



A Content Analysis of Writing Tasks in "English for Nusantara Textbooks": A Process-Based and Performance-Oriented Evaluation

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Article Info	Abstract
Received: 2026-10-03 Revised: 2026-10-20 Accepted: 2026-10-20 Keywords: writing tasks, content analysis, English for Nusantara, writing performance, writing process, scaffolding DOI: 10.24256/ideas.v14i2.12754 Corresponding Author: Stela Abdullah stelaabdullah51@gmail.com English Language Education Study Programme, Faculty of Letters and Culture, Universitas Negeri Gorontalo, Indonesia	<i>This article asks how the writing tasks in the English for Nusantara textbooks for Grades 7, 8, and 9 (Merdeka Curriculum) help learners move from guided toward independent writing. The three books belong to a single series, so reading them side by side shows whether support is gradually reduced over the junior high years. We applied qualitative content analysis to the complete set of 30 writing tasks in the series, all found in Unit 3 of each chapter, using Brown's (2004) taxonomy of writing performance and skills and Flower and Hayes' (1981) cognitive process model. Frequency counts served only to describe how the codes were spread; the interpretation rests on close reading of representative tasks. A task could carry more than one performance or process code, so the 30 tasks produced 38 performance codes, 30 skill codes, and 70 process codes. Responsive writing made up 63.2% of the performance codes and extensive writing never appeared, while 24 tasks (80%) combined microskills and macroskills. Planning and translating were coded in every task, whereas reviewing accounted for only 10 of the 70 process codes (14.3%), and many of those steps told students little about what to look for, which suggests that frequency can overstate how well a stage is supported. Scaffolding is therefore generous, yet outlines and templates are not clearly faded across grades, and chances for independent composition and systematic revision stay limited. Because the data are textbook pages and not classroom practice, the findings describe task design and not learning outcomes. They point to progressive fading of support and criteria-based reviewing as priorities for textbook design, and to withdrawing outlines and adding revision after feedback as ways teachers can supplement the tasks.</i>

1. Introduction

Writing asks a great deal of EFL learners. They have to command the language, think critically, and arrange their ideas so that a reader can follow them. Junior high school students in Indonesia often get stuck at exactly these points: finding something to say, keeping grammar accurate, and organizing a text (Alemu, 2020; Yulianti et al., 2019). Structured, gradual support is the obvious response, but support is only a means. What teachers ultimately hope for is a writer who no longer needs it. Textbooks are one of the places where the balance between helping and letting go gets decided, and earlier work suggests that many of them lean toward the finished product instead of the stages that lead to it (Amalia et al., 2021).

For many teachers the textbook is close to a ready-made lesson plan. It sequences the activities, sets how much help learners receive, and shows what counts as acceptable writing (Susiati & Mufidati, 2020). The task is where these decisions become concrete, so examining tasks can tell teachers and materials writers something usable about how a lesson is likely to run (Na & Lee, 2019). The English for Nusantara series is a worthwhile case under the Merdeka Curriculum. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Research, and Technology publishes it for junior high school Grades 7 to 9 (Damayanti et al., 2022), and it can be obtained in print and in digital form. Since one design spans three grades, we can also ask something that a single-grade study cannot: does the help offered to writers change as they advance? A content analysis of the Grade 8 volume found writing activities that were largely structured and controlled, steering students toward a final text (Nias et al., 2026). Whether that control works as helpful scaffolding or as a narrow range of practice is not something a frequency count can decide.

Earlier research falls into three types that are easy to blur. Content evaluation asks whether a book fits the curriculum or meets general quality criteria. Ramadhana (2019) looked at the overall quality of a textbook, and Fahala and Tanto (2023) traced how language skills are distributed across chapters, yet neither asked whether the writing tasks were varied, process-oriented, or cognitively demanding. Work on this particular series has followed the same line, covering content alignment (Febraningrum & Suroso, 2023), character education (Liagustin & Malik, 2023), and communicative language teaching principles (Syahid et al., 2024), with little attention to how writing tasks are built. Studies of other Indonesian textbooks do point to thin guidance through the stages of composition (Apriyani & Robiasih, 2019; Ayu & Inderawati, 2018; Nursyahrifa et al., 2019; Ratu et al., 2019).

The second type, task classification, asks what kind of writing each task requests. The third, process support, asks which parts of composing a task helps with and which it leaves to the learner. A content evaluation can confirm that a book is aligned with the curriculum without revealing what a task actually makes students decide, organize, or judge. Classification and process analysis can, and that is the territory of this study.

We therefore pair two frameworks that approach a task from different directions. Brown's (2004) taxonomy tells us what a task asks the learner to produce and how much of the composition the task keeps under its own control, ranging from copying a given form (imitative) to handling an entire composition (extensive); it also separates sentence-level microskills from text-level macroskills. Flower and Hayes' (1981) model describes what writers do mentally while composing: planning (generating ideas, organizing them, setting goals), translating ideas into text, and reviewing (evaluating and revising), with a

monitor coordinating the whole. Neither is enough alone. A responsive task may leave the content to the writer while an outline fixes the organization, which means the book has already done part of the planning, and only the process lens can reveal that. A process count showing that planning occurs, on the other hand, cannot say whether the learner or the page is doing it. Used together, the frameworks show how much of the composing a task leaves to the student and at which stage.

That raises the question of scaffolding, which we understand as temporary support that should be withdrawn as learners gain ability. Novice writers clearly need it, yet strong support that never recedes can also limit their chances to compose alone. This tension between scaffolding and learner autonomy shapes the analysis below. As far as we could determine from the studies reviewed here, the two frameworks have not been applied together to the English for Nusantara series.

Three dimensions are examined: writing performance type, writing skill emphasis (microskills and macroskills), and writing-process stage. Two questions guide the study. (1) How are the writing tasks in the English for Nusantara textbooks for Grades 7, 8, and 9 presented in terms of writing performance types and the writing skills they emphasize? (2) To what extent do these writing tasks support the writing process of planning, translating, and reviewing, as represented in the textbook tasks?

2. Method

Research Design and Data Source

The study used qualitative content analysis, a design suited to identifying, classifying, and interpreting the writing tasks in the three books. Frequency counts formed one part of that design. They show how the codes were distributed and give the interpretation a systematic footing, but they are descriptive and not inferential, and we do not treat them as proof that a task is good or effective. The data were the English for Nusantara textbooks for Grades 7, 8, and 9 issued for the Merdeka Curriculum by the Kementerian Pendidikan, Kebudayaan, Riset, dan Teknologi (Damayanti et al., 2022). We chose all three because they make up one continuous junior high series, which lets us see whether the support given to writers changes from Grade 7 to Grade 9.

The unit of analysis was the writing task: a single activity, or a chain of linked steps, in which students must produce written language, whether words, sentences, or connected text. Activities that involved only reading, listening, or speaking were left out. Every chapter in the books is divided into units, and Unit 3 is the part where students write a text connected to the chapter's subtheme, while the earlier units concentrate on listening, speaking, and reading. This arrangement held in all fifteen chapters, so Unit 3 became our writing-task section because of how the books are organized and not because we chose to limit the corpus. All 30 tasks we identified sit there: 13 in Grade 7, 7 in Grade 8, and 10 in Grade 9.

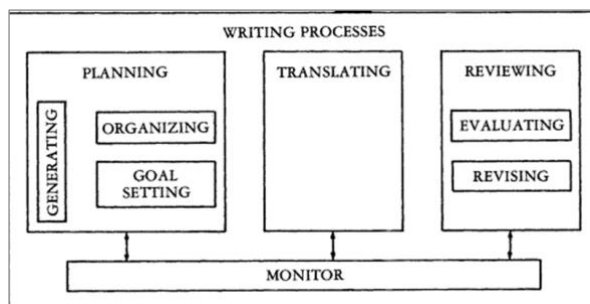
The books run to 264, 312, and 368 pages, each divided into five chapters. A chapter held between one and three writing tasks (Grade 7: 3, 3, 2, 2, and 3; Grade 8: 2, 1, 1, 1, and 2; Grade 9: 3, 2, 1, 2, and 2). The corpus is small but complete, since no writing task in the series was sampled out. Because one task could receive more than one performance or process code, the number of codes exceeds the number of tasks, and the Data Analysis section explains the denominators.

Analytical Framework

Writing performance was coded with Brown's (2004) four categories. Imitative tasks ask learners to copy or reproduce a form that is already given, for example by moving words from a word box into a worksheet. Intensive tasks aim at accurate sentences under tight control, such as completing sentences with the right verb or turning a sentence into the passive. Responsive tasks call for a short, connected text written in reply to a communicative prompt, usually inside a prescribed structure. Extensive tasks expect the writer to manage a whole composition of several paragraphs, including its organization, with no structure supplied. Brown (2004) links imitative and intensive tasks mainly to microskills, meaning sentence-level control of spelling, word order, grammar, and cohesion, and responsive and extensive tasks to macroskills, meaning command of rhetorical conventions, main and supporting ideas, and writing strategies. Each task was therefore also coded as microskills, macroskills, or a combination of the two.

For the process dimension we used Flower and Hayes' (1981) model (Figure 1), in which writing consists of three interacting processes, planning (generating, organizing, and goal setting), translating, and reviewing (evaluating and revising), overseen by a monitor. Planning was coded in every task, on the reasoning that writing any text involves generating and organizing ideas whether or not the task asks for it; whether the book itself prompts planning, through brainstorming or outlining steps, was left to the qualitative analysis. Translating was coded when a task asks students to turn ideas into text. Reviewing was coded when a task names an editing or proofreading step, or has students show their text to a reader for comments, even if no criteria are given. How much help such a step actually offers was also handled qualitatively. Table 1 gathers the criteria for all categories.

Figure 1. The Writing Process Model of Flower and Hayes



Note. Adapted from "A cognitive process theory of writing," by L. Flower and J. R. Hayes, 1981, *College Composition and Communication*, 32(4), p. 370.

Data Analysis

The analysis ran in two stages. In the first, we read all 30 tasks in full, including instructions, visual cues, and worksheets, and coded each one for writing performance (imitative, intensive, responsive, extensive), writing skill (microskills, macroskills, combination), and process stage (planning, translating, reviewing) following the matrix in Table 1. The unit of analysis, the criteria, and the decision rules were settled before coding began, and every decision was tied to wording in the task instructions. In the second stage, we examined representative tasks qualitatively, as described below.

Table 1 *Coding Matrix: Operational Criteria for Each Dimension and Category*

Dimension	Category	Operational criterion	Example from the series
Writing performance (Brown, 2004)	Imitative	Students copy or reproduce a given written form.	Grade 7, Ch. 1, pp. 41-42: collecting words from a word box into a worksheet
	Intensive	Students produce accurate sentences under controlled conditions, such as completing sentences, describing pictures in a fixed order, or changing a grammatical form.	Grade 7, Ch. 3, pp. 140-142: completing sentences with the correct action verbs
	Responsive	Students write a short connected text in reply to a communicative prompt, usually within a prescribed structure.	Grade 8, Ch. 1, pp. 62-64: writing a recount from an outline
	Extensive	Students manage a whole composition across several paragraphs and decide how it is organized, with no structure supplied.	None found in the series
Writing skill (Brown, 2004)	Microskills	The task addresses sentence-level control: spelling, word order, grammar, cohesion.	Grade 7, Ch. 5, p. 235: sentences from a picture and word chains
	Macroskills	The task addresses text-level control: rhetorical conventions, main and supporting ideas, writing strategies.	None found as a standalone category
	Combination	The task addresses both microskills and macroskills.	Grade 9, Ch. 3, pp. 199-201: listing verbs, then writing the four parts of a narrative
Writing process (Flower & Hayes, 1981)	Planning	Generating, organizing, or goal setting before writing, whether the task prompts it explicitly or only presupposes it; coded in every task.	Explicit: Grade 7, Ch. 2, pp. 95-96. Presupposed: Grade 8, Ch. 4, p. 231
	Translating	The task asks students to turn ideas into written text.	Grade 9, Ch. 5, pp. 333-337: writing the first draft in a template
	Reviewing	The task names an editing or proofreading step, or asks students to show the text to a reader for comments, even when no criteria are given.	Grade 7, Ch. 4, pp. 198-199: "Writing and editing"; Grade 9, Ch. 1, pp. 70-71: "Proofreading"

Note. Unit of analysis = one writing task (one activity or a set of linked steps requiring written output). Each task received exactly one skill code. A task could receive more than one performance code and more than one process code when it contained distinct activities that met different definitions. Length and number of paragraphs were not criteria for performance type. Ch. = chapter.

A task earned a second performance or process code only when it contained separate activities that met different definitions, while every task received exactly one skill code. Borderline cases were settled by what the instruction asks students to write, not by

the topic, genre, or length of the text. The Grade 7 task in Chapter 2 (pp. 91-92) shows how this worked. It first tells students to "Put the following process into the correct order" and then to write the process of making banana fritters with sequence words such as first, then, and finally. The picture-based ordering counted as intensive and the procedural text as responsive, so the task carried two performance codes; because it mixes word- and sentence-level choices with the organization of a whole procedural text, it carried one skill code, combination. Length was never a criterion either. A task requiring four or five paragraphs was coded as extensive only if the writer had to decide how the text would be organized, which is why the Grade 9 charity-shop task, with its prescribed number and function of paragraphs, was coded as responsive.

Two denominators are used, and they should not be confused. Code-level percentages divide the codes in a category by all codes in that dimension: 38 for performance, 30 for skills, and 70 for process. Because categories in the performance and process dimensions are not mutually exclusive, these percentages describe how the codes are composed and cannot be read as percentages of the 30 tasks. Task-level figures count the tasks that contain a category, out of 30 or out of the 13, 7, and 10 tasks of each grade. Each task received exactly one skill code, so for skills the two coincide. Where the text speaks of tasks, we give numbers of tasks. Frequencies describe how task features are distributed. They do not show by themselves that a task is good or effective, and since we analyze textbooks and not classroom outcomes, we cannot say whether students actually develop the abilities a task targets.

In the second stage, representative tasks were studied in depth. Once all 30 tasks had been coded, we selected them through directed variation sampling, meaning that we picked tasks on purpose to cover the range of categories found in the frequency analysis and not to confirm the most common patterns. Three criteria applied: at least one task for each major category in the three dimensions, tasks from each of the three grades so that grades could be compared, and, within a category, preference for the task that displayed its features most clearly, since it offered the firmest textual basis for interpretation. The tasks discussed below are therefore prototypical and not average. They show how coding decisions were made and are not a portrait of every task. The textbook pages for the main examples are reproduced in Figures 2 to 6 so that readers can check each interpretation against the task itself.

These tasks were read from three angles: the scaffolding they provide (guiding questions, word banks, outlines, visual prompts); the cognitive demand they place on the writer and the process stage they engage; and the instructional intent suggested by how they position students' readiness at a given grade. Within scaffolding, we separated structural scaffolding (outlines, templates, word banks, pictures) from cognitive support (prompts that help writers decide what to say or how to judge their text).

We followed Lincoln and Guba (1985) for trustworthiness. Credibility came from regular discussion of classification decisions with the thesis supervisor and from checking each decision against the written definitions. For dependability, every task was entered in a coding table recording its location and its codes, so a reader can retrace each decision. For confirmability, the interpretations are anchored in the wording of the task instructions and in the textbook pages shown in the figures, and for transferability we describe the books, grades, and publisher in detail. One researcher did the coding. Talking decisions over with a supervisor is not the same as independent intercoder reliability, and we

cannot report an agreement statistic. The classifications, especially those of borderline tasks, should be read as one defensible interpretation and not as something a second coder has confirmed.

3. Result

The 30 writing tasks yielded 38 performance codes, 30 skill codes, and 70 process codes, because a task could receive more than one performance or process code. Table 2 sets task-level and code-level figures side by side for the performance and skill dimensions. Everything reported here is a descriptive count of what the tasks contain; none of it measures how well they work.

Table 2 Task-Level and Code-Level Figures for Writing Performance and Skill Categories

Dimension and category	Tasks containing the category (n of 30)	% of the 30 tasks	% of codes in the dimension
Writing performance (38 codes)			
Imitative	6	20.0%	15.8%
Intensive	8	26.7%	21.0%
Responsive	24	80.0%	63.2%
Extensive	0	0.0%	0.0%
Writing skill (30 codes)			
Microskills	6	20.0%	20.0%
Macroskills	0	0.0%	0.0%
Combination	24	80.0%	80.0%

Note. Task-level percentages for performance do not sum to 100% because a task could contain more than one category. Code-level percentages sum to 100% within rounding. Process codes are reported in Table 5.

Writing Performance Types

Table 3 presents how the writing performance types are distributed across the three textbooks.

Table 3 Frequency and Percentage of Writing Performance Types in the English for Nusantara Textbooks for Grades 7, 8, and 9

Writing Performance	Grade 7 Freq	%	Grade 8 Freq	%	Grade 9 Freq	%	Total Freq	Total %
Imitative	5	26.3%	0	0%	1	9.1%	6	15.8%
Intensive	5	26.3%	1	12.5%	2	18.2%	8	21.0%
Responsive	9	47.4%	7	87.5%	8	72.7%	24	63.2%
Extensive	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
TOTAL	19	100%	8	100%	11	100%	38	100%

Note. Freq = number of performance codes. % = percentage of all performance codes within each grade level (code-level; denominators 19, 8, 11, and 38). A task could receive more than one

performance code, so these are not percentages of tasks. Percentages may not sum to 100 because of rounding.

Table 3 shows responsive writing leading in every grade. It accounts for 63.2% of the performance codes and appears in 24 of the 30 tasks. In Grade 8 its share climbs to 87.5% of the codes, and each of the seven Grade 8 tasks has a responsive component. Imitative writing (15.8%) and intensive writing (21.0%) together make up 36.8% of the codes and cluster in Grade 7, where they supply 10 of the 19 codes, compared with one of eight in Grade 8 and three of 11 in Grade 9. Extensive writing is absent from all three books, so no task required students to organize a multi-paragraph composition by themselves. A leading category should not be mistaken for an effective one, though. The counts show where the series puts its weight, not whether tasks of that type build writing ability.

Looking at the grades one by one shows where controlled practice sits. Most of it belongs to the Grade 7 book. In Chapter 1 an imitative task has students gather personality words from a word box into a worksheet, and in Chapter 3 an intensive task has them complete sentences with the right action verbs, helped by pictures (Damayanti et al., 2022, Grade 7, pp. 41, 140-142). The one intensive code in Grade 8 comes from a picture-sequence task in Chapter 1, where students number pictures of a sack race and write the sentences in order (Damayanti et al., 2022, Grade 8, pp. 60-61). The Grade 9 book has one imitative task, in which students complete descriptions with words from a box (Damayanti et al., 2022, Grade 9, pp. 132-135), and two intensive ones.

One of the latter asks for a sentence on every point of an infographic about Bali Starlings, with the passive voice where possible (Damayanti et al., 2022, Grade 9, pp. 69-70). The sentence-level work here involves a grammatical transformation and not just filling a blank. Controlled practice therefore does not vanish in the upper grades. Its share drops sharply from Grade 7 to Grade 8 and edges up again in Grade 9, although those shares rest on very small numbers (one and three codes), and the demand it makes on students grows.

The Grade 8 recount task in Figure 2 is the clearest illustration of responsive writing. Before the outline appears, students are asked to recall the Independence Day celebration in their school or town: which game they joined, how it was run, who won, and how they felt (Damayanti et al., 2022, Grade 8, pp. 62-64).

Figure 2 *Independence Day at School: A Responsive Writing Task From the Grade 8 Textbook*

b. Outlining and Drafting
Make an outline of your story using the following structure:

Structure and Description	Your story
Orientation <i>Sets a context for understanding the events that follow; provides background information about who, where, when, etc.</i>	
Record of events <i>Events recounted in chronological order</i>	Event 1 Event 2 Event 3
Comment <i>Evaluates the significance of the event.</i>	

Worksheet 1.23

Note. From *English for Nusantara SMP/MTs Kelas VIII* (p. 63), by I. L. Damayanti et al., 2022, Kementerian Pendidikan, Kebudayaan, Riset, dan Teknologi.

The task gives students a structure, namely orientation, record of events, and comment, with a one-line note on what each part should do, but the content is theirs. That split is what makes the task responsive instead of intensive: the language is free and only the shape of the text is controlled. The guiding questions about the game and about how the writer felt are cognitive support, since they help students decide what to say, and the question about feelings also nudges the comment section beyond plain retelling. The outline is a different matter. It is structural scaffolding that settles in advance how the text will be organized. Compared with the sentence-level tasks of Grade 7, students are now expected to mean something through their writing, using personal experience as raw material, yet very few organizational decisions remain for the writer to make, a point we return to in the Discussion.

The absence of extensive writing also calls for a careful reading, because several Grade 9 tasks are long. One asks for four paragraphs of a descriptive text about a dream charity shop, namely one of identification, two of description, and one of conclusion, and another asks for a five-paragraph recount (Figure 6). In both, the number and function of the paragraphs are given. Length was therefore not our criterion: a task counted as extensive only if the writer had to decide how the text would be organized, and none in the series left that open.

The distinction matters, because a four- or five-paragraph assignment is not extensive when its organization is fully prescribed. Nor should the absence be read as a plain shortcoming. Junior high school writers can reasonably expect a good deal of scaffolding, and it would be unrealistic to ask for extensive tasks in every Grade 7 or Grade 8 unit. The more useful question is whether support is released step by step, and for Grade 9 the answer is mixed. The charity-shop and procedural-text tasks still name the parts of the text or supply a template (Damayanti et al., 2022, Grade 9, pp. 257-262, 333-337), as

do the tasks in Figures 4 and 6, so what grows between grades is the amount of text and not the share of organizational decisions left to the writer.

Writing Skill Assessment

Table 4 shows how the writing skill categories are distributed across the three grade levels.

Table 4 Frequency and Percentage of Writing Skill Assessment in English for Nusantara Textbooks Grades 7, 8, and 9

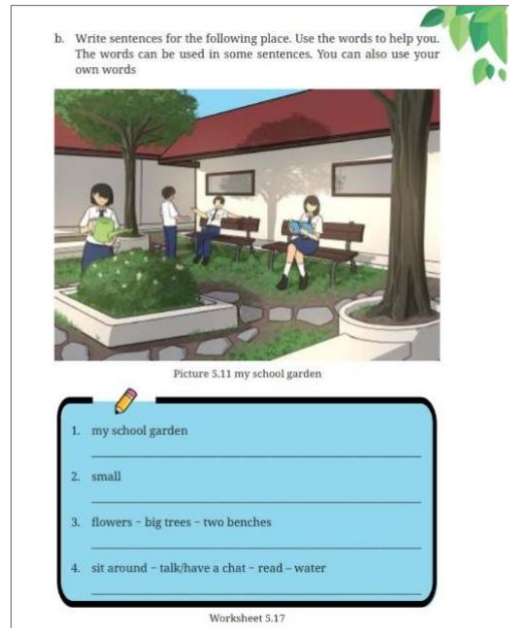
Writing Assessment	Grade 7 Freq	%	Grade 8 Freq	%	Grade 9 Freq	%	Total Freq	Total %
Microskills	4	30.8%	0	0%	2	20%	6	20%
Macroskills	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
Combination (Micro+Macro)	9	69.2%	7	100%	8	80%	24	80%
TOTAL	13	100%	7	100%	10	100%	30	100%

Note. Freq = number of skill codes. % = percentage within each grade level. Each task received exactly one skill code, so these percentages are both code-level and task-level (denominators 13, 7, 10, and 30).

According to Table 4, combining microskills and macroskills is the dominant pattern, found in 24 of the 30 tasks (80%). All seven Grade 8 tasks integrate the two, and no task was coded as macroskills only. Microskills-only tasks show up in Grade 7 (four of 13 tasks, 30.8%) and Grade 9 (two of 10 tasks, 20%), which reflects controlled language practice at those levels. These figures need careful handling. A combination code records that a task demands both kinds of control; it does not say the two are developed equally, and because each task received a single skill code, the coding cannot show whether one dimension outweighs the other inside a combined task. The lack of macroskills-only tasks is not automatically a flaw either, since a text-level task for junior high learners that ignored accuracy would hardly be desirable. What the figures cannot separate is integrating skills from practicing higher-level skills on one's own, and the examples below suggest that in combined tasks the macroskill demands are largely met inside a supplied structure.

Figure 3 shows a typical microskills task from Grade 7. Students write sentences about a picture of a school garden, working from numbered word chains such as "flowers - big trees - two benches" and "sit around - talk/have a chat - read - water."

Figure 3 *My School Garden: A Microskills-Based Writing Task From the Grade 7 Textbook*



Note. From *English for Nusantara SMP/MTs Kelas VII* (p. 235), by I. L. Damayanti et al., 2022, Kementerian Pendidikan, Kebudayaan, Riset, dan Teknologi.

The word chains carry much of the load. They fix the vocabulary, hint at the kind of sentence expected (what is in the garden and what people do there), and leave the student mainly with the job of building correct sentences. Nothing asks for an opening, a sequence, or a closing, so text organization is simply not in play. The picture also removes a hurdle that often stalls beginners, since the ideas are visible in the image. Read this way, the design looks less like a weakness of the Grade 7 book and more like a deliberate way of lowering cognitive load while linguistic control is still developing. The invitation to add "your own words" is a small nod to student agency within a controlled frame.

Figure 4 shows the combination category at its fullest in the Grade 9 Timun Mas task. In the first part, students read a comic strip and list action verbs that fit its panels, using a worksheet that asks for the setting, the characters, the problem, and three events, each with a complication and a resolution. In the second part, they write the orientation, complication, resolution, and coda of the story from what they planned.

Figure 4 The Multiverse Story of Timun Mas: A Combined Microskills and Macroskills Writing Task From the Grade 9 Textbook

Note. From *English for Nusantara SMP/MTs Kelas IX* (pp. 200-201), by I. L. Damayanti et al., 2022, Kementerian Pendidikan, Kebudayaan, Riset, dan Teknologi.

Choosing verbs is a microskill, ordering events into four narrative stages is a macroskill, and the task links the two, because the verbs collected in the first part flow straight into the sentences of the second. A wordless comic as the source takes away the problem of finding content but leaves the problem of organization intact, which is a neat way of isolating macroskills. Still, the four narrative stages are named for the writer. Set against Figure 3, the contrast shows how the combination category develops across the grades: attention to word choice remains, but it now operates inside a whole narrative and no longer inside a single sentence. Organizing the narrative is therefore a real demand here, yet it is exercised within a supplied frame, which illustrates the gap between integrating microskills and macroskills and practicing text-level organization independently.

Writing Process Stages

Table 5 gives the frequency and percentage of the writing process stages across the three textbooks.

Table 5 Frequency and Percentage of Writing Process Stages in English for Nusantara Textbooks Grades 7, 8, and 9

Writing Process	Grade 7 Freq	%	Grade 8 Freq	%	Grade 9 Freq	%	Total Freq	Total %
Planning	13	41.9%	7	46.7%	10	41.7%	30	42.9%
Translating	13	41.9%	7	46.7%	10	41.7%	30	42.9%
Reviewing	5	16.1%	1	6.7%	4	16.7%	10	14.3%
TOTAL	31	100%	15	100%	24	100%	70	100%

Note. Freq = number of process codes. % = percentage of all process codes within each grade level (code-level; denominators 31, 15, 24, and 70). Planning and translating were coded in every task, so their frequencies follow from the coding rule. Percentages may not sum to 100 because of rounding.

As Table 5 shows, planning and translating were coded in all 30 tasks, which makes 60 of the 70 process codes (85.8%). Those two frequencies follow from the rule that planning is coded whenever a text has to be written, so they say nothing about the quality of support; that question is taken up qualitatively below. Reviewing was coded ten times: five in Grade 7, once in Grade 8, and four in Grade 9. It is the only stage whose share varies. The share is smallest in Grade 8 (6.7% of the Grade 8 codes) and returns to 16.7% in Grade 9, although the Grade 8 book holds just seven tasks.

Because planning is coded everywhere, it is present in every task but not prompted in every task. Some tasks ask for it outright. In Grade 7 (Chapter 2, pp. 95-96), under "Planning and brainstorming," students are told to think about the vegetables they want to cook, the utensils they need, and the steps of the dish, and in Grade 8 (Chapter 5, pp. 278-280) students decide the settings, characters, and complication of a new story before writing. Other tasks only take planning for granted. The Grade 8 task in Chapter 4 (p. 231) consists of one instruction, to recount the Bye Bye Plastic Bags movement from the information in section 5. There is no separate prewriting step, yet students still have to pick out the key points and put them in the order of a recount. The book thus makes planning visible in some tasks and leaves it to the learner in others, a difference that a frequency count cannot show.

The Grade 7 descriptive paragraph in Figure 5 makes the writing process visible on the page. In the first step, students think of one friend and list words describing that friend in two columns, one for regular activities and one for facts. In the second, they outline the paragraph with a structure that separates identification, description (with features for personality trait, physical trait, and regular activities, each with extra information), and comment, and then write the paragraph on another worksheet.

Figure 5 *My Friends and I: A Planning and Translating Task From the Grade 7 Textbook*

Section 6 - Your Turn: Writing

a. Planning and brainstorming.

1. Think of one friend.
2. List the words to describe your friend.

Regular Activities	Facts
1. _____	1. _____
2. _____	2. _____
3. _____	3. _____
4. _____	4. _____
5. _____	5. _____

Worksheet 1.26

b. Outlining and drafting.

Make an outline of your paragraph using the structure at [Worksheet 1.27](#).

Structure	Text
Identification: a general orientation to the topic.	
Description: Feature 1: Personality trait Extra information	
Feature 2: Physical trait Extra information	
Feature 3: Physical trait Extra information	
Feature 4: Regular activities	
Comment	

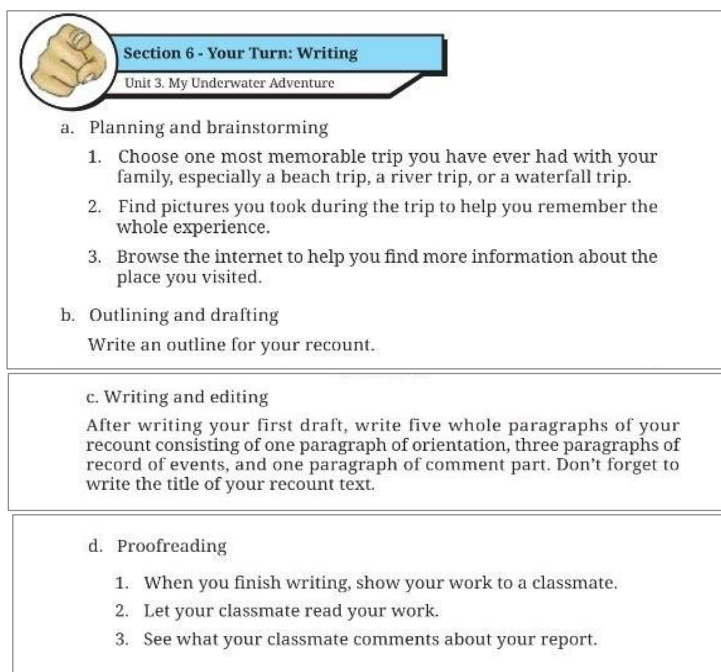
Worksheet 1.27

Note. From *English for Nusantara SMP/MTs Kelas VII* (pp. 49-50), by I. L. Damayanti et al., 2022, Kementerian Pendidikan, Kebudayaan, Riset, dan Teknologi.

Two things stand out. The brainstorming worksheet is matched to the outline that follows, so what students list becomes the material for the description features, and planning feeds the paragraph directly instead of serving as a detached warm-up. The outline also mirrors the generic structure of a descriptive text, which means the organizing sub-process is carried out largely through genre knowledge that the book supplies. For learners at the start of junior high school this is a sensible way around the blank page, and it speaks to the idea-generation difficulties reported by Yulianti et al. (2019) and Alemu (2020). Reviewing, by contrast, is only implied in a "writing and editing" step that gives no criteria for what to check.

The Grade 9 recount in Figure 6 is the clearest case in the series of all three stages being built into one assignment. Students plan by choosing a memorable trip, finding pictures, browsing the internet for more information, and outlining the recount. They then write a five-paragraph first draft (one paragraph of orientation, three of record of events, and one of comment) and give it a title. Finally they proofread: they show the finished work to a classmate, let the classmate read it, and see what the classmate comments.

Figure 6 My Underwater Adventure: A Task Integrating Planning, Translating, and Reviewing
 From the Grade 9 Textbook



Section 6 - Your Turn: Writing
 Unit 3. My Underwater Adventure

a. Planning and brainstorming

1. Choose one most memorable trip you have ever had with your family, especially a beach trip, a river trip, or a waterfall trip.
2. Find pictures you took during the trip to help you remember the whole experience.
3. Browse the internet to help you find more information about the place you visited.

b. Outlining and drafting
 Write an outline for your recount.

c. Writing and editing
 After writing your first draft, write five whole paragraphs of your recount consisting of one paragraph of orientation, three paragraphs of record of events, and one paragraph of comment part. Don't forget to write the title of your recount text.

d. Proofreading

1. When you finish writing, show your work to a classmate.
2. Let your classmate read your work.
3. See what your classmate comments about your report.

Note. From *English for Nusantara SMP/MTs Kelas IX* (pp. 139-140), by I. L. Damayanti et al., 2022, Kementerian Pendidikan, Kebudayaan, Riset, dan Teknologi.

This task shifts the burden of judgment. The student becomes a reader of a classmate's text and the recipient of a reader's response, which comes close to what Flower and Hayes (1981) describe when they treat evaluating as reading one's own text as someone else would. Two limits are visible in Figure 6. The step is labeled "proofreading," but what it asks for is peer feedback, which is a different activity from checking surface accuracy. It also offers no criteria, no checklist of content, organization, or language to look for, and it does not say what students should do with the comments. (The comparable Chapter 1 step in Grade 9 at least names language and content as the

focus of feedback; Damayanti et al., 2022, Grade 9, pp. 70-71.) In addition, the step follows a single draft, whereas the model treats reviewing as recursive, able to interrupt planning and translating at any point. The peer response is a genuine invitation to revise, but a thinly supported one. Even so, it is the strongest model in the series for how reviewing could be built up in earlier grades: a reader other than the writer and an explicit moment of looking back, to which criteria and a follow-up revision step could be added.

Table 5 has to be read together with these figures. Grade 7 records slightly more reviewing codes (5) than Grade 9 (4), but the Grade 7 cases mostly take the form of a named editing step tucked into the writing step, with no hint of what to check or change. In Chapter 4 (pp. 198-199), for example, the step called "Writing and editing" says only "Write your descriptive paragraph here" (Damayanti et al., 2022, Grade 7). The Grade 9 cases include explicit peer-feedback activities. The counts thus overstate reviewing in Grade 7 and hide a change in kind between the grades.

This gap between how often reviewing appears and how much help it gives is the central point of the article: a reviewing code shows that a step has been named, not that students are equipped to evaluate and revise. It also bears on autonomy, since reviewing is where writers apply their own criteria and decide what to change. Without it, students rely on someone else to judge their work.

4. Discussion

One pattern runs through the findings. The English for Nusantara textbooks give substantial support for generating and producing texts, while opportunities for students to organize, evaluate, and revise their own writing independently remain comparatively few. It shows up in all three dimensions: responsive tasks whose organization the book largely supplies, no extensive writing, and a reviewing stage that is coded far less often and is frequently thinly supported. Since the data are textbook pages, the discussion concerns what the books contain and not what students experience when they use them.

On the first research question, the lead of responsive writing signals an emphasis on communicative text production and not on mechanical practice, in line with Brown's (2004) view of responsive writing as meaning-making in response to a communicative purpose. The larger share of imitative and intensive codes in Grade 7 reflects a scaffolding logic in which basic linguistic control is built before students write connected texts, which fits Brown's (2004) argument that these categories serve as developmental stages. A leading category is still not a measure of effectiveness. The counts tell us where the series places its emphasis; whether responsive tasks of this kind develop good writers would take evidence from classrooms. Suprpto et al. (2022) note that product-focused approaches do not lead to meaningful learning, and the concern applies wherever responsive tasks are largely structured by the book, as they are in the tasks we examined.

The absence of extensive writing needs a developmental reading. It does not follow that every Grade 7 or Grade 8 task should be extensive, because some scaffolding is pedagogically sound for junior high school writers. The more telling finding is that the series shows no clear point at which support is withdrawn. Brown (2004) treats extensive writing as the category in which writers handle a whole composition on their own, and its absence even in Grade 9 sits alongside earlier evaluations of Indonesian EFL textbooks that found too few tasks leading learners from idea generation to a complete composition (Apriyani & Robiasih, 2019; Ayu & Inderawati, 2018; Ratu et al., 2019). The argument,

then, is not simply that extensive writing is missing but that independence does not grow enough from one grade to the next.

The figures also show that scaffolding in this series works both as support and as constraint, and two kinds should be told apart. Structural scaffolding is built into the page as outlines, templates, word banks, and pictures. Cognitive support consists of prompts that help the writer think, such as the guiding questions in Figure 2 or the brainstorming lists in Figure 5, and it leaves the thinking with the student. A template that names the parts of a text can, by contrast, do some of the organizational thinking for the student. In Figures 2, 4, 5, and 6 the outline templates name those parts.

That suits junior high school writers and fits a process view in which learners are guided through gaining ideas, organizing them, and developing sentences (Kurniasih et al., 2020). Yet when the parts are always named, the organizing sub-process of Flower and Hayes' (1981) planning stage is partly carried out by the book, and students get more practice filling in a good structure than building one. This probably explains why extensive writing in Brown's (2004) sense is missing even from the longest tasks. Scaffolding is reduced in some respects, mainly in the smaller number of sentence-level controlled tasks after Grade 7 and the growing length of texts, but not in others, because the organizational frame is still supplied in Grade 9.

A fuller progression would run from high scaffolding, through guided practice and partial independence, to independent composition. The series contains the first two steps. Grade 7 offers word chains, pictures, and complete outlines, and the Grade 8 recount supplies an outline but leaves the content to the student. It holds only hints of the third, such as the Grade 8 story-writing task in which students decide the settings, characters, and complications of a new story (Damayanti et al., 2022, Grade 8, pp. 278-280), and it does not reach the fourth. Partial independence could mean a task that names only some parts of a text, or one that asks students to draft their own outline for a familiar text type before the book supplies one. Without a point at which templates are withdrawn, the series risks the concern raised above about managing the product more than developing the writer.

The close integration of microskills and macroskills shows that the series treats accuracy and communicative competence as complementary, as Brown (2004) argues skilled writing requires. Integration is not the same as independent practice of higher-level skills, however. In combined tasks such as Figure 4, text organization is practiced largely inside a supplied frame, so the macroskill demand is real but supported. Revising content and organization asks the writer to step back from language details and judge the text as a whole, and that may be harder to teach when every task keeps attention on sentence accuracy. This reading is tentative. It rests on coded tasks and not on classroom observation, and a single skill code per task does not reveal whether microskills or macroskills weigh more within a combined task.

On the second research question, the series supports the early and middle stages of the writing process more visibly than the last. Planning and translating were coded in every task, and the qualitative analysis shows that the book makes planning explicit in many of them through brainstorming sheets and outlines, though in others it merely presupposes it. Reviewing is where the analysis is most revealing. Flower and Hayes (1981) regard it as a recursive, metacognitive process, and it is central to self-regulated writing and learner autonomy. Counting reviewing codes cannot settle the matter, because

the steps coded as reviewing differ in kind. Proofreading (checking surface accuracy), editing (changing the text), peer feedback (receiving a reader's response), revision (deciding on content and organization against criteria), and reflective evaluation (judging one's own text against its goals) are not interchangeable activities.

In the series, the Grade 7 steps we examined are named editing steps without criteria, and the Grade 9 steps are peer-feedback activities labeled proofreading that, in the two examples discussed, specify at most language and content as a focus and do not ask for a revised version. Effective revision requires students to make decisions against criteria and not merely to receive comments.

That some reviewing codes overstate the real process support is also a methodological lesson. Studies that count process stages in textbook tasks may overestimate support unless they also check how much guidance each step gives, and frequency alone should not be read as evidence of instructional quality. The thin support for reviewing is consistent with Nursyahrifa et al. (2019), who observed that EFL textbook tasks tend to favor lower-order cognitive processes over reflective, evaluative thinking, and with Ayu and Inderawati (2018), who noted the absence of tasks involving editing and peer review.

Grade 8 deserves a closer look. It is where responsive writing peaks (87.5% of the codes, with all seven tasks) and where reviewing is rarest (one code, 6.7%). Just as students write their most connected texts, the book asks them least often to look back at those texts. That fits a series in which revision arrives late and mainly in Grade 9 and is not built up gradually. We hold this interpretation loosely, because the Grade 8 book contains only seven tasks, so the pattern describes this book's design and is not a stable estimate.

Some practical implications follow. Teachers can treat the Grade 9 peer-feedback step as a model and bring it forward to earlier grades, adding a short peer-review checklist on content, organization, and language and asking students to revise once comments arrive. They can also remove outlines gradually: students might first use the book's outline, then draft their own for a familiar text type before seeing the book's, and finally write without one, generating their own organizational structures. In Grade 9, an independent writing project in which the organization is left to the writer would come closer to extensive writing. For textbook developers, the main recommendation is progressive fading of scaffolding across grades and not merely adding more extensive tasks. Outlines could become partial in Grade 8 and give way to student-generated plans in Grade 9, and reviewing could become an explicit stage in every unit, with criteria and a follow-up revision step, deepening from checking language in Grade 7 to criteria-based revision of content and organization in Grade 9.

These interpretations have limits. The analysis covers one series and the tasks in Unit 3 of each chapter, which is where the series places all of its writing tasks. It treats the textbook as a document, and content analysis cannot establish whether a task works when different teachers use it in different classrooms. Teachers may modify, omit, supplement, or reorder textbook activities, so what a task asks on the page can differ considerably from what students experience, and textbook design should not be taken to determine classroom practice. The frequency counts describe distribution and are not evidence of effectiveness. Finally, one researcher did the coding without an independent second coder, so another coder might classify some borderline tasks differently.

Put briefly, the textbooks offer substantial support for generating and producing texts, while students' opportunities to organize, evaluate, and revise their own writing independently remain comparatively limited. The study's contribution lies less in showing that extensive writing is absent than in showing how scaffolding is distributed: reduced in some respects, but not faded enough to build full writer independence.

5. Conclusion

This study analyzed all 30 writing tasks in the English for Nusantara textbooks for Grades 7, 8, and 9 with Brown's (2004) taxonomy and Flower and Hayes' (1981) writing process model. For the first research question, the tasks are arranged along a continuum from controlled to communicative writing, with responsive writing (63.2% of performance codes; 24 of 30 tasks) and the combination of microskills and macroskills (24 of 30 tasks) as the dominant design choices. Extensive writing does not occur. For the second research question, the tasks, as represented in the textbooks, support the writing process to a meaningful but uneven extent: planning and translating are built into every task, often with generous scaffolding, whereas reviewing is coded only ten times (14.3% of process codes) and is frequently thinly supported.

The central message is that scaffolding in the series supports novice writers but is not faded enough to build full independence in organizing, evaluating, and revising. Textbook developers are therefore advised to fade outlines and templates progressively across grades and to build criteria-based reviewing, with a follow-up revision step, into each unit. Teachers can supplement the tasks with peer-review checklists, revision after feedback, and, in Grade 9, independent writing projects in which students decide the organization.

The study is limited to one textbook series, to the tasks found in Unit 3, to document analysis of task design, and to coding by one researcher. Future work that adds a second independent coder, other series, and classroom evidence such as teacher interviews, observation, or samples of student writing would show whether the gaps found here, especially the thin support for reviewing, also appear in how the tasks are taught and experienced, and whether they affect students' writing development.

6. Acknowledgement

The authors express sincere gratitude to the thesis supervisors and examiners for their guidance and constructive feedback throughout this study. Appreciation is also extended to Universitas Negeri Gorontalo for the institutional support provided.

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