CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND METHODOLOGY

2.1 Reading as one of the learning teaching activities

Teaching is an activity of educating, instructing that impart knowledge or skill. This activity needs two people that role as a giver and a receiver of knowledge or skill. The knowledge itself can be in any kind of things and ways. There are four basic things of language teaching, they are; Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing. Each of them stands on the stages related to the basic stages human ability in learning language, mother language and even second language. One of the stages is reading.

Reading is an activity of reproducing mentally or vocally the words of book or other reading materials, as we can find its definition in Oxford dictionary, page 699. This activity is about understanding written texts. It is a complex activity that involves perception and thought. Reading consists of two related processes: word recognition and comprehension. Word recognition refers to the process of perceiving how written symbols correspond to one's spoken language. Comprehension is the process of making sense of words, sentences and connected text. Readers typically make use of background knowledge, vocabulary, grammatical knowledge, experience with text and other strategies to help them understand written text. (http://www.ibe.unesco.org/publications/EducationalPracticesSeriesPdf/prac1 2e.pdf)

The method of reading has been proved as an effective way in learning English. In learning by reading, students can learn things. It also opens up the new world and opportunities. It enables us to gain new knowledge, enjoy literature, and do everyday things that is part of modern life, such as, reading the newspapers, job listings, instruction manuals, maps and so on. Most people learn to read in their native language without difficulty. Some children and adults need additional help. Yet others learn to read a second, third or additional language, with or without having learned to read in their first language. Reading instruction needs to take into account different types of learners and their needs. Reading can be done by using any kind of reading material as long as it is relevant and appropriate for the readers. Some use formal material such as text books, others use informal ones such as magazines.

2.2. Magazines

As stated above, reading can be done by using books, magazines, newspapers or other materials. One of the materials can be used is magazine. One definition about magazine from Wikipedia:

Magazines, periodicals, glossies or serials are publications, generally published on a regular schedule, containing a variety of articles, generally financed by advertising, by a purchase price, by pre-paid magazine subscriptions, or all three. Magazines can be distributed through the mail; through sales by newsstands, bookstores or other vendors; or through free distribution at selected pick up locations. (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Magazine)

There are some kinds of magazines, they are news magazine, travel magazines, fashion magazines, food magazines and etc. Each of them has different function and style in reporting events. It all depends on the reader, style and background of the magazines. Magazine itself was first published in 1731 in London. It was the first general interest magazine. Magazines are mostly created limited for people in some range of age with common interest, but there are some magazines that we can catagorized as general. Such as news magazines. News magazine also spelled news magazine, is usually a weekly magazines featuring articles or segments on current events. News magazines generally go more indepth into stories than newspapers or television news, trying to give the reader an understanding of the context surrounding important events, rather than just the facts.

Magazine of Events is an American magazine similar to Newsweek and U.S. News & World Report. A European edition (Time Europe, formerly known as Time Atlantic) is published from London. Time Europe covers the Middle East, Africa and, since 2003, Latin America. An Asian edition (TIME Asia) is based in Hong Kong. As of 2009, TIME no longer publishes a Canadian advertiser edition. The South Pacific edition, covering Australia, New Zealand and the Pacific Islands, is based in Sydney one of news magazine we can find trustful in delivering news to reader. TIME magazine was first published in United States in 1923 by Briton Hadden and Henry Luce as the first weekly magazine. This magazine is a combination of facts and fun. That accounts for its tone, which many people still criticize as too light for serious

news and more suited to its heavy coverage of celebrities (including politicians), the entertainment industry, and pop culture. It set out to tell the news through people, and for many decades the magazine's cover was of a single person. The first issue of *TIME* was published on March 3, 1923, featuring on its cover Joseph G. Cannon, the retired Speaker of the United States House of Representatives.

There are some sections in TIME magazine. Each of the section is used based on its news. They are; Briefing, In the Arena, The Well, Life, Global Business and Arts. Briefing section on the whole consists of news about people and recent news. Sections such as The Moment, The world, Verbatim and History. In the Arena ususally consists of Joe Klein's opinion about the hottest issue in politics. While The Well consists of Cover Story in one edition. Life section consists of general issue that happen around. Global Business consists of some businesses news.. The last section is Arts consists of entertainment news, reviews, celebrity and public figure news.

By looking at those sections in *TIME*, researcher picks the *Briefing* section, *History* part. There are two considerations to choose this part. First, history part has an article that its content (number of words) in it has the same number of words in SMU English text book's article or passages. Which are more or less 250-350 words per passage. Second, the article in history part has interesting topics and catches curiousity because it contains unusual

history of some circumstances, general knowledge that particularly can increase students knowledge.

2.3 Curriculum

Curriculum can be defined as a race course or a place for running. There are also other definition of curriculum such as a set of subjects, a program of studies, a set of materials, a sequence of courses and a course of study. But basically, curriculum is something that can guide a teacher to run a class in a semester.

As John Franklin Bobbitt who was American educationist, a university professor and a writer, a representative of the efficiency minded thinkers said that curriculum, is an idea. An idea which has its roots in the Latin word for racecourse.

2.3.1 Types of Curriculum

There are several types of curriculum, below are the example taken from http://www.uwsp.edu/Education/lwilson/curric/curtyp.htm:

The following represent the many different types of curricula used in schools today

| Types | Definitions |
|--|---|
| 1. Overt, explicit, or written curriculum | Is simply that which is written as part of formal instruction of schooling experiences. It may refer to a curriculum document, texts, films, and supportive teaching materials that are overtly chosen to support the intentional instructional agenda of a school. Thus, the overt curriculum is usually confined to those written understandings and directions formally designated and reviewed by administrators, curriculum directors and teachers, often collectively. |

| 30 | | | |
|------------------------|--|--|--|
| 2. Societal curriculum | As defined by Cortes (1981). Cortes defines this curriculum | | |
| curriculum | as: | | |
| | [the] massive events in the second | | |
| | [the] massive, ongoing, informal curriculum of family, peer | | |
| | groups, neighborhoods, churches organizations, occupations, | | |
| | mass, media and other socializing forces that "educate" all of | | |
| 3. The hidden | us throughout our lives. 24 | | |
| or covert | That which is implied by the very structure and nature of | | |
| curriculum | schools, much of what revolves around daily or established routines. | | |
| Currentan | rounies. | | |
| | Longstreet and Shane (1993) offer a commonly accepted | | |
| | definition for this term. | | |
| | definition for this term. | | |
| | the "hidden curriculum," which refers to the kinds of | | |
| | learnings children derive from the very nature and organizational | | |
| | design of the public school, as well as from the behaviors and | | |
| | attitudes of teachers and administrators "46 | | |
| | and administrators | | |
| | Examples of the hidden curriculum might include the messages | | |
| | and lessons derived from the mere organization of schools the | | |
| | emphasis on: sequential room arrangements; the cellular, timed | | |
| | segments of formal instruction; an annual schedule that is still | | |
| | arranged to accommodate an agrarian age; disciplined messages | | |
| | where concentration equates to student behaviors were they are | | |
| | sitting up straight and are continually quiet; students getting in | | |
| | and standing in line silently; students quietly raising their hands | | |
| | to be called on; the endless competition for grades, and so on. | | |
| | The hidden curriculum may include both positive or negative | | |
| | messages, depending on the models provided and the | | |
| | perspectives of the learner or the observer. | | |
| | | | |
| | In what I term floating quotes, popularized quotes that have no | | |
| | direct, cited sources, David P. Gardner is reported to have said: | | |
| | | | |
| | We learn simply by the exposure of living. Much that passes for | | |
| | education is not education at all but ritual The fact is that we | | |
| 4 Th. 12 | are being educated when we know it least. | | |
| 4. The null | That which we do not teach, thus giving students the message | | |
| curriculum | that these elements are not important in their educational | | |
| | experiences or in our society. Eisner offers some major points | | |
| | as he concludes his discussion of the null curriculum. | | |
| | The major value II | | |
| | The major point I have been trying to make thus far is that | | |
| | schools have consequences not only by virtue of what they do | | |
| | not teach, but also by virtue of what they neglect to teach. | | |
| | What students cannot consider, what they don't processes they | | |
| | are unable to use, have consequences for the kinds of lives | | |

they lead. 103

Eisner (1985, 1994) first described and defined aspects of this curriculum. He states:

There is something of a paradox involved in writing about a curriculum that does not exist. Yet, if we are concerned with the consequences of school programs and the role of curriculum in shaping those consequences, then it seems to me that we are well advised to consider not only the explicit and implicit curricula of schools but also what schools do not teach. It is my thesis that what schools do not teach may be as important as what they do teach. I argue this position because ignorance is not simply a neutral void; it has important effects on the kinds of options one is able to consider, the alternatives that one can examine, and the perspectives from which one can view a situation or problems. ...97

From Eisner's perspective the null curriculum is simply that which is not taught in schools. Somehow, somewhere, some people are empowered to make conscious decisions as to what is to be included and what is to be excluded from the overt (written) curriculum. Since it is physically impossible to teach everything in schools, many topics and subject areas must be intentionally excluded from the written curriculum. But Eisner's position on the "null curriculum" is that when certain subjects or topics are left out of the overt curriculum, school personnel are sending messages to students that certain content and processes are not important enough to study. Unfortunately, without some level of awareness that there is also a well-defined implicit agenda in schools, school personnel send this same type of message via the hidden curriculum.

5. Phantom curriculum

The messages prevalent in and through exposure to any type of media. These components and messages play a major part in the enculturation of students into the predominant metaculture, or in acculturating students into narrower or generational subcultures.

6. Concomitant curriculum

What is taught, or emphasized at home, or those experiences that are part of a family's experiences, or related experiences sanctioned by the family. (This type of curriculum may be received at church, in the context of religious expression, lessons on values, ethics or morals, molded behaviors, or social experiences based on the family's preferences.)

7. Rhetorical curriculum

Elements from the rhetorical curriculum are comprised from ideas offered by policymakers, school officials, administrators,

| | or politicians. This curriculum may also come from those | | |
|--------------------------|---|--|--|
| | professionals involved in concept formation and content | | |
| | changes; or from those educational initiatives resulting from | | |
| | decisions based on national and state reports, public speeches, | | |
| | or from texts critiquing outdated educational practices. The | | |
| | rhetorical curriculum may also come from the publicized | | |
| | works offering updates in pedagogical knowledge. | | |
| 8. Curriculum- | The formal curriculum (written or overt) comprises those | | |
| in-use | things in textbooks, and content and concepts in the district | | |
| | curriculum guides. However, those "formal" elements are | | |
| | frequently not taught. The curriculum-in-use is the actual | | |
| | curriculum that is delivered and presented by each teacher. | | |
| 9. Received | Those things that students actually take out of classroom; those | | |
| curriculum | concepts and content that are truly learned and remembered. | | |
| 10. The internal | Processes, content, knowledge combined with the experiences | | |
| curriculum | and realities of the learner to create new knowledge. While | | |
| | educators should be aware of this curriculum, they have little | | |
| | control over the internal curriculum since it is unique to each | | |
| | student. | | |
| 11. The | Those lessons learned through searching the Internet for | | |
| electro <mark>nic</mark> | information, or through using e-forms of communication. | | |
| curricu <mark>lum</mark> | (Wilson, 2004) | | |
| | This type of curriculum may be either formal or informal, and inherent lessons may be overt or covert, good or bad, correct or incorrect depending on ones' views. Students who use the Internet on a regular basis, both for recreational purposes (as in blogs, chatrooms, listserves, through instant messenger on-line conversations, or through personal e-mails) and for research and information, are bombarded with all types of media and messages. Much of this information may be factually correct, informative, or even entertaining or inspirational, but other information may be very incorrect, dated, passi¿½, biased, perverse, or even manipulative. The implications for educational practices are that part of the overt curriculum needs to include lessons on how to be wise consumers of information, how to critically appraise the accuracy and correctness of e-information, as well as the reliability of electronic sources. Also, students need to learn how to be artfully discerning about the usefulness and appropriateness of certain types of information. And, like other forms of social interaction, students need to know that there are inherent lessons to be learned about appropriate and acceptable "netiquette" and online behavior, to include the differences between "fair usage" and plagiarism. | | |

2.3.2 Curriculum in Indonesia

Curriculum in Indonesia is known as KTSP (Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan). KTSP is an operational curriculum which is applied in every level of education. This based on law which are Undang-undang Sikdiknas No. 20/2003 and Peraturan Pemerintah No. 15 Tahun 2005 about National Standard of Education.

KTSP is designed by each school based on Standar Kompetensi Lulusan (SKL) and Standar Isi (SI) for basic and intermediate levels. KTSP application is referred to Standar Kompetensi Lulusan (SKL) and Standar Isi (SI) to make sure that the content of KTSP can be adjusted to the capabilities of students, character and the level of adjusment of each school..

The guidance of students evaluation and decision of passing and failing is based on SKL that includes competency for group of subjects or competency for all subjects which can be evaluated based on qualification of capabilities, behaviour, knowledge and skill.

Standar Isi is material scope and level of competency which is put in the requirement of graduates, studies competency, subjects competency, and syllabus which has to be completed by students on each education level. Standar Isi is a guidance of developing KTSP. Basically every teacher has his or her authority to apply the KTSP and make the proper syllabus needed. Teacher also has his or her authority to make test and give tests based on what students have learned.

KTSP yang dikenal dengan Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan merupakan kurikulum yang bersifat operasional dan dilaksanakan dimasing-masing tingkat satuan pendidikan. Landasan hukum kurikulum ini yaitu Undang-undang Sikdiknas No. 20 Tahun 2003 dan Peraturan Pemerintah No. 15 Tahun 2005 tentang Standar Nasional Pendidikan.

Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan disusun oleh masing-masing sekolah dengan mengacu pada Standar Kompetensi Lulusan (SKL) dan Standar Isi (SI) untuk jenjang pendidikan dasar dan menengah. Penyerahan pengembangan Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan pada tiap sekolah dengan mengacu pada Standar Isi dan Standar Kompetensi Lulusan bertujuan agar kurikulum tersebut dapat disesuaikan dengan karakter dan tingkat kemampuan sekolah masingmasing. Pedoman penilaian dan penentuan kelulusan peserta didik mengacu pada SKL yang meliputi kompetensi untuk kelompok mata pelajaran atau kompetensi <mark>untuk seluruh mata pel</mark>ajaran yang dinilai berdasarkan kualifikasi kemampuan mencakup sikap, pengetahuan dan keterampilan. St<mark>andar isi merupakan ruang lingkup m</mark>ateri dan tingkat kompetensi y<mark>ang dituangkan dalam persyaratan k</mark>ompetensi tamatan, kompetensi bahan kajian kompetensi mata pelajaran, dan silabus pembelajaran yang harus dipenuhi peserta didik pada jenjang dan jeni<mark>s pendidik</mark>an tertentu. Standar isi <mark>mer</mark>upakan pedoman untuk pengembangan kurikulum tingkat satuan pendidikan. (http://rumahdownload.gofreeserve.com)

2.4 Clause

One of SMU students learns in English KTSP is about Clause. That includes Adjective clause or Relative pronoun, Independent clause and Dependent clause.

Clause is any syntactic unit whose structure is, or is seen as reduced from, that of a sentence. Thus in particular, one which includes a verb and the elements that company it. The smaller unit who you introcuced me to is accordingly a clause in I liked the girl who you introduced me to. So, in many accounts, is meeting her in I liked meeting her or to meet her in I want to meet her, or even, in some, a single word or phrase like in his cups in He sang hymns (sc. when he was) in his cups. So, in current usage, is each of these sentences as a whole. (The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics, page 55)

2.4.1 Adjective Clause or relative clause is a dependent clause that modifies a noun. It describes, identifies, or gives further information about a noun.

E.g: I thanked the woman who helped me

2.4.2 Adverbial clause is a condition where a special word is added to a full subject-predicate structure. This introductory word requires the clause to be attached to another full predication, the main clause. This clause modifies the verb of the main clause, some more loosely than others.

E.g: Because the weather was so cold, I didn't go swimming

2.4.3 Noun clause is a condition where the full subject and predicate are retained, but the structure is changed by the addition of a special introductory word, by a special word order, or by both. These changes permit the noun clause to fill the same position and to serve the same functions as nouns.

E.g. What he said is interesting

2.4.4 Independent Clause is a complete sentence. It contains the main subject and verb of a sentence (It is also called a main clause)

E.g: Because the weather was so cold, <u>I didn't go swimming</u>

Independent clause

2.4.5 Dependent Clause is not a complete sentence. It must be connected to an independent clause. (*Understanding and using English Grammar*, Betty Schampfer Azar, page 238.)

E.g: <u>Because the weather was so cold</u>, I didn't go swimming

Dependent clause

2.5 Sentence

Traditional Grammar defines a sentence in two ways.

2.5.1 By Meaning

According to this definition, a sentence is a "complete thought." Such a definition is inadequate, however. Because of the vagueness of the term "complete thought." By seeing or hearing a statement, how do we know it is "thought," and what makes it "complete"?

2.5.2 By Function

According to this definition, a sentence consists of a subject and a predicate.

This definition is more satisfactory because it is actually possible to identify the structural functions of subject and predicate in a sentence.

The definition we should like to offer here includes both functional and formal characteristics of a sentence: A sentence is a full predication containing a subject plus a predicate with a finite verb. Its arrangement may be

symbolized by such formulas as SVO (subject + verb + object), N1 V N2 (Noun + Verb + Noun), or NP + VP (Noun Phrase + Verb Phrase).

2.6 Sentence Classification by Number of Full Predications

This classification is based on the number and kind of clauses within a sentence.

2.6.1 Simple Sentence

e.g. The man stole the jewelry

Such sentences have only one full predication in the form of an independent clause.

2.6.2 Compound Sentence

e.g. The man stole the jewelry and he hid it in his home.

Such sentences have two or more full predications in the form of independent clauses.

2.6.3 Complex sentences

e.g. The man who stole the jewelry hid it in his home.

Such sentences also have two or more full predications. One of these is an independent clause (or, main clause) that is similar to the form of the simple sentence, and one or more of these are dependent clauses (or, subordinate clauses).

2.6.4 Compound-Complex Sentence

e.g The man who stole the jewelry and he hid it in his home until he could safely get out of town.

Compound-complex sentence contain two or more independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses.

The independent clause in all four classes of sentences may take the form of a statement, question, request, exclamation.

(Modern English, a practical reference guide, Marcella Frank, page 220-223)

2.7 SMU workbook

SMU workbook is used to give more explanation and practices needed after a series of explanation and practices given by teacher. Its content refers to curriculum. A teacher should have good judgement whether one workbook is suitable or not to his or her students. Because sometimes there are some books which are curriculum related but not suitable enough for capability of students. They can be too difficult to understand (in other words its explanation for one lesson is not straight to the point). Or some can be too easy that make students feel bored.

SMU book researcher is using for this research is:

•Th. M. Sudarwati. 2007. Look Ahead 2. Jakarta. Erlangga.

Since grammar, vocabulary, writing and reading are no longer single subject to learn (integrated) in KTSP 2006, then these books have to combine all those subjects that can be used as competency material. For example, grammar, more specific *Adjective clause*, *Adverbial clause* and *Noun clause* aren't single component to learn. They are learned to help students understand a sentence, paragraph and a passage. This integrated lesson is also used to teach writing, listening and speaking in every level.

This thing happens not because the teacher wants it, but because the target language students need to grasp need one certain grammar to express it.

| Standard of Competence/ Basic Competence | Subject material | Indicator |
|---|--|---|
| Speaking: Expressing the means of short functional text and monolog in kinds of narration, and procedure in daily life. Expressing the means monolog text accurately, fluently, and acceptably in real daily life in the text of recount, narrative, and procedure. | Make a story individually and tell to the class about it | • To use the simple past to tell the events •To tell own experience in monolog • To tell in monolog in delivering a procedure |
| | | • Storytelling. |

2.8 Writing Style

There are some kinds of writing style. The style is used based on its aim for certain readers, situation, purpose and writers's background. They are, speech, academic writing, journalistic writing, poem, short story, novel, journal, financial

report, letter and memo. Two styles that are available as reference source in this research are Academic writing and Journalistic writing.

2.8.1 Writing style based on the readers

2.8.1.1 Workbook

Workbook is a book designed to guide the work of a student that contains questions, exercises, etc. This book is one of essential parts to help students study because of its complete lesson explanation and exercises. The workbook the reasearcher use in this research is:

• Th. M. Sudarwati. 2007. Look Ahead 2. Jakarta. Erlangga.

2.8.1.2 Journalistic

News style (also journalistic style or news writing) is the prose style used for news reporting in media such as newspapers, radio and television. News style encompasses not only vocabulary and sentence structure, but also the way stories present the information in terms of relative importance, tone, and intended audience.

News writing attempts to answer all the basic questions about any particular event in the first two or three paragraphs, the Five Ws. This form of structure is sometimes called the "inverted pyramid," to refer to the decreased importance of information as it progresses. News stories also contain at least one

of the following important characteristics: proximity, prominence, timeliness, human interest, oddity, or consequence.

Newspapers generally adhere to an expository writing mode and style, but over time and place journalism ethics and standards have varied in the degree of objectivity and sensationalism incorporated. There are debated definitions of professionalism among particular news agencies, and their reputability or public value, according to professional standards of idealism and depending on what the reader wants from a news story, may be tied to their appearance of objectivity. In its most ideal form, news writing strives to be intelligible to the vast majority of potential readers, as well as to be engaging and succinct. Within the limits created by these goals, news stories also aim for a kind of comprehensiveness. However, other factors are involved, some of which are practical and derived from the media form, and others stylistic.

Among the larger and more respected newspapers, fairness and balance is a major factor for the presentation of information. Commentary is usually confined to a separate section, though each paper may have a different overall slant. Editorial policy dictates the use of adjectives, euphemisms, and idioms. Papers with an international audience, for example, usually use a more formal style of writing.

2.8.2 Writing style based on sentence form and diction.

Writing style is also counted for its sentence forms and diction, because sentence form and dictions can optimize the meaning carried, but this sentence form and dictions can be modified and it also based on related culture. They are:

2.8.2.1 The loose sentence

The most common sentence in modern usage, the loose sentence begins with the main point (an independent clause), followed by one or more subordinate clauses. For example:

Uncle Tom's Cabin is a very influential novel, having its self-righteous, virtuous sentimentality, much in common with Little Women (James Baldwin).

The cat sat on the mat, purring softly, having licked his paws.

According to Francis Christensen:

The loose sentence ... characterized the anti-Ciceronian movement in the seventeenth century. This movement, according to Morris W. Croll ["The Baroque Style in Prose," (1929)] began with Montaigne and Bacon and continued with such men as Donne, Browne, Taylor, Pascal. To Montaigne, its art was the art of being natural; to Pascal, its eloquence was the eloquence that mocks formal eloquence; to Bacon, it presented knowledge so that it could be examined, not so that it must be accepted. (in Winterowd, 'Contemporary Rhetoric: A Conceptual Background with Readings,' p.348)

2.8.2.2 The periodic sentence

In contrast, a periodic sentence places the main point in the middle or at the end of the sentence. In the former case, the main point is modified by

subordinate clauses before and after its position in the sentence. In the latter case, the main point is modified by preceding subordinate clauses.

Under a government which imprisons any unjustly, the true place for a just man is also a prison. (Henry David Thoreau)

The purpose of such form is well-stated by Adams Sherman Hill in *The Foundation of Rhetoric* (1897):

To secure force in a sentence, it is necessary not only to choose the strongest words and to be as concise as is consistent with clearness, but also to arrange words, phrases, and clauses in order to give a commanding position to what is most important, and thus fixes the attention on the central idea.

2.8.2.3 The balanced sentence

A balanced sentence is characterized by parallel structure: two or more parts of the sentence have the same form, emphasizing similarities or differences.

2.8.2.4 Diction

Depending on the mode in which the writer is writing, diction can also pertain to the writer's style. Argumentative and expository prose on a particular subject matter frequently makes use of a set of jargon in which the subject matter is commonly discussed. By contrast, narrative and descriptive prose is open to the vast variety of words. Insofar as a *style* of diction can be discerned, however, it is best to examine the diction against a number of spectrums:

Abstract-concrete: how much of the diction is physical?

- General-specific: to what degree is the diction precise, to what degree is it vague?
- Denotation-connotation
- Literal-metaphorical

Other attributes of diction include:

- Density
- Length

(www.wikipedia.com)