CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED THEORY

2.1 Nature of the Study

Before going further the discussion the researcher thinks that it is important to clarify the nature of DRTA strategy, students' participation, and reading comprehension as in the following explanation.

2.1.1 The Nature of DRTA Strategy

The Directed Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA) is a strategy which guides the students to comprehend the text. It is associated with the DRA (Directed Reading Activity) developed by Russell Stauffer (1969). The directed reading thinking activity is a plan for directing children's reading of either story in content area selections and for encouraging interaction with decoding text (Burns, 1984: 310). The researcher thinks this strategy can be effectively implemented to help the students to improve their ability in reading comprehension.

The DRA or DRTA method is designed to support students' reading comprehension by guiding them to key points in the text and providing opportunities to discuss its meaning with their classmates (Crawford, 2005: 42). Hence, the implementation of DRTA method helps the students so much in searching any information related to the text to find the key point of it. DRTA emphasizes the information of each paragraph that requires them to deepen their understanding about the paragraphs, and to enlarge their knowledge and experiences.

Stall (2008: 364) states that Directed Reading-Thinking Activity (DRTA) is an instructional framework that views reading as a problem-solving process best accomplished in a social context. The value of DRTA is to make prediction before reading each section (Odwan, 2012: 138). Furthermore, Stauffer (1969; in Stall, 2008:364) states that the teacher's role is to select an instructional level text, divide the text into meaningful sections, and facilitate discussion of each section of text. It means that students are responsible for establishing their own purposes for reading, generating predictions, justifying those predictions, independently reading the text, and verifying or revising predictions based on evaluations of information in the text during the teacher-led discussion of each section. Stauffer (1969) recommended using DRTA with narrative or non-narrative text at all grade levels. It means this strategy can be applied generally for all different kind of text.

Inquiry is native to the mind. Children are by nature curious and inquiring and they will be in school if they are permitted to inquire. It is possible to directed the reading thinking process in such a way that children will be encouraged to think when reading to speculate, to search, to evaluate, and to use. Stauffer (1969) further points out that teacher can motivate effort and concentrate his/her students by involving the students intellectually and encouraging them to formulate questions and hypothesis, to process information, and to evaluate tentative solutions. The directed reading thinking activity is directed toward accomplishing these goals. Teacher monitors the students when they read, in the framework of diagnostic difficulties and offer help when the students are difficult interaction with decoding text (Burns, 1984: 310).

DRTA is one metacognitive strategy that enhances understanding and comprehension text. This strategy helps to strengthen reading and critical thinking

skill. It monitors the reader's awareness of whether or not comprehension is occurring (Bauman, 1992: 144). Furthermore, Willis (2008: 155) states that metacognitive is thinking about thinking. Metacognitive strategies can be taught to help the students mentally process the information they read and to recognize what they do or do not understand. Moreover, Westwood (2008: 34) states that the DRTA motivate students to apply the students' metacognitive skills because students think appropriate with train of thought themselves. In this case, DRTA stimulates the students' prior knowledge, involves the students to be active in taking part of constructing the meaning of text and enhance the students' comprehension monitoring ability.

2.1.2 The Nature of Participation

Participation is very crucial element for learning. Learning is an active process and should involve talking. In conventional class, participation always means students speaking in class; answers and asks question, make comment, and join in discussion (Lee, 2005: 2). Furthermore, (Rocca, 2010: 187) defines participation as an active engagement process which can be stored into five categories: preparation, constribution to discussion, communication skill, and attendance. Westwood (2008:14) simply states that participation in teaching learning process is establishing a high response rate to teacher's questioning and prompting Learning is not achieved by adopting a simplistic formula of a mini lecture to the class followed by 'drill and practice', or by expecting students to teach themselves from books or other materials.

Clasroom participation is considered by both famale and male students to be one of the factors related to effective learning and result in more positive views of the learning experiences (Crombie, 2003: 51). Learning occurs because students are engaged cognitively in processing and using relevant information, expressing it in their own words and receiving feedback (Westwood, 2008: 14). The teacher may begin the lesson by presenting information using an explanatory or didactic approach, but then students are expected to enter into dialogue and contribute their own ideas, express their opinions, ask questions, and explain their thinking to others. Biggs (2003; in Kumar 2007:1) further suggests that active learners are able to achieve a higher level of engagement and thus a higher level of cognitive learning in their academic work. The learning process depends on the level of student-student interaction and student- teacher interaction in a conducive learning environment. Hence, The formation of the effective use of materials with clear instructions are essential tools in the teaching-learning process.

Rocca (2010: 187) further states that there is strong evidence for the importance of participating in class (Lyons, 1989; Petress, 2006; Weaver & Qi, 2005). Participation is a way to bring ‘‘students actively into the educational process’’ and to assist in ‘‘enhancing our teaching and bringing life to the classroom’’ (Cohen, 1991, p. 699). Students are more motivated (Junn, 1994), learn better (Daggett, 1997; Garard, Hunt, Lippert, & Paynton, 1998;Weaver & Qi, 2005), become better critical thinkers (Crone, 1997; Garside, 1996), and have self reported gains in character (Kuh & Umbach, 2004) when they are prepared for class and participate in discussions. The more they participate, the less

memorization they do, and the more they engage in higher levels of thinking, including interpretation, analysis, and synthesis (Smith, 1977). The students who participate also show improvement in their communication skills (Berdine, 1986; Dancer & Kamvounias, 2005), group interactions (Armstrong and Boud, 1983), and functioning in a democratic society (Girgin & Stevens, 2005).

Indicators on participation as 'being there' provide no information on the extent and quality of participation. In the context of inclusive education this has been acknowledged as a significant shortcoming. Therefore the definition of participation as it is presently implemented in international statistics needs to be expanded. In order to participate fully in education, an individual needs to be continually and meaningfully involved in an educational program.

2.1.3 The Nature of Reading Comprehension

Woolley (2011: 15) defines that reading comprehension is the process of making meaning from the text. Furthermore, Linse (2005:69) states that reading is a set of skills that involves making sense and deriving meaning from the printed word. Therefore, in order to read, we must be able to decode (sound out) the printed words and also comprehend what we read.

How is the process of reading? Clearly the reader tries to comprehend, in the sense of identifying meanings for individual words and working out relationships between them, drawing on the reader's implicit knowledge of English grammar (Montgomery, 2007: 7). If the reader is unfamiliar with words or idioms, he or she can guess the meaning, using clues presented in the context.

In order to understand text, a reader must be able to identify words rapidly, know the meaning of almost all of the words, and be able to combine sequential units of meaning into a coherent message (Westwood, 2008: 157). Naturally, the majority of students who are very weak at word recognition will have serious difficulties with comprehension. But, it is recognized now that some students who develop adequate word-reading ability and fluency still have difficulty understanding what they are reading, particularly when faced with the expository style of writing used within many school textbooks.

Furthermore, Willis (2008: 128) states that to be succesful at reading comprehension, a reader needs to actively process what he/she reads. That processing skill requires that students have automatic reading skills and fluency, necessary vocabulary, and text-appropriate background knowledge. It means that to comprehend the text the students are not only able to decode or recognize words but also able to access text integration process to construct meaning by activating the background knowledge and their intepretation of what they read.

The simple view of reading has been adopted in the National Literacy Strategy to provide the framework for teaching reading in primary schools. In the United Kingdom it is stated that learning to read involves setting up processes by which the words on the page can be recognised and understood, and continuing to develop the language processes that underlie both spoken and written language comprehension. Both sets of processes are necessary for reading; but neither is sufficient on its own (DCSF: 2006; in Westwood 2008: 15).

Based on the previous explanation, the researcher can make a simple conclusion that reading is not so simple as decoding the word one by one, but it also involves process of thinking and using strategy to get the meaning from the text.

2.2 Conceptual or Theoretical Underpinning of the Research Area

2.2.1 The Concept of Direct Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA)

The Directed Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA) is a comprehension strategy that guides students in asking questions about a text, making predictions, and then reading to confirm or refute their predictions. The DRTA process encourages students to be active and thoughtful readers, enhancing their comprehension (htpp://www.readingrockets.org/strategies/drta).

The value of directed reading thinking activity is to make predictions before reading each section. Requiring students to make predictions encourage use of context clues and establishes a purpose for reading. This cycle requires students to use their background knowledge to set purposes for reading and develop their questioning ability. Verifying predictions while reading extend thoughts and promotes interactive learning. The power of the directed reading thinking activity strategy increases when the teacher guides students to check their predictions after reading (Allen: 2004; in Odwan, 2012: 141).

Moreover, Baumann (1992: 146) states that prediction is a component of several successful program for teaching metacognitive strategies. Hence, prediction may play a bigger role in comprehension monitoring than previously anticipated. Intensive instruction and practice in prediction may result in enhanced

comprehension monitoring abilities (Renn, 1999: 19). Westwood (2001: 59) states that requiring students to make predictions encourage the use of context clues and establishes a purpose for reading. This cycle requires students to use their background knowledge (or also known as prior knowledge) to set purposes for reading and develop their questioning ability.

The directed reading thinking activity is a much stronger model for building independent readers and learners. Almasi (2003; in Odwan, 2012:141) states that the goal for using the directed reading thinking activity is to foster students' independence when reading. Since, it engages students in an active process where they must use their reasoning abilities and their own ideas. The teacher can use this strategy in attempt to build on the knowledge that students already know and apply it to new information and situation.

Furthermore, Allen (2004; in Odwan, 2012: 56) states that the power of the directed reading thinking activity strategy increases when the teacher guides students to check their predictions after reading. Verifying predictions while reading extend thoughts and promotes interactive learning. In other words, the teacher's guidance is important in facilitating the students to assimilate their life expeience with the information they get. This activity stimulates students to be involved in cognitively and mentally. Stahl (2008: 364) explains, in this strategy the teacher role is to select an instructional level text, devide the text into meaningful section, and facilitate discussion of each section of text.

DRTA can be considered as an intructional strategy that is able to monitor students comprehension over the text. The DRTA strategy had used during

reading from October to January 1996, the course of the research time frame, it was observed that when students participated in more direct reading instruction, they used more strategies while they were reading independently. Those students were also more interested in the reading and better understood new and unusual vocabulary encountered during reading. Finding of this study, then, indicates that the implementation of the DRTA strategy dramatically improved the reading comprehension of the students targeted as having reading comprehension difficulties (Salch: 1996; in Renn, 1999: 20).

According Crawford (2005: 44), the purposes of using directed reading thinking activity technique are:

a. It encourages students to be active and thoughtful readers.
b. It activates students' prior knowledge.
c. It teaches students to monitor their understanding of the text as they're reading.
d. It helps strengthen reading and critical thinking skills.

It other words, DRTA strategy can stimulate the students prior knowledge which is needed in reading comprehension. Au and Mason (1986; in Renn, 1999: 10) state that the background knowledge readers brings to the act of reading is what allows them to “grasp the soul” of the words, or to gain meaning. The reader must construct meaning from the text; to do so, the reader must use knowledge of the words as well as knowledge of the text. It means that the reader attracts the background knowledge, or schemata, already in his or her mind to help him in constructing the meaning. The background knowledge the reader brings to the reading situation about the book or topic is reffered as schemata. Besides, the use

of prior knowledge and prediction is clearly of great value in helping students set purposes for reading and use their own experiences as a basis for comprehension text (Renn, 1999: 10). Hence, DRTA strategy attempts to equip readers with the ability to determine the purposes of reading, the ability to extract, comprehend, and assimilate information, the ability to make predictions to examine reading materials based on the purposes of reading, the ability to pass judgments, and finally the ability to make decisions based upon information gleaned from reading.

Moreover, Haggard (1988; in Renn 1999: 16) states several important advantages to the students and the teachers. First, it increases comprehension through its strong emphasis on student-generated prediction, speculation, and conclusions, which are based on and grow from prior knowledge and experience. Secondly, the DRTA establishes a positive instructional environment: a general sharing of background information and experience is invited as the students and teachers move toward the common goal of understanding.

From the previous explanation, it can be concluded that DRTA can activate the students' prior knowledge, stimulate them to think critically, guide them in reading and encourages them to make predictions while they are reading. In this case, after reading segments of a text, the students stop, confirm or revise previous predictions, and make new predictions about what they will read next. Having the skill of making prediction is the main advantages of this DRTA reading technique.

2.2.2 The Implementation of DRTA in the English Classroom

This activity can be done with four to forty students. It is possible to do with more, but their opportunities for participation are diminished. The method requires a sufficient number of texts for all students to read. They also need copies of text to be read, paper and pencils for students. This type of lesson can be completed in 30 to 40 minutes (anticipation phase: 5 to 10 minutes; building knowledge phase: 15 to 20 minutes; consolidation phase: 5 to 10 minutes) (Crawford, 2005: 44).

In using DRTA strategy the teacher should be aware of the reading levels of each student, and be prepared to provide appropriate questions, prompts, and support as needed. As Maria .et.al (2009) suggest that Using the reading strategy of activating background knowledge, making predictions, completing graphic organizers, and answering questions with the DRTA and with interactive material led students to be aware of what they have read, encourage them to learn more, and understand better. In other words, to be successful in implementing DRTA strategy the teacher should be able to select the interesting reading material or story to be read, and prepare attractive visual aids related to the topic or content of the story itself.

In teaching learning process, the use of DRTA strategy to improve the students' reading comprehension should consider *The Conditions of Learning* as in Gagne's book, first published in 1965, identified the mental conditions for learning (Anbar, 2008:5). These were based on the information processing model of the mental events that occur when adults are presented with various stimuli.

Gagne created a nine-step process called the events of instruction, which correlate to and address the conditions of learning. Table 2.1 shows these instructional events in the left column and the associated mental processes in the right column. These nine events activate the processes needed for effective learning. Gagne believes all lessons should include the sequence of these events.

Table 2.1 Gagne's Nine Events of Instruction.

No	Instructional Event	Internal Mental Process
1	Gain attention	Stimuli activates receptors
2	Inform learners of objectives	Creates level of expectation for learning
3	Stimulate recall of prior learning	Retrieval and activation of short-term memory
4	Present the content	Selective perception of content
5	Provide "learning guidance"	Semantic encoding for storage long-term memory
6	Elicit performance (practice)	Responds to questions to enhance encoding and verification
7	Provide feedback	Reinforcement and assessment of correct
8	Assess performance	Retrieval and reinforcement of content as finale valuation
9	Enhance retention and transfer to the job	Retrieval and generalization of learned skill to new situation

Applying Gagne's nine-step model to any training program is the single best way to ensure an effective learning program. In the course development model this is applied to activities by designing its sub activities to match the

Gagne's nine events of instruction; starting from sub-activities that gain attention and define objectives up to sub-activities that provide feedback and assessments.

At the other side, Westwood (2008: 46) explains the process of DRTA involves three basic steps as follows:

a. Predicting some of the information you might find, or raising some questions you hope to have answered in the text.
b. Reading the text carefully, with your prediction and quetions in mind
c. being able to prove, with evidence from the text, any conclusions you make from your reading.

Whereas, Odwan (2012:138) States DRTA is designed based on the following steps:

a. Developing readiness to read the selection. In this first step, the teacher is concerned with: (1) Building a rich conceptual background and/or activating schema for the selection. (2) Identifying and presenting any crucial vocabulary items (one or two words) in context. (3) Helping students establish some purpose/s for reading the selection.
b. Applying the directed reading thinking activity cycle which contains the following components: (1) Students set purposes and make predictions. (2) Silent reading. (3) Students verify predictions and prove set purposes. Students were encouraged to explain what caused them to confirm or revise prior predictions, and what caused them to make the new predictions they were making (Conner, 2006).

c. Comprehension check: The silent reading of the selection was also followed by a discussion of the material read. The aim of the discussion period is to help interpret the material. Students were led to discuss related concepts, and to consider the content of the selection in light of their own experiences. This was related to the purposes set and done informally.

d. Rereading the selection for purposes specified by the teacher. Rereading for specific purposes was done either silently or orally; however, the purpose was different from the purpose(s) for the first silent reading.

e. Evaluation and enrichment activities. In order to document the effectiveness of the lesson for each student, some form of evaluation activity was provided. Follow-up activities can do much to encourage further reading **(**Gipe, 1995).

In this study the researcher uses Crawford's steps in applying DRTA strategy in teaching and learning reading comprehension. Since the steps are more detailed and easier to be done. Crawford (2005: 44-45) describes the activity in DRTA technique as follows:

Step 1: Prepare the text by marking four or five good stopping points. Plan stopping points to fall at moments of suspense in the story.

Step 2: On the chalk board or on chart paper, prepare a chart like the one below. Explain to the students that they will be reading the story, one bit at a time. Remind them that it is important not to read beyond the stopping points. They will be making predictions and reading to confirm those predictions.

Step 3: Ask the students to read the title of the story. Talk about the genre. Name the author. Show the cover illustration. Then ask for their prediction about what will happen in the story. Write those predictions in the space labeled “What do you think will happen?” after the title. Ask the students why they think so. Then enter their reasons under “Why?”

Step 4: The teacher asks the students to read to the first stopping point, and when they have reached it, they should go back and consider the prediction they made before, and say what actually happened. You should record their ideas in the space called “What did happen?”

Step 5: The teacher reviews the predictions and asks which ones are coming true so far. The teacher asks them to read aloud parts of the text that confirm or disconfirm their predictions.

Step 6: Then, the students should predict what they think will happen in the next block of text, and offer new predictions, with the evidence that led to their making those predictions to be entered in the spaces provided. Then they should read on, check their prediction against what did happen, make new predictions, dictate evidence for those predictions, and read the last section.

Step 7: Finally, they should check their last predictions against what actually happened in the story, and dictate their findings about what happened, to be recorded in the space on the form.

Table 2.2 Directed Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA) Chart

	What do you think will happen?	Why do you think so?	What did happen?
After reading the title			
After reading The first part			
After reading The second part			
After reading to the end			

Teachers will notice that comprehension improves quickly when students focus on finding answers to comprehension-level questions instead of just reading aloud. The teacher invites the students to analyze the answer by giving them other resources from internet, having more pictures, example, video, diagram, map, etc. They enjoy the discussion of their answers because there is usually more than one correct answer or more than one opinion about the correct answer. Their answer will support by many examples or illustration found from internet.

What kinds of questions should the teacher ask in the Directed Reading Thinking Activity to guide the readers' thinking? Research has shown that questions are most helpful when they follow the contours of the format and genre of the text. That is, the questions should help readers follow the presentation of information that is particular to the kind of text the students are reading. The Directed Reading Activity presented in this core lesson used a work of fiction.

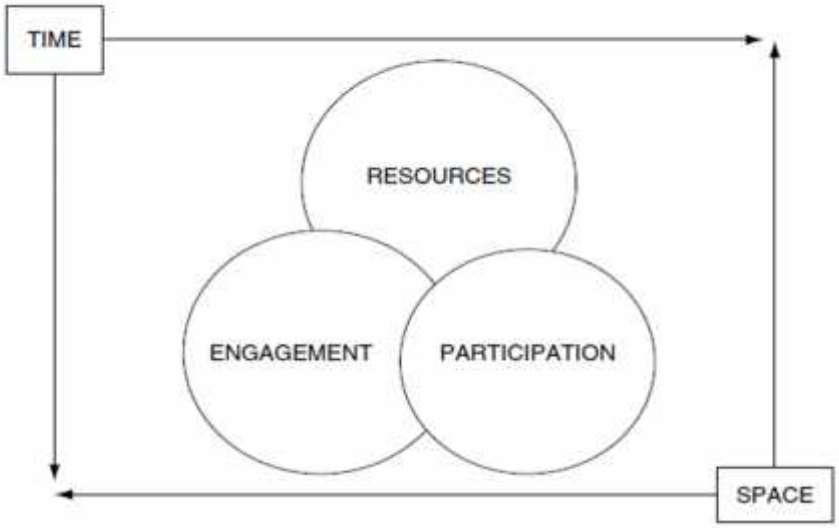
2.2.3 The Concept of Students' Participation

In teaching learning process, classroom management skills are learned *in context*. They are the bedrock of pedagogy and learned through actual experience in the classroom as a learner and a teacher. It is well established that student teachers begin their induction into the teaching profession after a lengthy exposure to and contribution to classroom life as learners.

The opportunity view of classroom life has five main elements (Gieve and Miller, 2006: 64), which are in constant interrelationship during classroom activity can be explained as follows:

a. *Time and space*– the temporal and spatial dimension
b. *Engagement* – the emotional or affective dimension
c. *Participation* – the social dimension
d. *Resources* – what teachers and learners bring to classroom life, materially and cognitively.

Figure 2.1 Element of classroom life



a. **Time and space**: the constants of classroom life.

Classroom learning is deliberately and emphatically time- and space-bound. Teachers and learners gather in particular spaces for specified periods of time for particular purposes. Classroom time itself is segmented by teachers as they plan lessons, and make decisions which create the rhythms for lessons, unless learners contest the time frame. Traditionally, the temporal dimension of formal education is extended with homework.

b. **Engagement**: the emotional dimension.

Classroom learning and teaching is an emotional activity. Firstly, the very act of attempting to learn something exposes us to the risk of potential ridicule, and is thus infused with emotions. Failure to learn can bring on frustration and anger. Success after effort can bring satisfaction and increased self-esteem. Secondly, the challenges and emotional risks of learning may lead us to withdraw from learning. The emergent view is a picture of *engagement*, and the ways in which teachers and learners are engaged at an emotional level in classroom life, and what the quality of this engagement is.

c. **Participation**: the social domain.

Classroom discourses are key indicators of modes and patterns of participation in classroom life, as they reveal underlying conversations about the purposes of classroom activity and the value of different types of knowledge. Classroom discourse consisted of classroom talk with reference to its contexts of occurrence and how teachers and learners create meaning through the construction of ‘common knowledge’.

d. **Resources**: what's in the classroom and what we bring with us.

Classroom life utilizes and creates a wide range of resources. From a teacher's point of view, the key resources may be their teaching materials such as: books, visuals, technological aids, realia and so on. These may or may not be important for learners. Other teachers regard their students as the most important resources in terms of what they bring with them in terms of life experience to contribute to classroom activity. What learners already know, what they have done, what they have not done, what they prefer and dislike are all resources in the same way as cognitive capacities – intelligence, 'problem-solving ability', 'learning styles' and a host of other constructs exhaustively listed in second language acquisition theory. Classroom life itself may be seen as a resource that is, the social relationships and emotional world of a classroom group as they engage in learning activities are a legitimate source of discussion, conjecture, dispute and learning.

Most fundamentally, how do the various elements of the classroom system interact and how are they connected? Understanding one of the elements, participation, for example – is, in the first instance, possible only with reference to the other elements. How talk is used to provide support to learners is an example of where engagement overlaps with participation. At the same time we need to understand how an awareness of time or a response to space influences participation or engagement or the use of resources. Further, we can explore ways in which the classroom is contested and how this influences the creation of learning opportunities.

Ultimately an understanding of how the complex classroom system generates learning opportunities, stores and creates resources, invites or discourages participation and engagement may enable us to see in greater depth what happens in classrooms, and why. But it should not be another means of looking at the 'effectiveness' of teaching or the efficiency of learning. Understandings will be of value as a point of departure for discussion or thinking about classrooms and their role in learning, not as a means for methodological (or 'technological') 'improvement'. How classrooms provide opportunities for learning is of more importance ultimately to educators and to above all learners than how classroom life can be controlled and directed, as Allwright argues (in Gieve and Miller, 2006: 64).

Authentic human acting always affirms the personal structure of self-determination. An act, in so far as it is brought to be by a person has a personality value before a moral value. The personality value of the action lies in the fact that the action is performed and in it the person realizes himself according to the structure which is proper to him. A person exists and acts in a specific manner, along with others. Wojtyla (in Mejos, 2007: 78) introduces the word participation to indicate the way in which, in common acting, the person protects the personality value of his own acting and participates together in the realization of common action and its outcomes. Participation points to the ability of the person to exist and act together with others without losing oneself as moving towards his self-fulfillment. Participation is to be understood in a twofold manner: it is a property of the person which is expressed in the ability to give a personality

dimension to his own existence and action while existing and acting together with others and it is also the ability to share in the humanity of others. Wojtyla (2010:175) says that: … *(participation) basically serves to express the property by virtue of which we as persons exist and act together with others, while not ceasing to be ourselves or to fulfill ourselves in action, in our own acts*. And …the ability to exist and act together with others in such a way that in this existing and acting we remain ourselves and actualize ourselves, which means our own.

Participation is a positive relation between persons because it allows the person to experience himself existing and acting together with others. Participation allows the realization of oneself as well as the realization of the community. The ability to participate points to the fact that a person can enter into an interpersonal relationship with other persons and at the same time fulfill himself in his actions. As the antithesis of alienation, participation allows the person to fully experience himself as well as to experience the humanity of other persons. Participation points to the fact that human beings (also) tend toward self-fulfillment and fulfill themselves by existing and acting together with others. In this sense, the common good and the individual good meet in the person and he seeks them not alone but together with other persons.

Participation is not simply the fact of being physically present to one another in a group activity. It is possible that people exist as a group yet pursue their goals individually or in isolation. Participation points to the positive recognition of the common good by the person. It is not something which simply

happens but is a result of a person's conscious striving for fulfillment and the realization that he cannot do it alone but must seek it together with others. In participation, a person does not wish for his good alone but also wishes the good of those that are around him. It allows him to open up himself to others and also allows others to share their humanity with him. In a sense, participation allows the person to become more human.

Participation in learning teaching events is a *social process* which in itself positions participants and affects their learning opportunities (Gieve and Miller, 2006: 65). Learners and teachers are positioned in relation to their ethnicity, gender occupational or social status, age, sexuality, physical and intellectual capacities. Participants continually and mutually influence each others' construction of identities as there are many complex ways to play and interpret teacher, student or other roles, as well as to establish relationships with others.

A particular significance to the opportunity view of classroom management is the ways in which different types of participation enhance or inhibit learning opportunity. Participation is not only accessible through talk or silence, and the ways in which participants manage these. It also connects to physical, temporal and emotional elements of classroom life (Gieve and Miller, 2006: 64). Learners may participate because they are positioned near a teacher, or because the teacher has given them a particular time in which to lead class activities. Lack of participation may be an emotional sign of boredom or disaffection. Denial of participation may lead to negative emotional responses. Maximum participation for the maximum number of learners does not mean the

creation of a multitude of learning opportunities if the cognitive challenge of the activity is too great for the learners or the levels of engagement are inhibited by a cold climate. Understanding the ways in which participation contributes to managing classroom life is central to understanding how learning opportunity is created.

The key concepts of participation are – what does the child want to do, how do most children behave, and what activities have high social, developmental or educational priority?' (European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education, 2011: 28). In other words, three components need to be understood when conceptualizing participation: the relevance or importance of activities to the individual, the comparability of activities to activities expected of, or carried out by children in general, and the general relevance or importance of activities in the context of social, developmental or educational goals.

Turner and Patrick (2004: 1760) explained several number of ways that students can participate overtly, including offering their ideas and thoughts spontaneously, volunteering to answer questions, answering questions when called on, demonstrating at the chalkboard, talking to peers or the teacher about tasks, and completing written work. Students may also participate without these behavioral indicators of involvement watching, listening, and thinking. In the current study we focus on participation that is explicit and observable.

Similarly, Sardiman (2011: 101) stated that students' participation can be seen from their physics activity, whether they do something by moving their part of body, making something, playing, working, or just sitting and listening or just

watching passively. In other words, participation can be defined as being engaged in typical activities that have high priority in teaching learning process, or usually known as learning activities.

Activities here are physically and mentally activities, both of them must be connected. Meanwhile learning is a process of interaction between human beings with their environment that may be tangible personal, facts, concepts, or theories. So, learning activity is any activity carried out in the process of interaction (teacher and students) in order to achieve learning objectives. Activity here is emphasized on the students, because the presence of student activity in the learning process will impact the creation of active learning situation. An expert Paul B. Diedrich (in Sardiman, 2011: 101) classified the learning activity into 8 groups as follows:

a. Visual activities, include activities such as reading, watching (pictures, demonstrations, experiments, and the others work)
b. Oral activities, such as: state, formulate, ask questions, give advice, an opinion, conduct interviews, discussions, and interruptions.
c. Listening activities, such as: listening to description, conversational discussion, music and speech.
d. Writing activities, such as: writing stories, writing essays, writing reports, questionnaires, copy, create a summary.
e. Drawing activities, such as drawing, creating graphs, maps, and diagrams.
f. Motor activities, such as: conducting experiments, making the construction, model, repair, play, and breed.

g. Mental activities, such as responding to, remembering, problem solving, analyzing, seeing relationships, and making decisions.

h. Emotional activities, such as: boredom, excitement, faring, quiet, and nervous.

Ideally, the goal of increasing participation is not to have every student participate in the same way of at the same rate. Instead, it is to create an environment in which all participants have the opportunity to learn and in which the class explore issues and ideas in depth, from variety of viewpoints. Some students will raise their voices more than others; this variation is a result of differences in learning preferences as well as differences in personalities. For example, some students who do not speak often in class are reflective learners, who typically develop ideas and questions in their minds before speaking; other shy students who feel uncomfortable speaking in front of groups. Many students who frequently volunteer to contribute are active learners. Who typically think while they speak. The instructor's goal is to create conditions that enable students of various learning preferences and personalities to contribute. To reach this goal, the teacher will need to take extra steps to encourage quiet students to speak up, and occasionally, ask the more verbose students to hold back from commenting in order to give other a chance.

Participation in learning activities is a valuable work habit for several reasons. It provides students with opportunities to learn and practice new knowledge and strategies, to explain their reasoning, and to examine their thinking processes and recognize the need to revise thinking. Despite these benefits, participation varies among students, and for some opportunities to learn

do not arise. Besides, it is important to consider several factors regarding whether students participate include students' motivation to learn and the kinds of environments and supports for participation offered through classroom instruction (Turner and Patrick, 2004: 1761)

Classroom discourse and classroom interaction as factors contributing to the complexity of learning have been of interest to researchers in education, linguistics, literacy studies and other disciplines. The importance of classroom interaction comes from its characteristic of having a multitude of forces interact in complex ways to trigger *learning outcomes*. Participation in classroom processes is important for 'talking knowledge and understanding into being', for engagement, motivation and confidence-building, whatever the subject-matter (Gieve and Miller, 2006: 146).

The context also includes the *social relations* among participants, as theorized by researchers in the Santa Barbara Classroom Discourse Group (for ex, Green and Dixon, 1993; Prentiss, 1998) (in Gieve and Miller, 2006: 146). Their studies conceptualize each classroom as a *local event*, inter textually shaped by past events within the participants' experience. In their theoretical approach, prior discursive and social practices create common knowledge which guides learners as to how to participate in class. Learners experience institutional and classroom positioning, and negotiate social roles, relationships among members and situated understandings of text, context, meaning and content.

In literacy education, meaningful interaction with texts and with literacy activities can provide learners with opportunities to learn literacy by engagement

in them: to learn by doing, as well as by talking about them. It is important to emphasize that learning opportunities created by participation in literacy events are neither quantifiable nor universal, as they may differ from one learner to another. Teaching can be no more than the scattering of seeds, only some of which will turn into fruits. The emphasis on Individual Learning Plans and one-to-one teaching in adult literacy education suggests a commitment to differential take-up of learning opportunities (Gieve and Miller, 2006: 146).

When professional learning and student learning are seen as social practices, the complexity of the classroom is recast. The focus moves away from what individuals do as teacher or students towards how participation in classroom as a system of activity works to realize certain ends or purposes, both explicit and tacit (Lantolf, 2000; Wells, 1999) (in Gieve and Miller, 2006: 146). In this view, the teacher and the students *together* participate in the activity system of the particular classroom.

2.2.4 The Concept of Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension is complex process. It involves many interactions between readers and what they bring to the text (previous knowledge, strategy use). Irwin (1991; In Harris and Graham, 2008: 281) describes five basic comprehension processes (cognitive processes) that work together simultaneously and complement one another: microprocesses, integrative processes, macroprocesses, elaborative processes, and metacognitive processes.

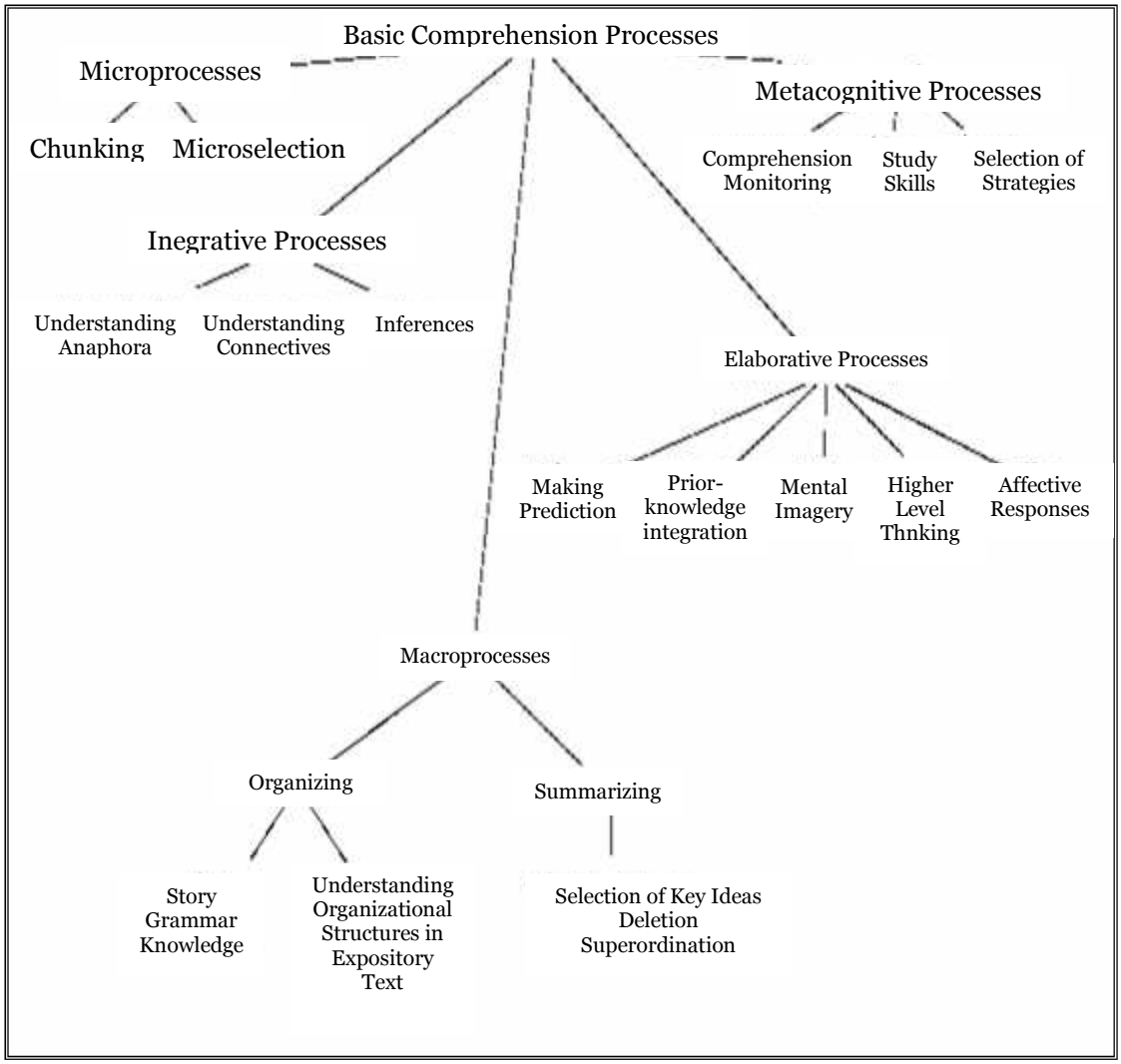


Figure 2.2 Klingner's five basic comprehension process

a. Microprocesses

Microprocessing refers to the reader's initial chunking of idea units within individual sentences. "Chunking" involves grouping words into phrases or clusters of words that carry meaning, and requires an understanding of syntax as well as vocabulary. For example, consider the following sentence:

Michelle put the yellow roses in a vase.

The reader does not picture *yellow* and *roses* separately, but instead immediately visualizes roses that are the color yellow. The good reader processes *yellow roses* together.

b. Integrative Processes

As the reader progresses through individual sentences, he or she is processing more than the individual meaning units within sentences. He or she is also actively making connections across sentences. This process of understanding and inferring the relationships among clauses is referred to as integrative processing. Sub skills involved in integrative processing include being able to identify and understand pronoun referents and being able to infer causation or sequence. The following two sentences demonstrate how these sub skills are applied:

Michael quickly locked the door and shut the windows.

He was afraid.

Good readers seem to automatically know that *he* in the second sentence refers to *Michael* in the first sentence. And good readers infer that Michael locked the door and shut the windows *because* he was afraid.

c. Macro processes

Ideas are better understood and more easily remembered when the reader is able to organize them in a coherent way. The reader does this by summarizing the key ideas read. He or she may either automatically or deliberately (i.e., subconsciously or consciously) select the most important information to remember and delete relatively less important details. The skillful reader also uses

a structure or organizational pattern to help him or her organize these important ideas.

d. Elaborative Processes

When we read, we tap into our prior knowledge and make inferences beyond points described explicitly in the text. We make inferences that may or may not correspond with those intended by the author. For instance, in the two sentences provided above about *Michael*, we do not know why he was afraid. But we can predict that perhaps *he was worried that someone had followed him home*, or maybe a storm was brewing and he was concerned about strong winds. When making these inferences, we may draw upon information provided earlier in the text or upon our own previous experiences.

e. Metacognitive Processes

Much has been made of the importance of metacognition, that is, thinking about thinking. Metacognition is the reader's conscious awareness or control of cognitive processes. The metacognitive processes the reader uses are those involved in monitoring understanding, selecting what to remember, and regulating the strategies used when reading. The metacognitive strategies the reader uses include rehearsing (i.e., repeating information to enhance recall), reviewing, underlining important words, note taking, and checking understanding.

Torgesen (2000; in Westwood, 2001: 23) states that a reader's understanding of text is influenced by a board range of factors, includinghis or her motivation, interest, vocabulary, general knowledge, knowledge of the particular subject, word identification skill, reasoning ability, use of the effect stategy, to

find main idea and supporting detail, and an appreciation of text structure. Furthermore, Linse (2005:77) states that for second-language learners there are three different elements which impact reading: the child's background knowledge, the child's linguistic knowledge of the target language, and the strategies or techniques the child uses to tackle the text.

Strategies to build comprehension are available to increase neural efficiency at each step of the comprehension process. Skilled readers comprehend more successfully than less skilled readers because skilled readers use strategies such as activating background knowledge to comprehend text and to draw valid inferences about what they have read (Dickson, Simmons, & Kame'nui, 1998). They also differ from unskilled readers in their ability to decode fluently and accurately (Perfetti & Bolger, 2004; Vellutino, Fletcher, Snowling, & Scanlon, 2004) in (Willis, 2008:127).

Whereas, Westwood (2008:33) explained that comprehension problems can be caused by a variety of different factors, including those intrinsic to the individual and others related to insufficient instruction or to inappropriate materials. The eight most frequently mentioned causal factors are summarized below:

a. Limited vocabulary knowledge

If a student has difficulty in understanding what he or she is reading, there will be a serious mismatch between the student's own knowledge of word meanings (expressive and listening vocabulary) and the words used in the text.

b. Lack of fluency

There are high correlations between oral reading fluency and comprehension, students who read very slowly– or much too fast – often comprehend poorly.

c. Lack of familiarity with the subject matter

It is much easier to read with understanding if the reader already possesses some prior knowledge of the topic.

d. Difficulty level of the text (readability)

The difficulty level of text is a major factor influencing whether or not material can be read with understanding. Text that is complex in terms of concepts, vocabulary, sentence length and structure is difficult for readers to process.

e. Inadequate use of effective reading strategies

The readers should know and use reading strategies that would help them visualize, make connections, reflect, infer, predict, question and summarize.

f. Weak verbal reasoning

The ability to understand text, and particularly to go beyond the words on the page in order to make relevant connections among facts and to critique the ideas, reflects the operation of verbal reasoning. Deliberately guiding students to make connections between new information in text and their existing bank of knowledge is beneficial.

g. Problems with processing information

In order to maintain the meaning of text as the sentences and paragraphs accumulate, a reader has to be able to keep relevant information within

working memory and make necessary connections between ideas. Limited

working memory is sometimes suggested as a causal factor in poor comprehension.

h. Problems in recalling information after reading

Recall is the strongest when readers connect new information in the text to their previous knowledge and experience, and when they rehearse key points from the text.

Thus we can conclude that reading comprehension can be used to enhance reading comprehension outcomes for students with learning difficulties and disabilities. We know that reading comprehension is a complex process of constructing meaning by coordinating a number of skills related to decoding, word reading, and fluency the integration of background knowledge, vocabulary, and previous experiences. Most notably, Comprehension is an active process to which the reader brings his or her individual attitudes, interests, and expectations.

How does your reading proceed? Montgomery (2007:7) explains that clearly you try to comprehend, in the sense of identifying meanings for individual words and working out relationships between them, drawing on your implicit knowledge of English grammar**.** If you are unfamiliar with words or idioms, you guess at their meaning, using clues presented in the context.

What is that makes reading a text difficult? Harmer (2001:203) explains the texts with longer sentences and longer words will be more difficult to understand than those with shorter ones. Others, however, claim that the critical issue is quite simply the number of unfamiliar words which the text contains. If readers do not know half the words in a text, they will great difficulty in

understanding the text as whole. From the explanation above, the researcher conclude that both sentence length and the percentage of unknown words play their part in a text's comprehensibility.

Furthermore, Pressley (2006; in westwood, 2008:14) states that literacy instruction must therefore include explicit teaching and practice to enable students to read fluently, confidently, and with understanding. It means that phonics, fluency, and vocabulary development, taught to the students should lead to the ultimate goal of comprehension.

Linse (2005: 71) states that the aim of reading is comprehension. Reading comprehension can be defined as an active thinking process through which a reader intentionally constructs meaning to form a deeper understanding of concepts and information presented in a text. It means that some individuals equate decoding with reading. Just because a learner knows how to pronounce written words correctly, does not mean that he can read.

What exactly happens between text, brain, and eye when we engage in this delightful, magical practice called reading? Johnson (2008: 3) explained that reading is the practice of using text to create meaning. The two key words are creating and meaning. If there is no meaning being created, there is no reading.

Meanwhile Westwood (2008:31) defined reading comprehension as an active thinking process through which a reader intentionally constructs meaning to form a deeper understanding of concepts and information presented in a text. He also said that efficient interpretation of text involves a combination of word recognition skills, linking of new information to prior knowledge, and application

of appropriate strategies such as locating the main idea, making connections, questioning, inferring and predicting.

According to Torgesen (2000; in Westwood, 2008:33), reading comprehension is both a cognitive and an affective activity. Good readers are ‘active’ in the sense of becoming involved cognitively and emotionally in what they are reading. They are often keen to use text as a way of obtaining new information, acquiring new ideas, solving problems, and as a source of enjoyment.

Furthermore, Westwood makes sure that to comprehend, readers must use information they already possess to filter, interpret, organize and reflect upon the incoming information from the page (Westwood, 2008: 157). Efficient interpretation of text involves a combination of word recognition skills, linking of new information to prior knowledge, and application of appropriate strategies such as locating the main idea, making connections, questioning, inferring and predicting. From the explanation above, the researcher conclude that both sentence length and the percentage of unknown words play their part in a text’s comprehensibility.

In an attempt to improve comprehension instruction, several theories have been proposed that suggest ways to influence understanding of the teaching of reading comprehension: schema theory, reader-response theory, and direct instruction (Harris and Graham, 2007:2). Shortly can be explained as following:

a. Schema theory suggests that what we know about a topic or construct influences how much we can or will learn by reading a passage that addresses that topic. Knowledge and experiences related to key ideas in the text we read

influence what we learn and remember about what we read. World knowledge and word meaning influence our understanding. The more we read and learn about the topic, the easier the next passage on that topic will be for us to understand.

b. A reader-response constructivist perspective (Beach, 1993), understanding what is read is related to the individual's experiences and interpretations of these experiences. This subjective component makes for a dynamic interaction between the reader and the text. Thus, what readers learn or how they respond to text is individualistic. Teachers and peers can facilitate and interact with other readers to enhance and extend learning.

c. Direct instruction approaches provide for more explicit and systematic instruction related to the key ideas associated with improved reading comprehension. For example, because word meaning relates to understanding text, a direct instruction approach would ask teachers to identify key words in a passage and teach their meaning prior to reading.

Reading is not merely a receptive process of picking up information from the page in a word-by-word manner. Rather, it is a selective process and characterized as an active process of comprehending. Therefore, non-English-speaking readers find it important to employ reading strategies to read English texts more effectively. Effective reading is rapid, purposeful, comprehending, flexible and gradually developing. So, reading is a very complex process, and this is what drives many researchers to attempt to understand and explain its process. Here are some principal strategies for reading comprehension (Brown, 2003:188):

a. Identify your purpose in reading a text.
b. Apply spelling rules and conventions for bottom-up decoding.
c. Use lexical analysis (prefixes, roots, suffixes, etc) to determine meaning.
d. Guess at meaning (of words, idioms. Etc) when you aren't certain.
e. Skim the text for the gist and for main ideas.
f. Scan the text for specific information (names, dates, keywords).
g. Use silent reading techniques for rapid processing.
h. Use marginal notes, outlines, charts, or semantic maps for understanding and retaining information.
i. Distinguish between literal and implied meanings.
j. Capitalize on discourse markers to process relationships.

The choice of strategies on reading depends on the purposes that readers have in mind. The readers might have the purpose of reading for pleasure and or they might choose the strategy of skimming to ensure that the written passage is in line of the recollection of what have happened. Scanning is also used as a strategy for looking a specific piece of information.

More simply, Hughes (1992: 116-117) makes the assessment of reading comprehension based on the macro-skills and micro-skills in reading comprehension as follow:

a. Macro-skills
   - Scanning text to locate specific information.
   - Skimming text to obtain the gist.
   - Identifying stages of an argument.

- Identifying examples presented in support of an argument.

b. Micro-skills

- Identifying reference of pronoun, etc.
- Using context to guess meaning and unfamiliar words.
- Understanding relating between part of text by recognizing indicator in discourse, especially for the introduction, development, transition, and conclusion of ideas.

The researcher believes that although fundamental skills such as phonics and fluency are important building blocks of reading. Reading comprehension is the essence of reading and that it has to be taught and cannot be left to chance. Knowing how to read words has ultimately little value if the student is unable to construct meaning from text. Ultimately, reading comprehension is the process of constructing meaning by coordinating a number of complex processes that include word reading, word and world knowledge, and fluency.

To assess the students' reading comprehension the researcher adapts the indicators of the theory and develops it based on the school curriculum. The Curriculum 2006 assesses the students' reading comprehension which depends on the basic competence which consists of responding the meaning and language rethoric in simple short essay accurately, fluently, and acceptably related to the nearby living hood in the form of recount/narrative with the indicators as follow:

a. The students can identify the detailed information of the text

b. The students can identify specific information of the text

c. The students can identify the unstated information of the text

d. The students can identify language feature

e. The students can identify language rethoric

f. The students can identify moral value of the text

2.2.5 The Concept of Narrative Text

As adults living and reading in the real world we read a lot of different types of text. The two main types of text are expository text (informational text like this textbook) and narrative text or stories. However, each of these has a different purpose and should be approached differently (Johnson, 2008: 109). Students develop sensitivity to narrative structure early. By the time they begin school, most of them have developed some sense of story structure and can use this knowledge to comprehend simple stories.

Narrative text is a type of text which is intended to amuse, entertain and to deal with problematic events which lead to a crisis or turning point of some kind, which in turn finds a resolution (Doddy, 2008: 36). In other word narrative text a kind of story that has problems and solutions to gain and hold a readers' interest. We read narrative text (stories) for the same reason we watch movies: to be entertained and to enjoy the story. Could you imagine seeing a really great movie, only to have somebody demand that you write a movie report to prove that you'd actually seen it? How would you react if you were required to fill out a comprehension worksheet to demonstrate your ability to comprehend the movie? How might you feel if somebody demanded that you recount movie details and identify the plot, climax, and resolution?

There are many types of narrative. They can be imaginary, factual or a combination of both. They may include fairy stories, mysteries, science fiction, romances, horror stories, adventure stories, fables, myths and legends, historical narratives, ballads, slice of life, personal experience (Susilohadi, 2008: 143). For example, fables are short stories with a typical story grammar but with the addition of a moral. Readers remember stories better when they are organized in familiar ways.

Narrative text typically follows a single, general, structural pattern, often called a story grammar. This term refers to the different elements the reader can expect to find in a story, such as the characters, setting, plot (including a problem that needs to be solved), and a resolution to the problem (Klingner, 2007: 76). Narratives sequence people/characters in time and place but differ from recounts in at through the sequencing, the stories set up one or more problems, which must eventually find a way to be resolved. Briefly, Susilohadi (2008: 143) stated the generic structure of narrative text which consisted of orientation, complication, and resolution as follows:

a. In the orientation, you tell the listeners or readers the characters, the place, the time (if possible) and other things to make your readers understand the story.
b. In the complication, you tell the listeners or readers the problem that happened in the story. Usually you should tell the steps starting from how the problem arises up to the climax.
c. Finally, in the resolution, you tell the listeners or readers the anti-climax or the answer to the problem.

Here is an example of narrative text:

Once upon a time there was a girl called Cinderella. She lived with her stepmother and stepsisters. They were very bossy. She had to do all the housework.

One day there was a party at the palace. All were invited. Her stepsisters would not let her go with them. Cinderella was sad.

The Fairy Godmother came and helped her to go to the ball. Cinderella danced with the prince. After a while, the clock stroke twelve. She left him one of her glass shoes and went home.

The Prince took her glass shoe. He traveled around the country to find a girl that matched the glass shoe.

Finally the Prince found Cinderella and they got married and lived happily ever after.

element of setting, characterization, plot and theme. The verbs in narrative text are mostly written in the second form (V_2) because past tense is one of the grammatical features in writing a narrative text. We use the adverb clauses to show the events in the past, which occurred before, after or at the same time as other events. The adverb clauses are called the adverb clauses of time.

By using narrative text in the classroom, teachers can design lessons for students to apply higher-level thinking skills. Students can read age-appropriate literature and learn to infer meaning that is not explicitly stated and predict outcomes based on information. They become skilled at analyzing literature in terms of the elements of narrative text such as:

a. Understanding setting.

The setting of narrative text enhances the other aspects of the story. Setting tells where and when the story takes place. For example, in the story of Cinderella, the protagonist or main character lives long ago in a land far away. Cinderella starts out scrubbing floors in her stepmother's house, and in the end, rides off to the magnificent castle with Prince Charming. The contrast between where she started out and where she ended up is so strong we often refer to successful people as having lived a "Cinderella story." Students can compare and contrast the setting of different stories.

b. Analyzing characters

Students learn to analyze characters by studying narrative text. In stories, there are many details that give clues to the personality, socioeconomics standing and emotional state of the character. Teachers instruct students to look at words and images describing the character's clothing and facial expressions. Students examine what the character says and how he reacts to others do draw conclusions. The character's actions while solving problems in the story are powerful clues about his personality.

c. Narrative plot

By studying the plot of a narrative text, students can learn how to predict outcomes that make sense according to what has already happened. They learn how an author uses exposition to set the stage for plot developments and builds excitement with rising action until the climax or high point forces a plot resolution. As the plot unfurls, the readers learn about the characters and their qualities. In the case of Cinderella, her sweet and uncomplaining nature is rewarded at the end of the story, while the wicked stepmother gets what she deserves.

d. Identifying the theme

After learning about the setting, characters and plot, the students generally are led in a discussion about the underlying message of the story, or theme. There are themes that recur in literature, like loss of innocence, which is often called a coming-of-age story. Another popular theme is the capriciousness of fate. Cinderella has this type of theme. It is a reversal-of-fortune story with a happy ending. To extend the lessons of narrative text, teachers can ask their students how the Cinderella story might give people hope and inspiration in their lives.

Shortly, the researcher concludes that narrative is a text of which the purpose is to entertain, to gain and hold a readers' interest. However narratives can also be written to teach or inform, to change attitudes/social opinions e.g. soap operas and television dramas that are used to raise topical issues.

2.3 Important Finding within the Stipulated Research Area

This part is focused on the reporting of related studies carried out on directed reading thinking activity, students' participation and reading comprehension.

Many and Flyfe (1996: 104-119) examined the effect of using directed reading thinking and writing activities to promote reading achievement and higher order thinking skills. The researchers applied an achievement reading test and a writing test on 51 students. The result indicated significant gains in both reading achievement and writing skills. The study concluded that students' achievement could be improved if the appropriate reading strategies were used.

Pan and Pan (2009) investigate the extent to which the presence of pictures in text benefits low proficiency Taiwanese English foreign language (EFL) college students. The sample for this study was drawn from four classes of first-year college students instructed by the researcher in southern Taiwan. These students were required to take a reading proficiency test when they enrolled. The test was identical in format to the reading section of the elementary level of the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT). The 35 test questions evaluated the vocabulary, grammar, and reading abilities of the students. The passing score for the reading section was 80 out of 120. the researcher only recruited students who scored lower than 80. Of those students, only 95 (49 male and 46 female) were eligible for participation. In terms of their personal information, those students had been studying English for an average of 8 years, and their mean age was 18 at the time of the study. Two reading texts, three pictures, a translation task, and a questionnaire were employed to collect data for this study. The translation task

would evaluate the effects of pictures on students' understanding of the texts and the questionnaire was used to assess student viewpoints on the effects of pictures on their reading of the passages. In analyzing data, t-tests were conducted to determine the existence of any significant differences in the translation task amongst the four groups. The findings show that the low-proficiency participants had significantly higher scores on their translation tasks when the text was presented together with the pictures, and that the accompanying pictures facilitated those low-level participants in comprehending not only the simpler but also the more difficult text. Student responses to the effects of visuals on their reading comprehension also revealed that the pictures enhanced their understanding of the text itself. Implications are suggested for EFL college teachers, textbook designers, and materials developers.

Almanza (1997) held a study which examined a comparison of the effectiveness of cooperative learning in small groups with whole classroom instruction using the Directed Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA) during reading. Subjects for the 8-week study were 53 sixth-graders from 2 classes in Brooklyn, New York. The stories used all came from the same basal reader. A reading comprehension test was given each child after each story was completed. Children in cooperative learning groups read stories on their own and wrote any questions or comments in their reading log. The next day, each group met to discuss the story. Students worked in groups for approximately 4 weeks. For the next 4weeks, the students continued to read, using the DRTA strategy, and when the story was completed the children read and answered questions about the story

independently. A reading comprehension test was again given after the completion of each story. Results indicated that the majority of children in the cooperative reading groups scored higher on their reading comprehension tests than when they used the DRTA. Findings suggest that cooperative learning can be used as an instructional strategy whereby students can improve their reading comprehension.

Renn (1999) investigated the relationship of reading comprehension scores in a second-grade classroom where reading instruction was provided using the traditional directed reading approach (DRA), to the reading comprehension scores in a second-grade classroom where reading instruction was provided using the directed reading thinking activity approach.

Riley (2006: 259-262) investigated the effect of directed reading thinking activity on low reading achievement first grade students. The study results indicated the possibility of correcting most of the errors made by students while reading when they use directed reading thinking activity. The study emphasized the importance of using directed reading thinking activity to increase achievement and promote thinking among low achievers.

Dougherty Stahl (2008: 359-393) explored the effects of three instructional strategies, This study explores the effects of 3 instructional methods: Picture Walks (Clay, 1991; Fountas & Pinnell, 1996), KWL (Ogle, 1986), and the Directed Reading–Thinking Activity (Stauffer, 1969) on the reading comprehension and science content acquisition of novice readers. She examined 4 treatments: 3 intervention groups (PW, KWL, DRTA) and a control group.

Results indicated that the picture walk and DRTA yielded statistically significant effects on reading growth as measured by a timed maze task. Analysis of Cued Recall indicated that the DRTA yielded statistically significant effects in reading comprehension and science content acquisition. KWL did not yield significant effects on measures of comprehension or content acquisition. Components of directed reading thinking activity, generating and justifying predictions, verifying predictions after reading, engaging students in a social context around a text, seemed to provide the necessary scaffolding for facilitating the reading comprehension and science content acquisition among novice readers.

Al Odwan (2012; 138-151) studied the effect of the directed reading thinking activity through using cooperative learning on English secondary stage students' reading comprehension in Jordan. The subjects of the study were chosen purposefully from public schools in Amman Second Directorate of Education. It consisted of 42 students who were enrolled in two sections in one school. The experimental group encompassed 22 students and the control group encompassed 20 students. The teaching program was based on a strategy which included the direct reading thinking activity through using cooperative learning designed to teach four units to the experimental group. The units were taken from the English course textbook "Jordan Opportunities" prescribed for the Eleventh Grade in Jordanian public schools during the second semester of the scholastic year 2007/2008. The same units were taught to the control group through the traditional strategy. Means, standard deviations and analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) were used to reveal the findings of the study which were as follows:

The results reveal that the reading comprehension scores across the experimental and the control groups were significantly different from each other, $F(1, 41) = 5.179$, $p = 0.028$. This research supported the use of directed reading thinking activity through cooperative learning, as a successful instructional strategy that could improve students' reading comprehension.

Turner and Patrick (2004) investigated motivational Influences on Student Participation in Classroom Learning Activities. They examined how one type of student work habit classroom participation is related to a combination of both student factors (math achievement, personal achievement goals, perceptions of classroom goal structures, and teacher support) and features of the classroom context (teachers' instructional practices, average perceptions of classroom goal structures). Their research focused on studying teachers and students in classrooms to better understand the complex interactions that support student learning and learning-related beliefs and behaviors. They focused on the participation of two students in mathematics class during both sixth and seventh grades. Differential teacher expectations, calling patterns, and instructional and motivational support and nonsupport interacted with beliefs and behaviors of both students, and those interactions were associated with different patterns of participation each year. Results suggest that student participation is malleable rather than stable and emphasize the potential of teacher practices to both support and undermine the development of student work habits.

Xie (2011) investigated the relationship between students' motivation and their participation in asynchronous online discussions during a 16-week online

course. Fifty-six students participated in online discussion activities as a normal part of their classes. Their motivation for participating in online discussions was self-reported three times throughout the semester. The findings continue to indicate that students' motivation has a significant relationship with their participation in online discussion activities at time two and time three. Students' perceived value, autonomy, competence, and relatedness have different levels of impact on their online discussion behavior. This study also found that students' intrinsic motivation and their perceived value of online discussions remained at a moderate-high level over time, although the perceived value had a significant drop from the midpoint to the end of the semester.

Rocca (2010) investigated student participation in the college classroom. The goal of this study was to integrate previous research conducted on student participation in the college classroom. Numerous studies have been completed on engaging students in classroom discussions, but no study has synthesized this information in the form of an extensive literature review. Here, previous research is pulled together to gain a comprehensive overview of the benefits of participation, logistical issues in participation, student confidence and personality traits in participation, the instructor's influence on and suggestions for increasing participation, the role of sex in participation, and participation in web-based courses. Specifically, academic journal articles that were published over the past 51 years (1958-2009) with student in-class participation as a major variable were included. Details of the selection process, a thorough review of the literature, implications for the classroom, and directions for future research are provided.

This review has attempted to answer its two driving questions, and professors should now be able to view participation through a multidisciplinary lens with clearer a idea of the reasons students do and do not participate and how participation can be increased. This review presented research from the past fifty years, across disciplines, and with multiple methodologies, thus creating a thorough picture of student participation and synthesizing the research on participation. College students are clearly influenced by instructor communication patterns, providing further evidence of the importance of the instructor's role in facilitating student participation. As overall student engagement has become increasingly important in the college classroom, the implications of this review and the suggestions made can help professors to increase engagement by working to increase student participation.

Crombie (2010) investigated students' perception of their classroom participation and instructor as a function of gender and context. The purpose of the present study was to explore the influence of individual and contextual factors on students' assessments of their own participation in the university classroom and of their professor's classroom behaviors. Classroom participation is considered by both female and male students to be one of the factors related to effective learning and to result in more positive views of the learning experience (Sadker & Sadker, 1994). Perceptions of the overall amount, the form of student participation, and students' general activity level were examined in the present study. Differences in the form of student participation are important, because certain types of participation are expected to be more responsible for students'

impressions of the university classroom (e.g., more intrusive styles such as interrupting), to contribute more to effective learning and positive experiences (e.g., length of exchange), and to be more likely to demonstrate gender differences. Cornelius, Gray, and Constantinople (1990) and others (e.g., Fassinger, 1995a, 1995b) have emphasized that student participation is determined The results also underscore the relevance of contextual factors, particularly with respect to perceptions of instructors. Class size, the proportion of women in the class, and to a lesser extent the discipline area all contribute to perceptions about specific professor behaviors. The other major finding is the importance of students' self-perceptions of their general level of activity in the university classroom, in particular, the positive relation between students' perceived activity level and their ratings of professor behaviors. Students who regarded themselves as active in class also had more positive overall impressions of their professors. These findings have implications in terms of students' evaluation of instructors. In conclusion, the importance of examining multiple contextual factors in our attempt to understand more accurately the university classroom experience is stressed.

Harris and Sandor (2008) investigated student views on participation and interaction in student centered online discussion forums. According them, it is important for higher education to evolve and incorporate new teaching and learning technologies as they emerge. While such technologies can offer new educational possibilities, it is vital to ensure their usage is grounded in pedagogical thinking and enriches the learning experience of students. Computer-

mediated communication (CMC), and more specifically online discussion forums, is being increasingly utilized. However, how to best incorporate such applications remains modest amongst most academics. This paper presents a framework of the online discussion forum as a student centered peer earning environment. In particular, the paper presents research findings relating to student views on participation and interaction in these online discussion forums. Data was gathered through semi-structured interviews with students. The findings support the discussed framework in that it allows students to take an active role in their learning and enriches their learning experience. In summary, the framework provides a viable mean of implementing peer learning in an online learning environment.

Lee (2005) investigated students' personality type and attitudes toward classroom participation. Two general research questions were posited: whether ESL students' participation in class was consistent with patterns normally thought to promote greater involvement in class discussions, and to what extent students participated in activities that promote language development. Twenty students participated in the study: ten Chinese; five Indonesians; and one each from Iran, Cambodia, Japan, Guatemala, and Armenia. All were enrolled in a reading and writing class where their participation was observed. They completed a three-part questionnaire. The first section included demographical questions. In the second part, participants responded to 14 statements indicating whether their learning style was independent-oriented or group-oriented. The third section consisted of 10 questions designed to determine participants' personality type. Those who

scored in the middle range were labeled as undetermined (i.e., neither extrovert nor introvert). Three whole-class discussions were videotaped in order to count actual participation. Student personality type was the main focus in the study. However, the findings were not clear-cut and need further investigation. A larger sample and different measurement to classify student personality types are recommended because the self-reported data might have skewed the results. Group discussions should be taken into consideration as well. Although the results regarding the role of gender in participation were not significant, gender does play an important role in second language acquisition. Classroom management and atmosphere under the teachers' control may have been an affecting factor that correlated with class participation as well. Given the small sample size of only 20 subjects, further segmentation of demographic variables was not feasible, but would certainly be warranted in a larger sample. As a result of the low correlations and few direct relationships between personality types and language learning variables, we should be more circumspect in drawing implications and cannot draw the conclusion that introverts participate more than extroverts, though the results from the study support the idea.

Kumar (2007) investigated students' classroom participation for improved learning in an English language skills course. The University of the South Pacific (USP) has implemented a skill-development program designed to improve the academic performance of students. This paper looks specifically at ways of improving interactive teaching and learning in the English Language Skills (ELS) class, EL001, a skills-based course requiring active involvement of students in

learning and practice. This interactivity is the dominant teaching method, and students are required to undergo a number of assessments, including written tests, assignments, discussions and participation. To compare and evaluate ways of improving interaction in the ELS classes, this research focuses on the students' behavior in paired discussions. Their responses to questions posed by the instructors during the class discussions are evaluated. Three specific methods are adopted to determine the outcomes: the 'one book referral strategy', the 'instructor monitor strategy' and the 'own book strategy'. The participants are 33 existing students from the Arts and Science Faculties at USP who are studying the EL001 English Language Skills course. Implementation of 'one book referral strategy' and the 'instructor monitor strategy' have proven to be most effective in an interactive learning environment. As a result of the higher level of interaction, the students performed better. This proves the initial expectation that instructor-monitor strategy and one-book strategy are better in both respects. That is, they facilitate collaboration and thus lead to better performance. This is consistent with Biggs's (2003) findings that student collaboration in the teaching and learning environment leads to better learning outcomes.

Comments

The previous review of related literature has clearly stressed the importance of using the directed reading thinking activity which may help teachers use effective means for teaching reading comprehension. Besides, the previous researches also investigated motivational influences on students' participation in classroom learning activities, and focused on the relationship between students' motivation and their participation. None of these efforts paid attention to the use of the directed reading thinking activity as one strategy to improve students' ability in reading comprehension narrative text and the students' participation in learning activities.

This research has been conducted on the effect of using directed reading thinking activity on students' participation and reading comprehension of narrative text. One area that has not yet been researched involves how well directed reading thinking affects students' reading comprehension of narrative text. Hence, it remains unknown whether students instructed through this particular strategy would be able to be better readers and acquire higher reading comprehension. The researcher expected that students would be most willing to participate in classrooms where teachers expressed enthusiasm about learning, communicated a belief that all students can learn, and provided academic and emotional support for students' understanding. Thus, this study hopes to address a new frontier.

2.4 Operational Concept and Indicator

Based on the title "The Effect of Using DRTA Strategy toward Students' Participation and Their Reading Comprehension of the Eighth Grade Students at SMPN 03 Bantan", the researcher determined three variables in this research as the following:

a. The use of DRTA strategy as independent variable (X)

b. The students' participation as dependent variable (Y_1)

c. The students' reading comprehension as dependent variable (Y_2)

Based on the statements above, the indicator of each variable in this research can be seen as follow:

Table 2.3 The Operational Concept

VARIABLE	INDICATORS
1. The use of DRTA strategy	The teacher and students do the steps of DRTA a. The teacher prepares the text by marking four or five good stopping points. b. The teacher prepares a chart on the white board or chart paper c. The teacher asks the students to read the title of the story, talks about the genre, names the author, then asks for their prediction about what will happen in the story. d. The teacher asks the students to read to the first stopping point, and when they have reached it, they should go back and consider the prediction they made before, and say what actually happened.

VARIABLE	INDICATORS
	e. The teacher records their ideas in the space called “What did happen?” f. The teacher reviews the predictions and asks which ones are coming true so far g. The teacher asks the students to predict what they think will happen in the next block of text, and offer new predictions h. The teacher asks the students to check their last predictions against what actually happened in the story, and dictate their findings about what happened
2. The students’ participation	The students are engaged in learning activities. a. The students read the text given by the teacher b. The students ask a question to the teacher when they don’t understand c. The students pay attention to the teacher’s explanation d. The students make a note during the reading activity e. The students answer the teacher’s question oraly. f. The students are excited in reading activity
3. The students’ Reading comprehension	The students are able to identify: a. The detailed information of the text b. The specific information of the text c. The unstated information of the text d. language feature e. Language rhetoric f. The moral value of the text

2.5 Assumption and Hypothesis

2.5.1 Assumption

The researcher found that the students' participation in the teaching and learning process were different to each other. They also had different ability in comprehending the English text. These were influenced by many factors like; motivation, intelligent, learning environment, teaching and and learning strategies and many others.

Although each student had his/her own tendency, the researcher assumes that DRTA could improve the students' participation and their reading comprehension ability. Since by using DRTA strategy, the students were stimulated to read critically and reflectively. It attempts to equip readers with the ability to determine the purposes of reading, the ability to extract, comprehend, and assimilate information, the ability to make predictions to examine reading materials based on the purposes of reading, the ability to pass judgments, and finally the ability to make decisions based upon information gleaned from reading. These foster students' independence when reading. It engages students in an active process where they must use their reasoning abilities and their own ideas. In such a way it will improve their participation and reading comprehension.

2.5.2 Hypothesis

The researcher makes hypothesis as a tentative answer to the research problem as in the following:

Ho_1: There is significant difference on the students' participation in teaching and learning reading comprehension between experimental group and control group before using DRTA strategy

Ho_2: There is significant difference on the students' participation in teaching and learning reading comprehension between experimental group and control group after using DRTA strategy

Ho_3: There is significant effect on the students' participation in teaching and learning reading comprehension of experimental group before and after using DRTA strategy

Ho4: There is significant difference on the students' participation gain score in teaching and learning reading comprehension between experimental group and control group before and after using DRTA strategy.

Ho_5: There is significant difference on the students' reading comprehension pre-test mean score between experimental group and control group.

Ho_6: There is significant difference on the students' reading comprehension post-test mean score between experimental group and control group.

Ho_7: There is significant effect on the students' reading comprehension pre-test and post-test mean score of the experimental group.

Ho8: : There is significant difference on the students' reading comprehension gain score between experimental group and control group before and after using DRTA strategy.