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EDITORS:
Dedy Kurniawan
Yulhenli Thabran

LAYOUT:
Prastiwi Sri Agustina
Khotimah Mahmudah

COVER DESIGN
Chairil Alby

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Prodi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris (English Education Study Program)
Fakultas Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan Universitas Jambi

Mailing Address:
FKIP Universitas Jambi
Kampus Pinang Masak
Jl. Raya Jambi – Ma. Bulian
Mendalo Darat, Jambi, Indonesia
Email : english@unja.ac.id / eduticon@unja.ac.id
Website : www.english.unja.ac.id

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BRIDGING CRITICAL READING AND SELF-CRITICAL WRITING: (EAP TASK-BASED TEACHING FOR POSTGRADUATE STUDENTS)

Rita Erlinda
doktordjitu@yahoo.com
English Education Study Program, STAIN Batusangkar, West Sumatera

Abstract: Teaching English for students studying for a master degree in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) context should enable the students to be a critical reader of literatures in order to have capability to write critical literature review in their area of study. In EAP context, meaningful and challenging tasks are essential element of the teaching process. One of the main assumptions of EAP is that teaching materials should enable learners to acquire the variety of language and skills they will need in typical situations they meet in their academic or professional life. To accomplish the tasks well, the student is enquired to be capable to apprehend meaning of various authentic materials, such as research-based article (IMRaD format article), book chapter, book review, etc. To comprehend these scientific literatures, they should be provided with strategies and skills—integrated reading and writing. These will be conveyed through an effective methodology in the classroom—Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT). One of the principles of TBLT is using authentic materials to link classroom language learning with real world tasks. This present paper aims at describing how TBLT, as an effectual instructional method of teaching English, comes out to help the student be a skilled reader of AIMRaD format of research-based article. The implementation of this technique begins with critical reading activities which are divided into three stages—pre-reading task, while-reading task and post-reading task—and terminate with writing summary as critical literature review. Faithfully, this strategy can facilitate the students completing their academic tasks.

Keywords: *critical reading; critical writing; English for Academic Purposes (EAP); Task-based Teaching*

Introduction

As a student studying for a master or doctorate degree, critical reading plays a key role in every field of academic tasks. This kind of reading need to be more attention from students' point of view because of their academic needs underlying the use of reading skills, (Khand and Memond, 2010). They need to read critically many types of scientific literatures like book review, book chapter, research-based article in order to get information that can be used as sources for completing their academic assigments or tasks. Wallace and Poulson (2004) assert that the competency of master degree students can be seen from their capability to read scientific paper critically through the critical academic writing. Moreover, in academia worldwide, a large number of journals and research articles are published in English, and a large proportion of academic textbooks too are in English. In addition, a considerable number of college/university courses, academic seminars and conferences are also held using English as their major language for the exchange of information.

The students must spend a great deal of time reading scientific paper. However, this skill is rarely taught, leading to much wasted effort. Task-based language Teaching (TBLT) comes out as an effectual method to teach integratively critical reading and critical writing. Reading and writing skills are said to be so much interrelated at either primary,

secondary and/or tertiary levels of education that it has been claimed that "... *good writers are good readers... Good reading is the key to becoming a good writer...Becoming a good writer works together with becoming a good reader*", (Abu-Akel, 1997). As far as the integration of reading- writing connections is concerned, it is admittedly an old, established technique to ask EAP students of reading comprehension courses to present or produce brief statements of the main ideas in a text or reading passage, either while reading or after completing reading the text. The ability to produce a summary (alternatively known as synopsis) is referred to in TEFL literature as summarizing, or summary skills, and has been a focus of instruction in the teaching and testing of reading comprehension skill(s). At academic settings in particular, students are usually required to produce study summaries, to complete various types of summary assignments, and to complete tasks that call for the incorporation of a written source material in term papers or any other similar presentation.

This present paper discusses some main points of outlining designs of TBLT to bridge critical reading and critical writing. The discussion will include:

1. What is Task-based Language Teaching?
2. How to do critical reading of IMRaD format primary research paper in EAP context?
3. What is the implementation of TBLT in bridging critical reading and critical writing for postgraduate students in EAP context?

Theories of Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT)

TBLT has been evolved within Communicative language Teaching (CLT). It is aimed at calling students' active participation in pair and/or group work. It suggests that teachers support student with meaningful classroom tasks and help them complete those tasks through modelling, experiencing, practicing, participating, cooperating and communicating, (Nunan, 2004). TBLT is an approach to language teaching that provides opportunities for students to engage in the authentic use of the target language through tasks. As the principal component in TBLT, the task provides the main context and focus for learning, and it encourages language use similar to the way language is used outside of the classroom. Students learn language and develop skills as they work toward completing the task, which motivates them to stretch their available language resources (Ellis, 2003a).

1. Defining a Task

The term 'task' has been defined in a variety of ways. In second/foreign language teaching context, task can be divided into real-world or target tasks and pedagogical task. Long cited in Nunan (2004:5) defines real-world or target task as "*a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some rewards. For examples, painting a fence, filling out a form, typing letter, etc*". In other words, this definition implies that 'task' is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play and in between."

When real-world or target tasks bring to the classroom, they will be pedagogical task. Richard (1986:249) defines pedagogical tasks as "*an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language. For example, drawing a map while listening to a tape, listening to an instruction, performing a command, etc.*" Moreover, Breen (1987:23) defines pedagogical tasks as "*a workplan which contains overall purposes of facilitating language learning (i.e. particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure and outcomes for those who undertake the task).*

In addition, Ellis (2003:16) characterizes pedagogical task as "*a workplan that ...quires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome. It is ...tended to the way language used in the real world. It can engage productive or receptive, ...d oral or written skills, and various cognitive process.*" Finally,Nunan (2004:4) proposes ...e definition of pedagogical tasks as follows:

> ...a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, a middle and an end.

In short, based on the previous concept of pedagogical tasks insinuated by the experts, it can be concluded that a task is a workplan or classroom work which contain objective, content, teaching procedures facilitating to attain learning outcome—enable language learners to use the target language (receptive and productive skills) studied as pedagogical activities in the real-life situation.

2. Component of a Task

Based on the ideas of Candlin (1981), Wright (1987) and Candlin (1987), Nunan (2004:41) draw a minimum specification of a task which should include goal, input and procedures as main elements; and roles of learner/teacher and setting as supporting elements.

The first element of a task is goal. It refers to the vague, general intentions behind any learning task relate to a range of general outcome (communiative, affective or cognitive or may directly describe teacher's or learner's behavior. Goal may not always be explicitely stated, although they can usually be inferred from the task itself. The most useful goal statements are those that relate to the students not the teacher and those that are couched in terms of observable performance.

The second element is input. Input deals with the spoken, written and visual data that learners work in the course of completing a task. It can be provided by the teacher, a textbook or some other sources; it can be generated by learners themselves. Input closely related to authenticity. Authentic materials refers to the use of spoken and written materials that has been produced for purpose of communication not for purpose of language teaching. Authentic texts have been defined as "*...real-life texts, not written for pedagogic purposes*" *(Wallace 1992:145)* They are therefore written for native speakers and contain "real" language. They are "*...materials that have been produced to fulfil some social purpose in the language community.*" *(Peacock (1997)*, in contrast to non-authentic texts that are especially designed for language learning purposes. Consequetly authentic materials can come from a wide range of sources. For reading and writing skills, for instance, according to Steward and Dore cited in Nunan (2004), the sources of input cover some authentic materials such as articles from newspapers, magazine and journals, radio and television script and documentaries, new stories, research report, etc.

Using authentic materials is very beneficial because of several reasons. First, the language is natural. By simplifying language or altering it for teaching purposes (limiting structures, controllling vocabulary, etc), it may make the reading task more difficult. In fact, it make the clues to meaning remove. Second, it offers the students chance to deal with small amounts of print which, at the same time, contain complete, meaningful

message. Next, it provides students with the opportunity to make use of linguistic clues (layout, pictures, colours, symbols, the physical setting in which it occurs) and so more easily to arrive at meaning from the printed word. Finally, adults need to be able to see the immediate relevance of what they do in the classroom to what they need to do outside it and real-rife reading material treated realistically make the connection obvious. On the other hand, the language in non-authentic texts is artificial and unvaried, concentrating on something that has to be taught and often containing a series of *"false-text indicators"* that include: *perfectly formed sentences (all the time); a question using a grammatical structure, gets a full answer; repetition of structures;* and *very often does not "read" well.*

Authentic materials enable learners to interact with the real language and content rather than the form. Learners feel that they are learning a target language as it is used outside the classroom. When choosing materials from the various sources, it is therefore worth taking into consideration that the aim should be to understand meaning and not form, especially when using literary texts with the emphasis being on what is being said and not necessarily on the literary form or stylistics. Nuttall (1983) gives three main criteria when choosing texts to be used in the classroom: *suitability of content, exploitability and readability.* Suitability of content can be considered to be the most important of the three, in that the reading material should interest the students as well as be relevant to their needs. The texts should motivate as well. Exploitability refers to how the text can be used to develop the students' competence as readers. A text that cannot be exploited for teaching purposes has no use in the classroom. Just because it is in English does not mean that it can be useful. Readability is used to describe the combination of structural and lexical difficulty of a text, as well as referring to the amount of new vocabulary and any new grammatical forms present. It is important to assess the right level for the right students.

The third element is procedures. Procedure refers to the way how to deliver input to the learners. In general, procedure has connection with types of task and goals. In opting for teaching procedure, teacher needs to consider three varieties of it. First, procedural authenticity which refers to an attempt to replicate and rehearse in the classroom the kind of thing that learners need to do outside of classroom. Next, procedural goals which concern with two points—skill getting and skill using. Skill getting focuses on acquiring three aspects, like phonological, lexical and grammatical form. Meanwhile, skill using means applying the language skills in communicative interaction. Finally, procedures which focus on the learner on developing accuracy and those that focus the development of fluency.

The fourth element is roles of learners and teacher. Role is the part of learners and teachers which are expected to play in carrying out learning tasks as well as the social and interpersonal relationship between the participants. The learners must take reponsibility for their learning, developing autonomy and skills in learning how-to-learn. The role of teacher is as facilitator, participant, observer and learner.

The last element is setting. Setting refers to the classroom arragement specified or implied in the task. In selecting setting for completing a task, teacher need to consider learning modes and learning environment. Learning modes concern with wether the learner is operating an individual or a group basis. Learning environment is meant as the place where the learning actually takes place. It might be a conventional classroom in a school or language centre, a community class, a workplace setting, etc.

In short, the components of a task can be summarized in the following diagram:

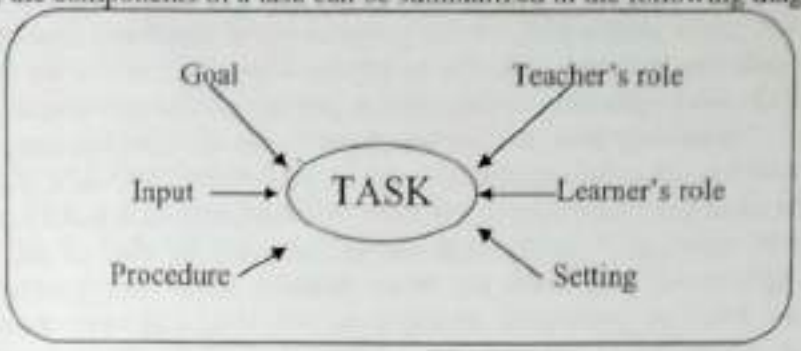

Figure 1: Task Components of TBLT
Adopted from Nunan (2004)

3. *Types of a Task*

Many experts propose many types of pedagogical tasks in TBLT. Prabu cited in Nunan (2004) lists three types of cognitive tasks under the umbrella of TBLT, namely:

a. *Information-gap activity*, which involves a transfer of given information from one person to another – or from one form to another, or from one place to another – generally calling for the decoding or encoding of information from or into language. One example is pair work in which each member of the pair has a part of the total information (for example an incomplete picture) and attempts to convey it verbally to the other. Another example is completing a tabular representation with information available in a given piece of text. The activity often involves selection of relevant information as well, and learners may have to meet criteria of completeness and correctness in making the transfer.

b. *Reasoning-gap activity*, which involves deriving some new information from given information through processes of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns. One example is working out a teacher's timetable on the basis of given class timetables. Another is deciding what course of action is best (for example cheapest or quickest) for a given purpose and within given constraints. The activity necessarily involves comprehending and conveying information, as an information-gap activity, but the information to be conveyed is not identical with that initially comprehended. There is a piece of reasoning which connects the two.

c. *Opinion-gap activity*, which involves identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling, or attitude in response to a given situation. One example is story completion; another is taking part in the discussion of a social issue. The activity may involve using factual information and formulating arguments to justify one's opinion, but there is no objective procedure for demonstrating outcomes as right or wrong, and no reason to expect the same outcome from different individuals or on different occasions.

Richard cited in Nunan (2004) has proposed the following typology pedagogical tasks: (a) *jigsaw tasks*: These tasks involve learners in combining different pieces of information to form a whole; (b) *information-gap tasks*: These are tasks in which one student or group of students has one set of information and another student or group has a complementary set of information. They must negotiate and find out what the other party's information is in order to complete an activity; (c) *problem-solving tasks*: Students are given a problem and a set of information. They must arrive at a solution to the problem.

There is generally a single resolution of the outcome; (d) *decision-making tasks:* Students are given a problem for which there are a number of possible outcomes and they must choose one through negotiation and discussion; and (e) *opinion exchange tasks:* Learners engage in discussion and exchange of ideas. They do not need to reach agreement.

Willis cited in Mao (2013) elaborates six types of pedagogical tasks, as follows:

a. *Listing*; Listing may seem unimaginative, but in practice, listing tasks tend to get a lot to talk as learners explain their ideas. The types involved brainstorming, in which learners draw on their own knowledge and experience either as a class or in pairs/groups; act-finding, in which learners find things out by asking each other or other people and referring to books, etc.
b. *Ordering and sorting*; Ordering and sorting tasks involve four main types: sequencing items, actions or events in a logical or chronological order; ranking items, according to personal values or specified criteria; categorizing items in given groups or grouping them under given headings; classifying items in different ways, where the categories themselves are not given.
c. *Comparing*; Broadly, comparing tasks involve comparing information of a similar nature but from different sources or versions in order to identify common points and/or differences. The processes involved matching to identify specific points and relate them to each other; finding similarities and things in common; finding differences
d. *Problem Solving*; Problem-solving tasks make demands upon people's intellectual and reasoning powers, and though challenging, they are engaging and often satisfying to solve. The processes and time scale will vary enormously depending in the type and complexity of the problem. Real-life problems may involve expressing hypotheses, describing experiences, comparing alternatives and evaluating and agreeing a solution. Completion tasks are often based on short extracts from texts, where the learners predict the ending or piece together clues to guess it. The classification ends with case studies, which are more complex, entail an in-depth consideration of many criteria, and often involve additional fact-finding and investigating.
e. *Sharing personal experiences*; Tasks of sharing personal experiences encourage learners to talk more freely about themselves and share their experiences with others. For example, after reading a selected material about one's childhood, learners can be encouraged to tell their own childhood. The resulting interaction is closer to casual social conversation in that it is not as directly goal-oriented as in other tasks. For that very reason, however, these open tasks may be more difficult to get going in the classroom.
f. *Creative tasks*; These are often called projects and involve pairs or groups of learners in some kind of freer creative work. They also tend to have more stages than other tasks and can involve combinations of task types above. Out-of-class research is sometimes needed. Organizational skills and teamwork are important in getting the task done. The outcome can often be appreciated by a wider audience than the students who produced it.

4. *Principles of TBLT*

Nunan (2004: 35-38) depicts seven underlying principles that are drawn in developing the instructional sequence of TBLT. The first principle is *scaffolding*. It means that lesson and materials should provide supporting frameworks within which the learning take place. At the beginning of the learning process, learners should not be expected to produce language that has not been introduced either explicitly or implicitly. The second principle is *task dependency*. Within a lesson, one task should grow out of, and build upon, the ones that have gone before. The third principle is *recycling*. Recycling language maximizes opportunities for learning and activates the 'organic' learning principles. The fourth principle is *active learning*. It means that learners learn best by actively using the language they are learning. The fifth principles is *integration*. Learners should be taught in ways that make clear the relatinship between linguistic form, communicative function and semantic meaning. The sixth principle is *reproduction to creation*. It deals with learner should be encouraged to move from reproductive to creative language use. The last principle is *reflection*. In this principle, learners should be given opportunities to reflect on what they have learned and how well they are doing.

5. *Framework of TBLT*

The departure of Task-based Language Teaching is real-world or target tasks and pedagogical tasks, (Nunan, 2004). In order to create learning opportunities in the classroom, teacher must transform these real-world tasks into pedagogical tasks. Such tasks can be placed on a continuum from rehearsal tasks to activation tasks. A rehearsal task bears a clear and obvious relationship to its corresponding real-world counterpart. However, not all pedagogical tasks have such a clear and obvious relationship to the real world

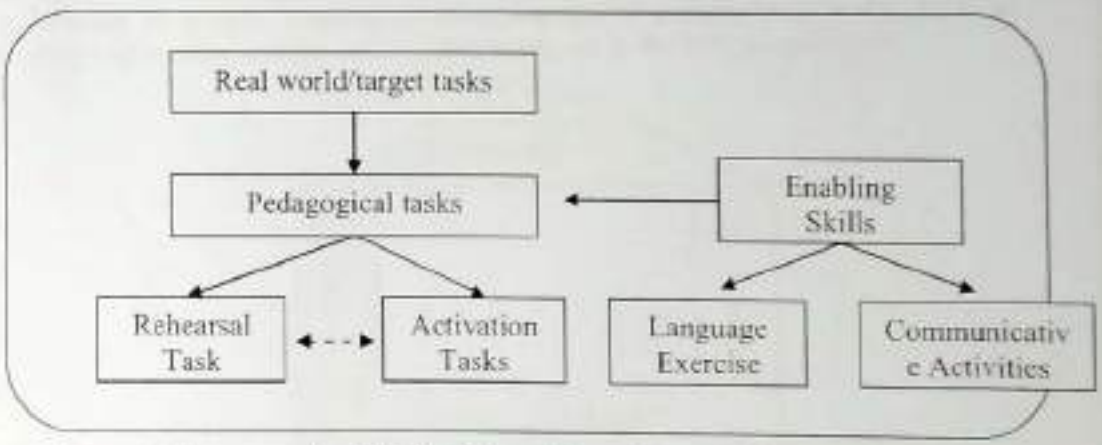

Figure 2: Framework of TBLT. Adopted from Nunan (2004)

Critical reading of scientific papers for Postgraduate Students in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) Context

EAP learners are required to be familiar and will acquire both the content and the language during the course. This can be gained through applying critical reading. According to Wallace (2003), critical reading has three purposes. The purposes of critical reading as an educational project can be seen as linguistic, conceptual/critical and cultural. First, linguistic aims to involve helping students to gain an understanding of the nature of ideological meanings embedded in texts as indicated by the way language is used. Second, development of conceptual/critical abilities aim to develop epistemic literacy, which means

being able to move beyond the text to develop a cogent argument around it. Finally, the cultural implication of a critical reading orientation is to promote insights into cultural assumptions and practices, similarities and differences across national boundaries.

1. *What are scientific papers?*

Scientific papers (or articles) are documents presented to targeted audiences in an area of science. They are the way of scientists to communicate and share their work. This includes original research or review of the work of others. It helps the development of science by allowing the work of scientists to be built on by others in the field. Scientific papers are typically published as journal articles, which are usually reviewed by peers prior to publication; and / or conference proceedings.

There are two types of scientific paper—primary research article and review article. Primary research article is a peer-reviewed report of new research on a specific question (or questions). Review articles are also peer-reviewed, and don't present new information, but summarize multiple primary research articles, to give a sense of the consensus, debates, and unanswered questions within a field, (Raff, 2013).

2. *Why read scientific paper?*

For postgraduate students who need to update the latest development their area of study, reading scientific paper is an obligatory. It is important to read scientific papers from peer-reviewed journals rather than just text books because of this peer-review process and because scientific journals provide more up to date information on a topic. Additionally, it is the main way scientists communicate their ideas and findings to each other. Watson and Reisner (2010: 36) assert that metaphorically speaking, if postgraduate study is a house, critical thinking is its foundation. The application of critical thinking to other aspects of postgraduate study, such as reading and writing, are the walls of this house, as in the following picture:

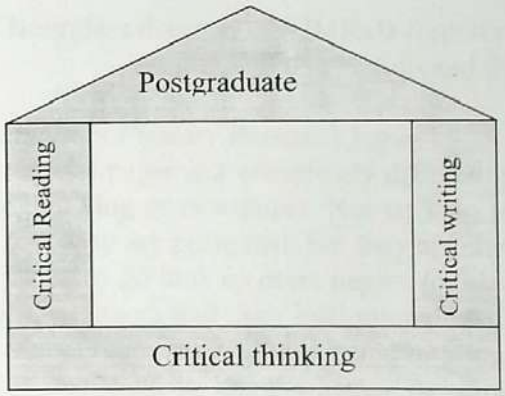

Figure 3: Critical Thinking in Postgraduate Study. Adopted from Watson and Reissner (2010:36)

3. *Organization of Scientific papers with AIMRaD Format*

According to Malmfors (2009) and Katz (2009), scientific papers have a stereotyped form and style. The standard format of a research paper has six sections: (a) *Title* and *Abstract*, which encapsulate the paper, (b) *Introduction*, which describes where the paper's research question fits into current science, (c) *Methods*, which translates the research questions into a detailed recipe of operations, (d) *Results*, which is orderly compilation of the data observed after following the

research recipe, (e) *Discussion*, which consolidates the data and connects it to the data of other researchers, and (f) *Conclusion*, which gives the one or two scientific points to which the entire paper leads, (g) *References*, which gives information how to find paper referred to. *Acknowledgements* and *appendices* are optional, as are tables and figures. Sometimes the two sections, Results and Discussion, might be combined into one. This format has been called the IMRaD (Introduction, Methods, Results and Discussion) organization.

O'connor and Cargil (2009:10) gives hourglass diagram commonly used to represent the structure of an IMRaD article as follows:

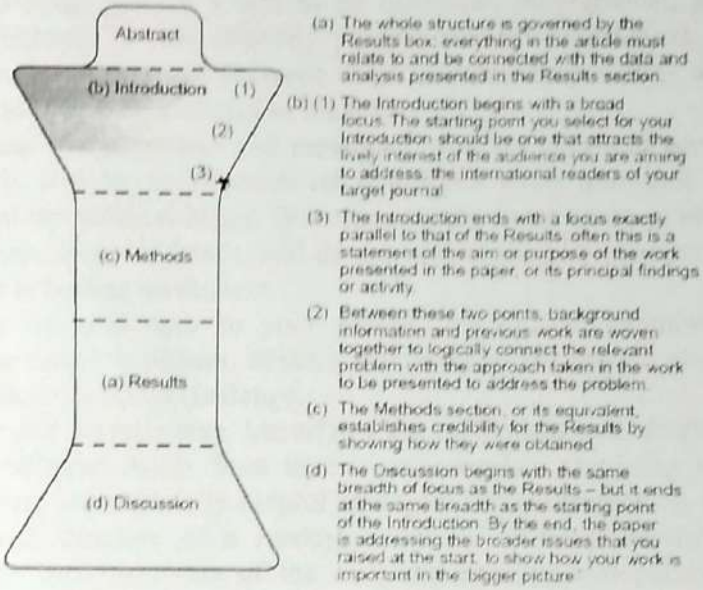

Figure 4: Hourglass diagram of AIMRaD format research paper
Adopted from O'connor (2009:10)

4. *How to Read IMRaD format Primary Research paper*

Reading a scientific paper is a completely different process than reading an article about science in a blog or newspaper. Not only do readers read the sections in a different order than they are presented, but they also have to take notes, read it multiple times, and probably go look up other papers for some of the details. Before reading, take note of the authors and their institutional affiliations to recognize the author's reputation whether they are well-respected or not and also take note of the journal in which it is published to know whether the reputation of journal. Raff (2013) writes some step-by-step of instruction of reading primary research paper. Firstly, start by reading "Introduction" section to find big and specific questions in the study. Secondly, find the approach used in the study from "Method" section. Readers need to note what did the authors do to find the answer of specific question described in "introduction"section. Thirdly, read the "Result" section to find the answers of specific questions proposed by the authors. Readers should summarize the finding of each the specific questions. Then, read the discussion and conclusion section to know how the author give meaning to the finding. Finally, go back to the beginning to read "Abstract" section.

To easily get undertanding of the text, there are some critical reading strategies to be applied. "Seven Critical Reading Strategies (n.d.) mentions seven critical reading strategies as follows:

a. *Previewing*: learning about a text before really reading it. This aims at enabling readers to get a sense of what the text is about and how it is organized before reading it closely. This simple strategy includes seeing what you can learn from the headnotes or other introductory material, skimming to get an overview of the content and organization, and identifying the rhetorical situation.
b. *Contextualizing*: placing a text in its historical, biographical, and cultural contexts. To read critically, readers need to contextualize, to recognize the differences between their contemporary values and attitudes and those represented in the text.
c. *Questioning* to understand and remember: Asking questions about content. It will be very beneficial if readers write questions to understand the material better. Questions should focus on main idea, not on illustrations or details, and do not rewrite the same sentences with what is writing on the text.
d. *Reflecting on chalenges to your beliefs and values*: examining readers' personal responses. Make a brief note in the margin about what in the text created challenge.
e. *Outlining and summarizing*: Identifying the main ideas and restating them in different words from the writer's words. Outlining and summarizing are especially helpful strategies for understanding the content and structure of a reading selection. Whereas outlining reveals the basic structure of the text, summarizing synopsizes a selection's main argument in brief. Outlining may be part of the annotating process, or it may be done separately. The key to both outlining and summarizing is being able to distinguish between the main ideas and the supporting ideas and examples. The main ideas form the backbone, the strand that holds the various parts and pieces of the text together. Summarizing begins with outlining, but instead of merely listing the main ideas, a summary recomposes them to form a new text. Whereas outlining depends on a close analysis of each paragraph, summarizing also requires creative synthesis. Putting ideas together again shows how reading critically can lead to deeper understanding of any text.
f. *Evaluating an argument*: Testing the logic of a text as well as its credibility and emotional impact. All writers make assertions that they want readers to accept as true. As a critical reader, you should not accept anything on face value but to recognize every assertion as an argument that must be carefully evaluated. An argument has two essential parts: a claim and support. The claim asserts a conclusion--an idea, an opinion, a judgment, or a point of view -- that the writer wants you to accept. The support includes reasons (shared beliefs, assumptions, and values) and evidence (facts, examples, statistics, and authorities) that give readers the basis for accepting the conclusion.

g. *Comparing and contrasting related readings*: Exploring likeness and differences between texts to understand them better. Many of the authors we read are concerned with the same issues or questions, but approach how to discuss them in different ways. Fitting a text into an ongoing dialectic helps increase understanding of why an author approached a particular issue or question in the way he or she did.

Designing lesson for bridging critical reading and critical writing in reading AIMRaD format primary research paper according to TBLT

This paper has collected many theories about TBLT and formed new views about how to apply it for reading IMRaD format research paper for postgraduate students in EAP context. Before the lesson begin, preparation should be made. The students are asked to have an IMRaD format research paper in their area of study. Then, the lecturer made the students be familiar with the organizations of the IMRaD format research article for section-by-section. By using TBLT framework, the communivative tasks were constructed. In this paper, it will describe how to teach "Introduction Section". The tasks will be categorized into three stages—pre-tasks, while-tasks and post-tasks—which will be elaborated as in the following:

1. Pre-reading tasks

This is the first stage of teaching procedure. This stage can serve as preparation stage. This stage serves several purposes: (a) to activate the background knowledge of the readers, (b) to arouse the students' interest to the text, and (c) to set up the purpose for them to read on. The tasks given at this stage usually enable the learners to engage in active purposeful interaction which will encourage them desire to read the text.

Since the text or input to be read by the learners which is "Introduction section" of an AIMRaD format primary research paper, some questions can be used to help learners to be familiar with the concept and components of an "Introduction Section". The questions are prepared to know learners undertanding toward the word "Introduction" in their weekly assigments or other academic tasks. They are asked to share about the components of "introduction section' of a scientific paper they know or have experienced. This is a kind of open task that Willis called "sharing personal experience". Then, the lecturer may show the learners the hourglass diagram of AIMRaD format scientific paper. The lecturer make a list of questions about the content which should be included in "introduction section" and ask the learners to discuss them in pairs. Finally, the students will have profound understanding toward the components and the importances of "introduction section" of primary research paper. The specific procedures and questions used in this task can be seen in Appendix A.

2. While-reading task

At this stage, the lecturer should design some tasks to make students read the text efficiently and have a deep understanding. Tasks are designed to train the students' reading skills such as scanning, skimming, reading for thorough understanding and critical reading. As for reading activities, there are many forms that can be used in class: read for specific information, read for gist or general ideas of the text, deduce the meanings of certain words from a given context; recognize author's purposes and attitudes, (Mao, 2012).

For reading the "Introduction Section" of AIMRaD format primary research article in the classroom, the students are required to find the detailed information in the text. The lecturer provides table which contains guidance questions of what informations ideally should be included in the text. They are directed to discuss what they find in group, and each of group to complete the table. The questions can be seen in Appendix B. At last, group report their work. The tasks used in this stage fit in information gap activities in which one student or group of students has one set of information and another student or group has a complementary set of information. They must negotiate and find out what the other party's information is in order to complete an activity.

3. Post-reading tasks

Post-reading tasks are principally designed for learners to practice communicative output to offer students communicative opportunities to use the language point to communicae and extend the content of the text to the real-life situation. At this stage, the student are expected to write an outlining or a summary of the text. This tasks function as a bridge to connect between reading and writing activities. The tasks in this stage belong to reasoning-gap which involves deriving some new information from given information through processes of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns. At the end of this stage, the students are also required to write their evaluation to the text. They need to check whether all components of an "Introduction section" has completed or not. Then, the students make a list of some strengths and weaknesses found in the text content and organization.

In short, the aim of designing of this lesson according to TBLT is to have students be familiar with IMRaD format research paper, get detailed information of the text, report or summarize the text and criticize or evaluate the text. The tasks will promote not only reading and writing skills but also speaking one. Tasks such as sharing personal experience, skimming, ordering and reporting in groups, information-gap task and reasoning-gap task are all used to achieve the learning goal effectively.

Conclusions

This paper concentrates on the practical aspect of using TBLT in the classroom for bridging reading and writing in the classroom for postgaduate students in EAP context. It has covers three main points: (1) the theories of TBLT, (2) critical reading of scientif papers for postgraduate students in EAP context and (3) designing bridging reading and writing lesson plan based on TBLT. TBLT focuses on how to learn rather than what to learn. The task is a mean of using language to in order to learn language. It has meaning for student from pedagogical tasks to real-world or target task in real-life academic or profesional tasks.

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