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sCHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. The Theoretical Framework

2.1.1 Digital Storytelling

According to the Digital Storytelling Association (2002), digital storytelling is the modern version of the traditional art of storytelling that uses digital media as a mean to tell, to share, and to preserve. Due to the fact that it is the modern version of storytelling using digital media, therefore, this study addressed the definition of traditional storytelling and digital media in order to fully understand the concept of Digital Storytelling.

Behmer (2005) explained storytelling as the sharing of our or others ideas and experiences through words and actions with the purpose of transferring meaning. Behmer emphasizes that the essential element of storytelling is the transfer of meaning.

As many authors already defined that media is a tool to store or to deliver the information, the term of digital is still a vague concept. The term means different things to different people. However, in this research the term digital refers to electronic or mechanical devices (Rouse, 2005). In other words digital media can be interpreted as an electronic or a mechanical tool that can be used to store or to deliver data and information.

Taking into account that definitions, what Digital Storytelling Association means can be interpreted as the sharing of information through words and actions using electronic or mechanical tools whose purpose is to

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transfer meaning. As its name implies, digital storytelling uses digital devices, software applications and multiple types of media such as text, image, voice (narration), music, or video.

Along with the above definition, there are many other definitions of digital storytelling. Ohler (2008) describes digital storytelling as the use of personal technology in order to integrate a number of media into a coherent narrative. Oxford dictionary explains the term narrative as a representation of a particular situation or process in such a way as to reflect or conform to an overarching set of aims or values.

In order to represent information and to convey the meaning, the combination of the number of digital medias is an essential element in digital storytelling. Thus, selecting the right digital media to be used, positioning them accurately, and combining them with a systemic arrangement of information are the gold standard of creating an effective digital storytelling.

Robin (2008) explains that Digital storytelling is a technology application that is well-positioned to take advantage of user-contributed content. At its core, digital storytelling allows computer users to become creative storytellers through the traditional processes of selecting a topic, conducting some research, writing a script, and developing an interesting story. This material is then combined with various types of multimedia, including computer-based graphics, recorded audio, computer-generated text, video clips, and music so that it can be played on a computer.

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Robin (2008) differentiates between three main groups of narrative: 1) personal narratives which are one of the most popular genres 2) digital stories that examine historical events; 3) stories that inform or instruct. The term digital storytelling can itself be applied to a wide range of genres (interactive vs. non interactive narrative) and can be of many different types as follows:

Narrative Information or Expository: (1) personal expression, (2) myths or folk tales, (3) short story, (4) summary reports, (5) book reports, (6) how-to directions, (7) biographies. Persuasive; (8) advertisements, (9) describe or conclude, (10) analyze or conclude, (11) analyze or persuade, (12) compare or contrast, (13) cause and effect. Environment (s): (14) participatory environment.

The Center for Digital Storytelling (2010) identifies the major components of a digital story by breaking the creative process into seven steps. This process, known as “The Seven Elements of Digital Storytelling” includes the following components: (1) Point of View shows the purpose and author’s perspective of the story, (2) A Dramatic Question arouses the audience’s curiosity and will be given an explanation by the end of the story, (3) Emotional Content involves the audience in the story, (4) The Gift of Voice helps the audience understand the story through personalization of the narration, (5) The Power of Soundtrack supports the story with appropriate music, (6) Economy avoids overloading the viewer with

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excessive use of visuals and/or audio, and (7) Pacing provides a rhythm to the story and deals with how slowly or quickly the story is told.

2.1.2 Educational Use of Digital Storytelling

Digital technology has been used in a variety of learning activities in education. Brenner (2014) argues that when digital technology is integrated appropriately with the learning process, it will produce the successful learning outcome. As an example is digital storytelling. It can be implemented in the curriculum as a medium of instruction applied by the teachers, or as the tools created by the students. Some educators may prefer the first mentioned and show them to their students as a way to present new material.

In this research, digital storytelling refers to the medium of instruction which is used by the teacher in the classroom. Burmark (2004) finds that integrating visual images with written text enhances and accelerates student comprehension. Digital storytelling is an especially good technology tool for collecting, creating, analyzing, and combining visual images with written text.

Signes (2007) explains that digital storytelling is a flexible and adaptable tool which can fit most purposes and can be used in almost all the subjects being taught. Its flexibility comes from the fact that, it can be create by a range of tools from the simplest to more complicated ones

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depending on the purpose of the activity. The same can be applied to the linguistic or literary means used to elaborate the story itself.

Robin (2008) implies that in education, digital storytelling is a medium to connect and to collaborate teachers and students. It helps them harness the power of voice and imagery by using technology that is relevant to the way of the modern live. It can be used not only as an anticipatory set or hook to capture the attention of students and increasing their interest in exploring new ideas, but also as a way to enhance current lessons within a larger unit, as a way to facilitate discussion about the topics presented, and as a way to make abstract or conceptual content more understandable. He adds by elaborating that digital storytelling allows students and teachers not only to help them to cultivate the ability to cooperate with others, but also to foster the information gathering and problem-solving skills.

Robin (2008) Digital Storytelling can also be a great tool for students who are taught to create their own stories. This type of activity can generate interest, attention and motivation for the students of Z generation in today's classrooms. The students who participate in the creation of digital stories may develop enhanced communications skills by learning to organize their ideas, ask questions, express opinions, and construct narratives. It also can help students as they learn to create stories for an audience, and present their ideas and knowledge in an individual and meaningful way.

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2.1.3 The Nature of Reading

Reading can be defined into several definitions. Nunan (1989: 72), Harmer (2001: 199), William Grabe (2002: 9), and Jhonson (2008: 3) state that reading is the activity of examining the texts, symbols, or pictures which involve active interaction between the reader and the subject being read to extract the meaning. They clearly imply that the only goal which the readers seek is to understand the information, and reading comprehension is the result of the reading activity. They want to emphasize that to understand the information and to draw the meaning, the readers must have an active interaction with the subjects being read, and interpret that information by connecting them to the knowledge of the world around and the language skills.

Beatrice S. Mikulecky (2008:1) sees reading differently. She divides the process of reading into two, conscious and unconscious thinking process. She argues that the reader read by comparing the information in the text, conscious process, to his or her background knowledge and prior experience, unconscious process. The idea of two processes of reading is similar to what (Phang et.al, 2003) explain. However, they divide the two processes into word recognition and comprehension. While the word recognition refers to the process of perceiving how written symbols correspond to one's spoken language, the comprehension is the process of making sense of words, sentences and connected text.

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Taking into account the similarity between the above ideas, it can be concluded that when reading the readers interact themselves with the texts and connect the information of the texts to their background knowledge and prior experience. The main purpose of reading is to extract the meaning of the texts being read. Reading is as an active process of getting the meaning of a printed word or verbal symbols in written texts which purpose is to draw and understand the meaning. To comprehend the texts, readers also need to combine their language skills and background knowledge of the world.

Effective reading is essential for success in acquiring a second language. Readers typically make use of background knowledge, vocabulary, grammatical knowledge, experience with text and other strategies to help them understand written texts. Above all, reading is the basis of instruction in all aspects of language learning. Reading instruction is an essential component of every second-language curriculum. Understanding some important facts about reading, literacy, and teaching methods are essential for providing effective instruction of reading.

2.1.4. Reading Comprehension

According to Klingner (2007:2), reading comprehension is the process of constructing meaning by coordinating a number of complex processes, including word reading, word and world knowledge, and fluency.

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It refers to the ability in interpreting the words, understanding the meaning and the relationships between ideas conveyed in a text.

Klingner argues that fluency is one of the factors that involves in comprehension. However, McNeil (1984: 10) excludes fluency from the comprehension process. He explains that reading comprehension is the search for meaning actively using the knowledge of the world of the text to understand each new thing read. He adds by elaborating three elements of reading for comprehension: (1) a reader needs knowledge of the world to understand new things, (2) a reader needs to be familiar with the variety of the text structure he/she is likely to come upon, and (3) a reader needs to seek meaning and not passively for it to rise up from the page. In short, to acquire a comprehension the reader should be able to define the printed words, to relate the sentences, to find the main and supporting ideas as well as to add the new knowledge into the prior knowledge.

According to Mikulecky and Jefries (1996: 14) reading comprehension is the learning process to think in new ways about what you are reading. In other words, reading comprehension is the connections between the reader's knowledge and what they read.

King and Stanley (2004:8) explain that there are five aspects of processing of reading comprehension. They are; finding factual information, finding main idea, finding the meaning of vocabulary in context, identifying reference, and making inferences." The theory above can be described as follows:

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a) Finding main idea

Reading concerns with meaning to a greater extent than it is to form. An efficient reader understands not only the ideas but also their relative significance as expressed by the author, in other words, some of the ideas are super ordinate while other subordinate.

b) Finding factual information/ details

Factual information requires readers to scan specific details. There are many types of question of factual information such as; question type of reason, purpose, result, comparison, means, identify, time, and amount. In which most of the answers can be found in the text.

c) Finding the meaning of vocabulary in context

It means that the readers could develop their guessing ability to the word which is unfamiliar with them, by relating the close meaning or unfamiliar words to the text and the topic of the text that is read. The words have the same meaning as another word.

d) Identifying references

Recognizing references words or phrases to which they refer will help readers understand the reading passage. Students of English might learn many rules for the sentences. Reference words are usually short and are frequently pronouns, such it, she, he, this, those, and so on.

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e) Making an inference

The importance of reading is to understand what the writer wrote; it is expected that the reader can infer what the writer wrote. In other words, a good reader is a reader who is able to draw inference logically and make accurate predictions.

According to Zainil (2005) understanding the paragraph involves the process in identifying the paragraph elements such as; topic, main idea, detailed informatio and references, paragraph developments such as coherence and cohesion in between and among the paragraph.

While topic is the words or phrase functioning as the subject of the paragraph and it predicts what the whole paragraph is about, Main idea stand differently from the topic. It is the sentence that explains the whole paragraph. In short, the abilities in identifying the elements of the passage helps the readers to fully understand the meaning and information of the texts.

Thus, it can be inferred that reading comprehensions are one's ability in comprehending the message of the reading materials. It is an interactive process of transferring what the readers read into meaning. It involves the process of identifying the text elements such as; finding main idea, details, the meaning of vocabulary in context, identifying reference, and making reference. Then, those become indicators for reading comprehension of this research.

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2.1.5. Teaching Reading

Teaching reading comprehension is essential because reading is the most important activity in any language classroom. Besides, it becomes a medium to get information. It is also a mean for expanding students' background knowledge about language. The following are the stages of teaching reading Brown (2001) and Vaughn & Bos (2009):

1) Before reading

In this stage, the teacher should introduce the topic of the text that the students will read in order to activate students' background knowledge. The teacher should also introduce strategies in reading such as skimming, scanning, predicting, activating schemata, and the other strategies that can help students comprehend the text. The use of prompts such as visuals, realia, and photos are recommended (Gower et al., 1995).

2) Whilst reading

In this stage, the teachers asks the students some questions based on the text and ask them to predict and find the answers while reading. The teacher monitors students' comprehension by encouraging them to summarize part of the text that they have read.

3) After reading

At this stage, the teacher may provide follow-up activities such as discussing the content of the text, retelling the text, answering the comprehension questions, learning vocabulary found in the text, etc.

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According to Nunan (2003: 68), teaching reading has at least two aspects. First, it refers to teaching learners who are learning to read for the very first time, and Second, it refers to teaching learners who already have reading skill in their first language. These two important aspects need to be understood by the teachers in order to improve the students skill in reading.

Moreover, Richards (2002: 273) says that reading receives a special focus on teaching. There are three reasons for this: First, many foreign language students often have reading as one of their most important goals. Second, written text serves as various pedagogical purposes. Third, reading is a skill which is highly valued by students and teachers.

Based on the explanation above, it can be inferred that teaching reading is a complex process. Teachers need to consider many aspects of teaching reading as well as the factors that involve in the activity of reading. Moreover reading is useful for students. It also provides good models for English writing and provide opportunities to study the language. Many exposure to reading activities in the classroom will provide students with the better chance of success in learning.

2.1.6 The Nature of Listening

When discussing about listening, people tend to assume it as hearing. However, listening involves a more complex process than hearing (Burley-Allen, 1982). Hearing designates the process in which sound waves are received and modified by the ear. Unlike the process of hearing, listening refers to the process of becoming aware of sound sequences. In listening to

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speech, the person first identifies the component sounds and then recognizes sound sequences as known words through the avenues of auditory analysis, mental reorganization and association of meaning (Taylor, 1964). In other words, listening is a learned skill characterized as a highly complex problem solving activity (Byrnes, 1984).

Feyten (1991) confirms that listening is more than simply hearing or perceiving aural stimuli and more than mere comprehension. He adds by defining listening as the process by which spoken language is converted to the meaning in mind. It refers to the process of the information extraction in order to draw a meaning from what people are listening to.

Scarcella (1992) and Rost (2002) argue that listening as a complex process of interpretation in which listeners match what they hear with what they have already known. Listening is helpful in understanding the world around. It is one of the necessary elements in creating successful communication. Listeners apply what they know from sociolinguistic rules of speaking to predict what they are likely to hear next and they interpret what they hear based on what they know of the culture, the grammar and the vocabulary of the language.

Jafari and Hashim (2015) emphasized that listening is a channel for comprehensible input and more than 50 percent of the time learners spend in learning a foreign language is devoted to listening. Listening is the medium of instruction in the learning process. Therefore, the comprehension of listening input is very crucial.

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Thus, from the discussion, it can be stated that listening itself is the combined process of information reorganizing, absorbing the meaning from incoming cues, predicting the context and recalling key words and ideas. Appropriate contextual visuals exactly play the role of assisting the listener in arranging messages, catching crucial hints, inferring the ideas and deepening the impression on the listening task.

2.1.7. Listening Comprehension

Comprehension involves the process of understanding the spoken texts. The term “listening comprehension” has been defined by different authors. According to Brown and Yule (1983), listening comprehension means that a person understands what he/she has heard. If he/she learns the text through hearing it, he/she will understand it. Listening comprehension can be interpreted as the understanding which people reach to what they are listening to.

Rost (2002) and Hamouda (2013) defined listening comprehension as an interactive process in which listeners are involved in constructing meaning. Listeners comprehend the oral input through sound discrimination, previous knowledge, grammatical structures, stress and intonation, and the other linguistic or non-linguistic clues.

Dirven and Oakeshott-Taylor (1984) defined listening comprehension as the product of teaching methodology and is matched by

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terms such as speech understanding, spoken language understanding, speech recognition, and speech perception.

According to Nadig (2013), listening comprehension is the various processes of understanding and making sense of spoken language. These involve knowing speech sounds, comprehending the meaning of individual words, and understanding the syntax of sentences.

Listening comprehension is a complex process. We must understand the text as we listen to it, keep the information in memory, combine it with what follows and adjust our comprehending of what we hear through previous knowledge and next information. Teachers should assist the students in the process of listening comprehension. Listening activities should be arranged from basic to more complex to ease the learners learning process.

Philips (2006) suggested five indicators to measure listening comprehension:

1. Basis comprehension

It is the measure of listener understanding of overall idea or specific detail of information. The indicators is divided into two: (1) listener ability of finding the gist (main idea or overall information), and (2) listener ability to find the detailed information.

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2. Pragmatic understanding

The measurement to indicate listener ability to find the reasons and the feelings of the speaker in the specific situation: (3) listener ability to identify the purpose of the speaker when talking in a specific situation.

3. Connecting information

The indicators were divided into two: (4) listener ability to identify the sequence, and (5) listener ability to make inference.

2.1.8 Teaching Listening

Vandergrift and Goh (2009) explain that the teaching of listening emphasize the extraction of meaning from the texts and overlooked the need to teach learners how to listen. Instruction focus mainly on verifying the outcomes of listening rather than developing the learning processes. Even when pre-listening activities are used to activate prior knowledge, the focus is limited to prior knowledge about the contents.

Listening instruction should offer a basic learning experiences to help listeners discover the idea of the listening processes. If students are not taught how to listen, listening activities become nothing more than disguised forms of testing learners' existing listening abilities, which only increase anxiety about listening.

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Technological advances in global communication have made listening crucial. A wide range of books, articles and materials aimed at assisting teachers to develop learners' listening skills are available and a variety of comprehension-based methodologies have been proposed (Anderson & Lynch, 1988; Rost, 1990; Underwood, 1989). Given the importance of listening in language learning and teaching, it is essential for language teachers to help their students become effective listeners. In the communicative approach to language teaching, this means modeling listening strategies and providing listening practice in authentic situations that learners are likely to encounter when they use the language outside the classroom.

Types of listening practice according to Rost (2002):

Types of Listening	Learning Focus	Activity Focus
Intensive	Focus on phonology, syntax, lexis	Learner pays close attention to what is actually said. Teacher feedback on accuracy
Selective	Focus on main ideas, pre-set tasks	Learner attempts to extract key information and construct or utilise information in a meaningful way. Teacher intervention during task and feedback on task completion
Interactive	Focus on becoming active as a listener; attempt to clarify meaning or form.	Learner interacts verbally with others, in collaborative tasks, to discover information or negotiate solutions. Teacher feedback on form and outcome of interaction.
Extensive	Focus on listening continuously, managing large amounts of listening input.	Learner listens to longer extracts and performs meaning oriented tasks. Teacher direct instruction on

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		comprehension strategies; global feedback from teacher.
Responsive	Focus on learner response to input.	Learner seeks opportunities to respond and convey her own opinions and ideas. Teacher 'pushes output' from learner.
Autonomous	Focus on learner management of progress, navigation of 'Help' options	Learner selects own extracts and tasks, monitors own progress; decides on own patterns of interaction with others. Global feedback from teacher on learning path

A balanced approach to listening instruction would aim to include all six types, with an instructional priority on those types that offer the most engagement and are consistent with learning and assessment goals.

1. Intensive listening

Intensive listening refers to listening closely for precise sounds, words, phrases, grammatical units and pragmatic units. Although it does not seem that listening intensively is called for in most everyday situations, accurate perception is involved in higher level comprehension and listening. The ability to listen intensively when required, as in listening for specific details or to spot a particular word, is an essential component of listening proficiency.

2. Selective listening

selective listening refers to listening with a planned purpose in mind, often to gather specific information to perform a task. Selective listening

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tasks may be the most salient form of listening instruction in use today. Morley (1972 as cited in Rost, 2002) explained that the only way to improve aural comprehension is to spend many hours practicing listening. However, according to Rost (2002) a directed program of purposeful listening can shorten the time. Selective listening as a prerequisite for the more complex and more extended listening that learners in an academic course would need to undertake. Morley believed that using carefully planned and graded listening lessons would help students learn to listen and get facts so they become ready to listen and get ideas.

3. Interactive listening

Interactive listening refers to listening in a collaborative conversation in which learners interact with each other or with native speakers. It is seen as a vital means of language development and as a benchmark of listening performance. Its potential benefits seem to be both in ‘forcing comprehensible output’, that is, compelling the learner to formulate ideas in the target language, and in ‘forcing negotiation’, that is, leading the learner to come to understand language that is initially not understood. Learners acquire new linguistic forms as a product of attending to them in the communicative contexts that collaborative discourse provides.

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4. Extensive listening

Extensive listening refers to listening for an extended period of time, while focusing on meaning. Extensive listening can include academic listening, also known as listening for academic purposes and sheltered language instruction. It can also include extended periods of listening in the target language outside of classroom settings, paralleling what in reading instruction is referred to as 'reading for pleasure'. For extensive listening to be successful for an L2 learner, it is necessary for the learner to have access to listening input that can be understood reasonably well on the first listening. It is important to aim for high levels of learner satisfaction and comprehension, providing whatever preparation is needed.

5. Responsive listening

Responsive listening refers to a type of listening practice in which the listener's response is the goal of the activity. The listener's response in this type of activity is expressing an opinion or point of view rather than giving back facts based on what was heard. One structured method of using ongoing listener response is a paused task. Listening task design using short inputs (typically one or two minutes long) and overt listener response have great benefits for listening training.

6. Autonomous listening

Autonomous listening refers to a self directed listening activity in which learners choose what to listen to, seek feedback on their

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comprehension, respond in ways they choose, and monitor their own progress. In effect, all natural language acquisition that does not involve teachers or classrooms or online course is autonomous listening. Within the autonomous listening paradigm, however, teachers can still influence the success of their students, particularly through instruction in a range of listening and learning strategies.

2.1.9 Descriptive Text

Descriptive text is one of the text types that must be mastered by the higher education students. The students have to know what the purposes of the text, the social function of the text, organizational structure of the text and the language feature that can be used in the descriptive text.

To support the students in comprehending the texts, knowledge about the types of texts is needed. Depdiknas (2006) states that the thirteen genres of the texts that must be known by the students are as follows; Narrative, recount, procedure, descriptive, news item, analytical exposition, hortatory exposition, report, spoof, explanation, discussion, review, and anecdote.

According to Garrot and Wignell (1994:208) descriptive text is the text that describes a particular person, place or thing; the text usually describes the person based on the shape of body, the attitude, the habit, the age, the activities and families. The place is usually described in the texts based on location, size and content. The text usually describes the thing

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based on shape, location, destiny, content, size, weight, height, width, and so on. In addition, they implies that the generic structures of a descriptive text are identification and description. The identification is to identify phenomenon or subject that is going to be described, and the description is to describe specific parts, qualities, and characteristics of an object that is being described. They also indentify the language feature of descriptive text, they are; (a) focus on specific participant; (b) use of attributive and identifying process; (c) use adjective to explain noun; (d) use the simple present tense.

Similarly, Cavanagh (1998:15) implies that descriptive text means to describe something, someone, or place, such as the description of character or setting in a story or biography. The generic structure of descriptive text include an introduction which introduces the subject of the description, characteristic features which are the characteristics (e.g. Physical appearance, qualities, habitual behavior, significant attributes). There may also some optional evaluation interpreted though the text and an optional concluding comment. Language feature of descriptive text can be indetified as follows; the use of nouns and adjective, factual, numbering, classifying, use of action verbs, and the use of figurative language, particularly in literary description.

In addition, Kane (2000: 352) states that descriptive text is about sensory experiences, how something looks, sounds, tastes. Mainly, it is about visual experience, but the description also deals with other kinds of

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perception. The social function of this text is to describe a person/people, place, thing, event, and etc. In other word, descriptive text is to illustrate someone, something, and place. Moreover, it also describes someone or something that involves forming, characteristic, quantity, and etc.

Based on the explanation above, it can be concluded that there are some indicators of descriptive text which consist of; (1) the social function of the text (to describe a particular person, place or thing); (2) the generic structure of the text (identification: to identify phenomenon to be described, and description: describes parts, qualities, characteristics); (3) the significant lexico-grammatical features or language features of the text. It is also important to include the elements of the descriptive text in reading and listening comprehension of the descriptive texts.

2.2 Related Studies

The related studies mean to analyze the topic, the design, the finding, and the conclusion of the previous studies. The following were the previous studies conducted by other researchers in which they were relevant to this research:

1. Ariffin Abdul Mutalib, Nurulnadwan Aziz, Zatul Amilah Shaffiei (2011), “Digital Storytelling Makes Reading Fun and Entertaining”, conducted the study to investigate whether digital storytelling (DST) was fun and entertaining for reading. They highlighted the history of reading materials and their chronology, including the development of

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digital storytelling that adapts the user-centered design approach. Further, a user test of the digital storytelling is elaborated including the results which were obtained from the observation on 25 8-year old children, employed from two primary schools in Malaysia, which were selected to be involved in natural setting, and 18-year old children which were selected for testing. For the additional data, the interview was also conducted. They concluded that the DST was able to deliver fun among the readers and it was entertaining.

Similar to the present study, digital storytelling and reading were investigated. The present study assumed that digital storytelling had the significant effect on students' reading skill. The assumption of the present study was supported by the study of Muthalib, Aziz and Shaffie (2011). Students' reading ability improvement was possible when the strategy used in teaching was fun and entertaining. However, the previous study did not specifically investigate the effect of digital storytelling on students' comprehension ability of reading and listening. Therefore, the present study aimed to prove the assumption that had been made.

2. Dongseok Choi (2012), "Digital Storytelling Technology for Developing Schema for ESL/EFL Reading Comprehension", investigated the potential of digital storytelling in helping learners to develop schema for reading comprehension. He described and provided the information about digital storytelling on reading comprehension as

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the result of the development of ESL/EFL schema. In addition, he provided information about the digital storytelling software applications, along with the theoretical aspects of digital storytelling. Finally, he suggested some practical principles of effective creation of digital stories and stated some limitations of digital storytelling that English teachers need to consider. In conclusion, he suggested that digital storytelling assisted the students in developing schema which helped them to reach the comprehension.

In line with the present study, digital storytelling and reading comprehension were investigated. The present study assumed that digital storytelling had significance effect on students' reading comprehension. The assumption of the present study was supported by the study of Choi (2012). Shcema played significance roles in assisting students' reading comprehension. However, the previous study did not conduct an experimental research to spesifically investigate the effect of digital storytelling on students' reading comprehension and listening comprehension. Therefore, the quasi experimental research design is applied to the present study to reveal the accuracy of the assumption that has been suggested.

3. Rofiza Aboo Bakar, and Hanani Ahmad Zubir (2014), "What Good is Digital Storytelling? The Case of Cognitive Reading Responses between Two Readers", applied qualitative research method to study

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the students' cognitive reading responses that emerged by developing digital storytelling. Reader response theory was used as the theoretical framework. The above average and below average readers of the university students were taken as the samples of this study. They found that both readers had responded well by activating their background knowledge, establishing purpose for reading, identifying main ideas, summarizing and drawing inferences although the below-average reader was not as adept as the above-average reader in these cognitive elements. In conclusion, they suggested that digital storytelling was seen as having potential to be integrated in the English reading classroom since it could help readers of different proficiency levels to utilize their cognitive abilities.

The previous study investigated digital storytelling and reading, cognitive response aspect. The present study assumed that digital storytelling have significance effect on students' reading, comprehension aspect. The assumption of the present study was supported by the study of Rofiza and Hanani (2014). Cognitive reading responses played significant roles in assisting students' reading comprehension. However, the previous study did not conduct an experimental research to specifically investigate the effect of digital storytelling on students' reading comprehension and listening comprehension. Therefore, the quasi experimental research design applied aims to prove the assumption that has been suggested.

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4. Sepideh Slikhord, Bahman Gorjian, and Abdolreza Pazhakh (2013), “The Effect of Digital Stories on Reading Comprehension: An Internet-Based Instruction for Iranian Efl Young Learners”, conducted an experimental study with pre test and post-test procedure to find out the impact of digital stories on reading comprehension through an internet-based instruction among Iranian young learner. They selected 60 subjects, 18 boys and 42 girl 12 years old children, as the sample which were randomly divided in to three groups, two experimental and one control group. Pre and post-test were applied for all of the groups. Then, they found out that the internet-based instruction of digital stories had the most effect on young EFL learners’ reading comprehension. Moreover, they also found out that using pre and post work activities can also help to improve learners’ reading comprehension.

The previous study assumed that the instruction based on digital stories can improve students reading comprehension. The pre test and post-test procedure, and experimental research design with the treatment and control groups are similar to this study. However, the population, and the sample of the study can be clearly seen. The previous study suggested that pre and post work assist the learners’ reading comprehension improvement, but it did not specifically study the effect of digital storytelling on students reading comprehenssion. Therefore the present study aims to reveal it.

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5. Regina Royer, and Patricia Richards (2007), “Increasing Reading Comprehension with Digital Storytelling PROCEEDINGS”, examined the alignment between the digital storytelling process and the scientific-based reading research comprehension recommendations of the National Reading Panel. They also examined the effect that creating a digital story has on teachers' understandings of how digital storytelling can be used to increase reading comprehension. They provided information about digital storytelling proceeding and the concept of how digital storytelling improve reading comprehension. Finally, they implied that digital storytelling can be used as a learning strategy in multiple content areas, including increasing reading comprehension.

The previous study assumed that digital storytelling can improve reading comprehension. In line with the present study, digital storytelling and reading comprehension were investigated. The present study assumed that digital storytelling had significance effect on students' reading comprehension. The assumption of the present study was supported by Regina Royer, and Patricia Richards (2007). Digital storytelling plays a significance roles in assisting students' reading comprehension. However, the previous study did not conduct an experimental research to spesifically investigate the effect of digital storytelling on students' reading comprehension and listening comprehension. Therefore, the quasi experimental research design is

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applied to the present study to reveal the accuracy of the assumption that has been suggested.

6. Dwi Rosita Sari (2013) “Digital Story: An Effective Media to Teach Listening from the Perspective of Students’ Schemata” conducted an experimental study at one of the universities in Madiun, East Java. The study aimed to identify the effectiveness of digital story media in teaching listening, and whether there was an interaction between the media and studentss’ schemata. She selected 132 students which were divided into two groups, experimental and control group, as the sample. She applied pre and post-test and schemata questionnaier to collect the data. After analyzing the data in SPSS, she concluded that: (1) Digital Story Media was more effective than Animation Video in teaching listening; (2) the students having high schemata had better listening skill than the students having low schemata; and (3) there was an interaction between teaching media and students’ schemata in teaching listening.

In her study, she did not differ between digital stories and digital storytelling. However, she insisted on using the term of digital story media. Similar to the present study, the previous study assumed that digital storytelling would have significant difference on students’ listening comprehension. It was focused on finding out the role of schemata in listening comprhension. The assumption in the present

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study is supported by the previous study, Rosita (2013). However, the previous study did not elaborate how digital storytelling assisted students in reading comprehension. Therefore, the present study seeks to prove the assumption that digital storytelling can improve students reading comprehension.

7. Shanti C. Sandarana and Lim Chia Kiab (2013) carried out an observations and comprehension exercises during an on-going study on the use of digital stories for listening comprehension among Primary Year 3 students in a Chinese medium school. 30 primary Year 3 students (aged 9) were involved in the listening/viewing of 8 animations of fairy tales over a period of 8 weeks. The findings based on the observations revealed that the students displayed high levels of interest, attention and motivation. The students also showed interest in fairy tales. The results from the comprehension exercises showed some level of improvement in their comprehension of the stories. The observations revealed that students showed a positive attitude towards digital stories. Finally, they concluded that digital stories had the potential in increasing the level of motivation, interest, and attention in ESL/EFL learning. The findings also highlighted the importance of pre-teaching of key vocabulary for the success of using digital stories to improve listening comprehension.

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The previous study did not differ between digital stories and digital storytelling. However, the authors insisted on using the term of digital stories. Similar to the present study, the previous study assumed that digital storytelling would have significant difference on students' listening comprehension. The previous study, Sandrana and Kiab (2013) supports the assumption of the present study. However, the previous study did not elaborate how digital storytelling assisted students in reading comprehension. Therefore, the present study aims to prove the assumption that has been made.

8. Ramirez and Alonso (2007), "Using Digital Stories To Improve Listening Comprehension With Spanish Young Learners Of English", launched a quasi-experimental research study to examine the effects that digital stories may have on the understanding of spoken English. A pre-post test design was used on a group of 6-year-old Spanish learners to investigate whether internet-based technology could improve listening comprehension in English as a Foreign Language (henceforth, EFL). Findings indicated that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the final test administered. These results raised interesting issues related to the use of technology in the context of foreign language learning. Finally, they concluded that learners in the experimental group improved their listening comprehension skills and outperformed the control group. They also implied that the pedagogical

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practice of digital stories promoted concentration and focused children's attention on the oral input received.

The previous study associated the term of digital stories with the concept of multimedia technology which did not differ between digital stories and digital storytelling. Similar to the present study, the previous study assumed that digital storytelling would have significant difference on students' listening comprehension. The previous study, Ramirez and Alonso (2013) supports the assumption of the present study. However, the previous study did not specifically investigate the integration of a particular reading text with digital storytelling. It also did not show how digital storytelling assisted students in reading comprehension. Therefore, the present study aims to highlight the effect of digital storytelling on students' reading and listening comprehension on a particular reading text.

9. Mohamad Jafre Zainol Abidin, Majid Pour-Mohammadi, Thongma Souriyavongsa, Chin Da Bun Tiang, Nancy Ong Liew Kim (2011), "Improving Listening Comprehension among Malay Preschool Children Using Digital Stories", conducted a study to investigate the effects of digital stories on the understanding of spoken English by a group of 6-year-old Malay preschool children. A quasi-experimental research study was carried out in a suburban school in Penang, Malaysia. A pretest and a posttest were utilised to find out whether

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internet-based technology could improve listening comprehension in English as a Second Language. Results signified that the experimental group outshone the control group in the final test administered. The findings broached interesting subjects related to the use of technology in the context of second language learning.

Similar to the present study, the previous study assumed that digital storytelling would have significant difference on students' listening comprehension. The previous study supports the assumption of the present study. However, the previous study did not specifically investigate the integration of a particular reading text with digital storytelling. It also did not show how digital storytelling assisted students in reading comprehension. Therefore, the present study aims to highlight the effect of digital storytelling on students' reading and listening comprehension on a particular reading text.

10. Yang & Wu (2011) "Digital storytelling for enhancing student academic achievement, critical thinking, and learning motivation: A year-long experimental study" investigated the impact of digital storytelling (DST) on student academic achievement, critical thinking, and learning motivation by adopting quasi experimental research design by using pre test and post-test. The findings indicated that experimental group performed significantly better than comparison group in terms of English achievement, critical thinking, and learning motivation.

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Similar to the present study, digital storytelling are investigated. The present study assumes that digital storytelling have significance effect on students' reading skill. The assumption of the present study is supported by the study of Yang and Wu (2011). Students' reading ability improvement is possible when the strategy used in teaching is fun and entertaining. However, the previous study did not spesifically investigate the effect of digital storytelling on students' comprehension ability of reading and listening. Therefore, the present study aims to prove the assumption that has been made.

Among 8 related studies, The similarities and differnces of the designs and the variables of the studies which are applied in this study can be clearly seen. The studies were conducted to investigated the impact of independent variable digital storytelling on several dependent variables such as, reading comprehension, listening comprehension, schemata, academic achievement, and motivation. The studies proved that digital storytelling strategy had a significance difference on students reading comprehension and litening comprehension. Thus, it was assumed that digital storytelling was an appropriate way to be used in teaching English. However, the previous studies did not spesifically investigate the integration of a particular reading text with digital storytelling. It was also importance to note that the integration of reading and listening comprehension through the use of digital storytelling had not yet been investigated. Only few studies conducted in Indonesia to investigate digital storytelling. Therefore, the

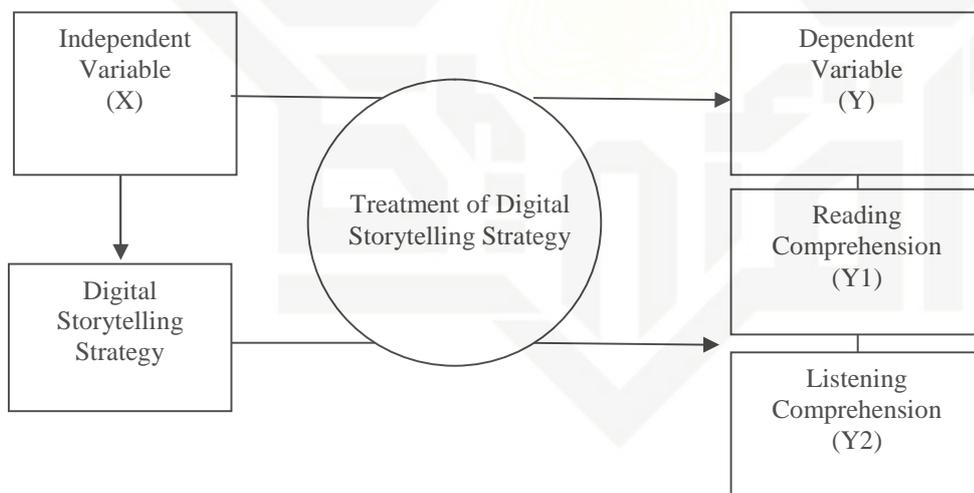
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highlight of the effect of digital storytelling on students' reading and listening comprehension on a particular reading text was essential to be investigated, especially in Indonesia.

2.3 Operational Concepts and Indicators

Operational concept is a main element to avoid misunderstanding and misinterpreting in a specific study. As a concept, it is still operating in an abstract from the research plan which should be interpreted into particular words in order to be easily measured. The operational concept in this research can be seen on the table below:



2.3.1 Indicators

Digital Storytelling strategy

1. Teacher asks the students to focus on the main point or specific realization tried to be communicated within the story,

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2. Teacher provides the key question related to the topic that will be answered by the end of the story,
3. Teacher asks the students to take a note of difficult vocabulary,
4. Teacher presents the digital storytelling related to the topic,
5. Teacher facilitates discussion of the new or difficult vocabulary with the students,
6. Teacher asks the students to answer the key question provided,
7. Teacher elicits what students know, what they do not know, and what they would like to know related to the topic.

b. Reading Comprehension

The students are able to identify:

- 1) The main idea of the texts,
- 2) The detailed information of the texts,
- 3) The meaning of vocabulary in context,
- 4) References of the texts,
- 5) Inferences of the texts,
- 6) The generic structure of the texts.

c. Listening comprehension

Students are able to:

- 1) identify the gist (overall idea) of the texts,
- 2) identify the detailed information of the texts,
- 3) identify the purpose of the texts,
- 4) identify the sequence of the texts,

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- 5) make inference of the texts,
- 6) Identify the generic structure of the texts.

2.4 Assumptions and Hypotheses**2.4.1 The Assumption**

Many strategies can be used by the teacher in teaching and learning process. Using digital storytelling strategy is assumed to be suitable to teach reading and listening comprehension, especially descriptive text. Using the strategies, students can increase their capability in reading and listening comprehension.

2.4.2 Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were established in order to draw the conclusions which supported the answers of the research questions. They were in the forms of the predictions of the research questions' answers, (Leech, Barret, and Morgan, 2005):

- Ho1 : No significant difference of means between students reading comprehension pretest scores of the experimental and the control group.
- Ha2 : A significant difference of means was displayed between students reading comprehension pretest scores and the post-test scores of the experimental group.

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- Ho3 : No significant difference of means was displayed between students reading comprehension pretest scores and the post-test scores of the control group.
- Ha4 : A significant difference of means was displayed between students reading comprehension pos-test scores of the experimental group and the control group.
- Ho5 : No significant difference of means between students listening comprehension pretest scores of the experimental and the control group.
- Ha6 : A significant difference of means was displayed between students listening comprehension pretest scores and the post-test scores of the experimental group.
- Ho7 : No significant difference of means was displayed between students listening comprehension pretest scores and the post-test scores of the control group.
- Ha8 : A significant difference of means was displayed between students listening comprehension pos-test scores of the experimental group and the control group.