards to evaluate the quality of author’s thinking. The eight standards are purpose, question, information, inference, concept, assumption, implication and point of view. Then, each student’s paper is scored by two trained raters using analytical rubric (Crook, 2006). Similar to any other assessment model the rubric is used as a helpful tool to measure the learners’ achievement in both writing and critical thinking.

There are many other types of rubric as assessment aid. Analytic rubrics feature multiple scales that provide diagnostic information useful to both students and teachers. The criteria assessed in the rubric cover: (1) the investigative question explicitly stated; (2) a concise, accurate answer present; (3) samples from published research articles discussed; (4) confidence in conclusions discussed; and (5) overall quality of the statement (Connors, 2008). By using the provided
criteria, the raters may avoid inclusion of unrelated factors, such as grammatical errors, and therefore it ensures consistent measurement of student’s writing performance.

Despite the advantage of using rubrics as assessment aid, study results also indicated that using rubrics may not improve the reliability or validity of assessment if raters are not well trained on how to design and employ them effectively. Many teachers use rubric simply because they believe using any rubric is better than assessing without a rubric (Rezaei & Lovorn, 2010). Consequently, rubrics should be well-designed, topic-specific and complemented with exemplars to be more effective more. This means that rubrics should be developed for a specific purpose and a specific group of students.

Basically, the assessment model makes strong connections with emerging conceptions of writing, literacy and critical thinking suggesting an assessment approach in which writing is viewed as calling upon a broader construct than is usually tested in assessments that focus on relatively simple, on-demand writing tasks (Deane et al., 2008). Any model employed should be oriented to assessing not only the development of the student’s critical writing skills but also on the progress made in term of critical thinking cognitive domain.

In a nutshell, writing critically should incorporate the teaching and learning of critical thinking skills. Education practitioners especially EFL teachers ought to view critical writing class a cyclic model developing leaner’s both writing skills and critical thinking. Further, it entails the need of a well-designed and specific assessment model otherwise the learning objective of critical writing cannot be measured accurately.
D. Concluding Remark

Writing is an effective way of engaging students in critical thinking. The development of writing skill is affected by many aspects involved in the process of generating the dynamic of critical thinking and both reading and writing critically. Accordingly, writing critically should incorporate the teaching and learning of critical thinking skills which involve well-designed and specific assessment model.

To break down the critical thinking skills reflected in learner’s writing, teachers can make use of Bloom hierarchy of cognitive domain. Writing teachers can guide the learners to develop both writing and cognitive skill by applying the cyclic model of critical writing. Writing and critical thinking, generally, has obviously strong link across different courses and various contexts as it is generalizable. Hence, developing learners’ critical writing and thinking subsequently denotes acquiring the competence they need to be lifelong learners.
REFERENCES


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