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STUDENTS' PARTICIPATION IN LEARNING ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING THROUGH WRITING WORKSHOP

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Abstrak

Penelitian ini bertujuan mendeskripsikan dinamika partisipasi siswa dalam belajar karangan argumentasi melalui lokakarya menulis. Subjek penelitian adalah 32 siswa kelas XI SMA. Angket dan observasi digunakan untuk mengumpulkan data, dan pekerjaan siswa juga dikumpulkan untuk memperkuat analisa data. Hasil penelitian menunjukkan bahwa partisipasi siswa dalam membangun wacana argumentasi lisan dan tulis meningkat sepanjang siklus pembelajaran. Siswa berbicara lebih banyak ketika saling berargumen atas sebuah isu, dan menjadi lebih aktif ketika menulis secara kolaboratif dengan siswa yang lain sehingga kemampuan siswa dalam mengartikulasikan pemikiran mereka ke dalam karangan argumentasi meningkat ke arah yang lebih baik. Hal ini ditunjukkan oleh peningkatan pada rata – rata nilai karangan argumentasi dan kualitas argumentasi mereka.

Abstract

The present study aimed at describing the dynamics of the students' participation in learning argumentative writing through writing workshop. The subjects consisted of 32 eleventh graders of Senior High School. Questionnaires and observation were used to gather the data, and the students' works were collected to support the data analysis. The results of the study showed that the students' participation in establishing oral and written argumentative discourse improved throughout learning cycles. The students produced more talk in arguing over an issue, and became more active in writing collaboratively with their peersm so they got better in articulating their thoughts in written argumentation. It was affirmed by the improvements on the mean of the students' argumentative writing and the quality of their argumentation.

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INTRODUCTION

VanDerHeide and Newell argued that engaging students in a set of social practices to learn argumentative writing helped students foster their argumentative writing skills in a procedural way. Crowhurts (1988) asserted that students needed real audiences or readers to write about real issues. In this case, without being involved to interact within social practice, students had no understanding about audience' or readers' "actual beliefs, attitudes, or experiences to gain audiences' identification" (Newell et al., 2011: 289). Consequently, although assertions were worth arguing, argument needs opposition points of view including qualifications and rebuttals (Fulkerson, 1996) to make the argument rational (Toulmin, 2003), so that it would be persuasive (Crowhurst, 1988; Stay, 1999). Joining the idea of VanDerHeide et al. and Crowhurst, viewing the study of argumentation as a set of social practices means engaging students in episodes within a socially mediated setting to provide opportunities for direct interaction with their peers in order to establish argumentative discourse. Not only can students establish their argumentative discourse in oral mode, but the episodes of social practices also help students develop their writing over time impact of the establishment as the argumentative discourse in oral mode, and episodes within the writing stage itself such as peer-engagement through peer-evaluation (Felton & Herko, 2004).

The study of argumentative writing is also viewed from a dialogic/discourse analysis theory which emphasized the dialogic interaction within social practices to establish a relationship with audiences to create persuasive discourse (Evensen, 2002; Felton, & Herko, 2004). For example, Felton and Herko (2004) conducted a case study to engage 11th graders in learning argumentative writing through workshop structured reading, oral debate, reflection, and revision. Oral debate was an example of the dialogic approach. Felton and Herko argued that oral debates engaged students in double-voicing in the degree that they established their own claims; at the same time, shifting their focus to attend opponents' claims through refutations. In this case, Felton and Herko

indicated that during oral debate, students were positioned as a speaker of their own argument, at the same time, "a live critical audience" (p. 680) who provided rebuttals to opponents' claims. Therefore, oral debate gave students a real picture of two-sided arguments which they could then arrange in a written argument.

In addition, Felton and Herko provided a chain of instruction throughout the writing workshop to engage students in social practices as a means to shape their argumentation skills. In this case, Felton and Herko gave students multiple opportunities to elaborate their argument in oral mode through debates, and in written mode through argumentative writing. Furthermore, revision as part of instruction in writing workshop helped students get direct feedback from their peers to analyze their writing strengths and weaknesses in constructing written argumentative discourse. It shows that episodes of social practices support students in fostering their argumentation skills.

In sum, there are several theories operating under the study of argumentation within social paradigmatic notion such as classical theory, new rhetorical theory, social genre theory, and dialogic/discourse theory (Newell et al., 2011; Fulkerson, 1996; Sheehy, 2003; Stay, 1999). These theories reveal the same pattern showing that learning to create argumentation in a socially mediated setting (Newell et al., 2011; VanDerHeide & Newell, 2013) enables students to consider audience (Stay, 1997) in constructing their argumentative writing to the degree that it is sufficiently persuasive (Fulkerson, 1996).

Newell, Beach, Smith, and VanDerHeide (2011) argued that composing argumentative writing engaged students in the complex thinking process which included taking a stance, formulating a claim, giving supporting evidence, providing warrant, and considering counterarguments. It showed that students should consider multiple points of view to defend their stance in certain issues, and ensuring that each element of the argumentative writing correlated to one another. Similarly, Norris and Ennis (1989) argued that through argumentative writing, students could be able to consciously and deliberately produce compelling evidence which was reasonable and reflective of their ability to prove their position on certain issues.

In fact, both argumentative writing and narrative transfered discourse from oral to written mode; however, it was more difficult to transfer argumentative discourse from oral to written mode since it required feedback from interlocutors (Reznitskaya et al., 2007). Additionally, Reznitskaya et al. (2007) elaborated that there was no model of argumentation within oral mode since argumentative discourse was produced in the response of an immediate preceding point within conversation. On the contrary, she emphasized that written mode demanded "a new solitary ability" to produce written discourse since there was particular structure for it (Freedman, & Pringle, 1984: 79 in Reznitskaya et al., 2007). Hence, students have difficulty composing argumentative writing because the particular structure for argumentative written discourse is not learned naturally in everyday lives.

Indonesia has been experiencing a national curriculum shift since its independence was proclaimed in 1945. The latest curricula implemented in Indonesian education curriculum 2006 called KTSP 2006 (school-based curriculum), and 2013 Curriculum (Kusuma, 2013). With all the attention to develop the quality of Indonesian education through several changes in curricula, starting with KTSP 2006, teachers have been urged to provide meaningful learning which encouraged students to be active learners in discovering their own knowledge (Hasnawati, 2006; Kwartolo, 2007). Nevertheless, for almost a decade since being implemented, the application of KTSP 2006 which demanded students' knowledge demonstration has not been in line with a lot of recent teaching practices in Indonesia.

In the case of KTSP 2006, Indonesian teachers were unprepared to implement KTSP 2006 (Sariono, 2013). This circumstance was closely related to the previous educational practices within the implementation of curricula 1984-2004 in English teaching. Lie (2007) claimed that encouraging students to be independent learners in English has emerged since Curriculum 1984. She reviewed previous studies on education policy and EFL curriculum in Indonesia since 1945 to 2005. Then, she indicated that there were shifts

in the commitment of English teaching pedagogy from grammar translation method in 1945 to audiolingual method in 1968-1975, and then, finally shifting to a communicative approach in 1984-2004. The commitment to implement a communicative approach meant that the teacher's domination in student learning should have been decreased since then. However, Lie pointed out that the practices within the curricula 1984-2004 showed that English was not portrayed as language for active communication. Consequently, learning tended to be teacher-centered. When KTSP 2006 was implemented, they were not ready to step out of teacher-centered learning which tended to be a legacy. Despite not having succeeded yet in achieving the purpose of KTSP 2006, Curriculum 2013 was implemented.

Even though Curriculum 2013 had a different concept than KTSP 2006, both curricula shared a similar purpose in challenging students to demonstrate what they have learned in something tangible (Sariono, 2013). In other words, both curricula had a common purpose to encourage student-centered learning. Related to this concept, the present study encouraged students to demonstrate their knowledge of argumentative discourse by constructing an argumentative piece of writing through an active interaction with their peers. In the subject of English, KTSP 2006 and Curriculum 2013 mentioned that grade 11 students should be able to master expository composition such as argumentative writing. To this extent, teachers should be able to promote student active learning to help students achieve this particular learning goal.

Pre-observation in the research site indicated that the students tended to work in solitute to complete their argumentative writing project. Even though I encouraged them to discuss their writing ideas with their peers, they appeared to hesitate doing it. During the whole-class debate which I used to help them generate arguments, the students produced very little talk. The debate was not engaging at all, and it did not optimally help the students to produce solid oral argumentative discourse. Consequently, the students faced greater challenge in writing argumentation. This affected the quality of the students' final products. As much as 68.75% of the students failed to

achieve or surpass the minimum requirement in constructing argumentative writing. To this extent, I inferred that the students needed a learning method which could enable them actively participate in the learning process. So that, they could feel motivated to establish oral and written argumentative discourse collaboratively.

To overcome this problem, a writing workshop is employed to help students learn argumentative writing. Atwell (1998) defined writing workshop as an approach consisting of a series of meaningful tasks from three big sections of reading territory, mini-lessons, and writing territory. Writing workshop has been implemented for decades to support students in writing. Numerous studies indicated that writing workshop could help students write in various genres (Whitney, Ridgeman, & Masquelier, 2011) such as creative writing (Atwell, 1998; Graves, 2004), report (Moore-Hart, 2006), and argumentative writing (Felton & Herko, 2004; VanDerHeide & Newell, 2013). The practicality of writing workshop to teach argumentative writing (Felton & Herko, 2004; VanDerHeide & Newell, 2013) became the reason for choosing writing workshop as the strategy to help students construct argumentative writing in the present study.

In early 1970s through late 1990s, writing workshop had been initially employed to teach students creative writing (Atwell, 1998; Strout, 1970). Nevertheless, recently, writing workshop has been used to teach students various genres (Whitney, Ridgeman, & Masquelier, 2011) such as narrative (Atwell, 1989, 1998; Street, 2005; Kesler, 2012; Strout, 1970), report (Moore-Hart 2006), and argumentative writing (Felton, & Herko, 2004; Morgan, 2010). It shows that writing workshop has functioned as a practicable approach that was applicable for any genre.

Since the early 1970s to the late 1980s, the study of writing workshop has primarily focused on the first language classroom (Manion, 1988; Strout 1970). In the early 1990s, one qualitative case study examined the effectiveness of writing workshop in the ESL classroom. Peyton et al. (1994) conducted a qualitative case study including 16 teachers in applying writing workshop to teach English Language Learners (ELLs) in The Book Projects in Washington, DC.

Peyton et al. found that as ESL students, among individuals, they spoke different languages as their mother tongues. Some spoke Arabic, others spoke Spanish. At the same time, they had to deal with their English proficiency. From her survey and observations, Peyton et al. indicated that although it used to be employed in the first language classroom, writing workshop could be adapted to teach writing for ESL students. In case, Peyton et al. emphasized that teachers should provide more instructional support to reduce students' language barriers due to their English deficiency. However, since students spoke different languages, teachers did not stress the use of the first language to help students understand the English instruction.

On the contrary, there is no empirical research in EFL contexts which investigates the effectiveness of writing workshop. Nevertheless, there is significant potential in writing workshop to be applied in this context. Likewise students in the ESL classroom, in the EFL classroom, students were dealing with English proficiency and the development of writing skills (Bacha, 2012; Yi, 2010). However, in the EFL classroom, teacher and students speak the same language, and students also communicate using the same language as their peers. Therefore, even though there may be language barriers to communicate in English, teachers may be able to find ways to avoid and solve misunderstanding using the same language as the students use throughout the practice.

Several case studies indicated that because of the notion of independent learning, and subsequent meaningful activities, writing workshop motivated reluctant writers (Moore-Hart, 2006; Street, 2005); struggling adolescent readers and writers (Casey, 2009), and students in general to discover their identity through writing practices. For instance, Street (2005) conducted a case study involving a class consisting of reluctant writers (participants were not specified). Street applied shared-authority between teacher and students in the writing process including choosing the writing topic, and developing their ideas. This shared-authority made students feel trusted; therefore, they were motivated to develop their writing responsibly.

Atwell (1998) introduced a series of tasks or social activities within writing workshop to

scaffold students in producing writing products. Those activities include reading territories, minilesson, and writing territories (Atwell, 1998). Atwell elaborated that on one hand, reading territories could be considered when designing independent reading; on the other hand, writing territories could become part of student-teacher conferences as a means for students to communicate their writing problems to the teacher, and peer-evaluation to get feedback on their writing. Nevertheless, previous empirical research indicated that they can adapt the series of activities within writing workshop (Felton & Herko, 2004; Kesler, 2012; Whitney et al., 2011; Moore-hart, 2006).

This study is meant to describe the improvement of the students' participation during the implementation of writing workshop.

METHODS

The present study took place in a senior high school in Blora, Central Java. It was joined by 32 eleventh grade students. A classroom action research design was used with three learning cycles conducted in 3 weeks of participant-observation and data collection. Qualitative-quantitative "convergent parallel mixed methods" following Creswell (2014: 219) was used in both data collection and analysis. The qualitative data were collected from observation and open-ended questionnaire and the quantitative data were collected from closed questionnaires and writing scores.

The video was transcribed, and decoded using Reflective and Analytical Observation Notes following Burns (1999, 2010). The open-ended questionnaires were decoded and categorized

based on the students' responses. Both quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed to assess the students' argumentation skill and the students' writing achievement.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Newell et al. (2011) asserted that students may engage in a set of social practices to learn argumentative writing. In the questionnaire, the expressed concern upon students participation in building oral argumentative discourse and writing collaboratively with their peers. All students in the class admitted challenges in writing argumentation. It was hard for them to exchange thoughts in discussion because they were not used to actively participating in the teaching and learning process. It was hard for them to build oral argumentative discourse as they produced little talk during the discussions. Consequently, they faced greater challenge in writing argumentation.

As the students got familiar with the implementation of writing workshop to help them learn argumentative writing, all students felt more motivated and interested in reshaping their prior knowledge on the topic, and actively participating in both whole-class discussion and small-group discussions. During the writing activities, the students' participation in writing collaboratively including giving peer-evaluation had dramatically improved as they became more familiar with it. We may take a look at the following figure 1 to find out the students' positive respose to the subsequent activities employed within writing workshop to improve participation their in learning argumentative writing.

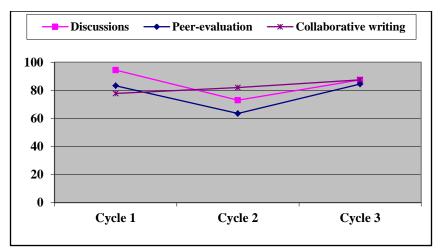


Figure 1 Students' response to the subsequent activities employed within writing workshop

Figure 1 above showed that the majority of the students affirmed the helpfulness of the subsequent activities employed within writing workshop to improve their participation in the process of learning argumentative writing.

The students' participation dramatically improved across cycles. In cycle 1, the students barely produced talk during the discussions. I found out that the students concerned about using English to express their argumentative ideas. Further, range of writing topics was very large in cycle 1; thus, it was hard for the students to engage with their peers discussing their argumentative ideas from different writing topics. As in cycle 2 and cycle3 I gained a control over their writing topic and reading text, and allowed them to use their native languages to deliver their thoughts when they got stuck in finding out the English vocabulary to define their ideas, the students became more relaxed exchanging thoughts with their peers and the teacher. We may take a look at the following conversation.

Student 30: I think that the Customer C is the murderer.

Student 8: <u>Kok dirimu isa yakin banget</u>? (How could you be so sure?)

Student 30: *Lihat ini, kebiasaan makannya beda* (Look, they had different eating habits). Customer C itu left-handed (Customer C was left-

handed). *Dilihat dari letak sendoknya* (Seen from the spoon position).

Student 2: Aku setuju (I agree). Yang bikin bingung itu jejak kaki mereka itu lho.. (What makes confused were their footprints..)

.....

Student 30: Jangan – jangan ini pembunuhan berencana (It might be a planned murder). Dan Ernie juga turut membantu (And, Ernie was the accomplice). Mungkin aja kan (It could be, couldn't it)? Jejak kaki ini kaki Ernie yang ambil air dari keran dapur (These footprints belonged to Ernie who took water from the kitchen sink)? Lihat, ini ada air (Look, there was water here).

Student 2: <u>Nah, lha jejak kaki sing iki</u> (What about these footprints)? (Pointing at the other footprints)

The conversation above showed the students became more active participating in small-group discussions. Across cycles, they demonstrated more active participation in the subsequent activities of completing their argumentative writing project.

We may take a look at Figure 2 to see the improvements on the mean of the students' argumentative writing scores and the quality of the students' argumentation.

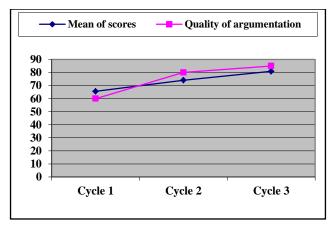


Figure 2. The students' improvements on the writing scores and quality of argumentation

In terms of mean of the students' scores, the students could successfully improve their argumentative writing scores from 65.55 in cycle 1 which was below the minimum requirement to be 80.86 in cycle 3 which surpassed the minimum requirement. In terms of the quality of the students' argumentation, the students could dramatically improve their quality from the level of poor in cycle 1 to good in cycle 3.

There were two patterns of analysis that could inferred from the analysis of the databases. First, language barriers became one of the major factors which obstructed the students' active participation in learning argumentative writing. The students should go back and forth in the continuum of Indonesian, Javanese, and English languages to comprehend the reading text and write argumentation. Considering background as EFL students who did not use English in everyday interaction, it was very hard for them to articulate their thoughts in oral and written modes. In this case, teacher should be responsive (Pacino, 2008) culturally understanding the social contexts of language learning (Shin, 2013) in order to provide comfortable class athmosphere in learning second or foreign language. Consequently, as I allowed the students to use their native languages when they got stuck finding vocabulary to define their ideas, the students became more relaxed delivering their thoughts. Further, the discussions became more dynamic and fluid.

Secondly, the nature of argumentative writing which was more challenging than the other genres became a bigger challenge for the students to write better quality of argumentation. Like the

other genres, argumentative writing also required transfer from oral to written discourse. However, comparing to other genres, argumentative writing was challenging for the students because there was no model for oral argumentative discourse and written argumentative discourse was not learned naturally in everyday lives (Reznitskaya et al., 2007). As a result of minimum interactions in building oral argumentative discourse, the students as novice writers faced greater barrier in writing argumentation. Nevertheless, diminished the students' language barrier, it helped the students to more actively participate in establishing oral argumentative discourse. After they became more knowledgeable about their topic and could build more solid argumentative discourse, it helped the students lessen their challenge in writing argumentation. Consequently, they could dramatically increased the mean of their argumentative writing scores across cycles from 65.55 to 80.86 and improved the quality of their argumentation from poor to good.

CONCLUSION

Students' participation in learning argumentative writing had dramatically improved across cycles. By lessening the students' language barriers (Shin, 2013), the students could be more confident to exchange thoughts and ideas. Their argumentation skill in establishing argumentative discourse with their peers was improving along the cycles. Further, as the students became more familiar with application of writing workshop, they became

more relaxed to engage in collaborative writing throughout the teaching and learning process across the cycles. Dramatically, discussing ideas, communicating writing difficulties, and giving peer-evaluation became common activities to help them accomplish their writing project.

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