CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter, the writer discussed about previous studies, writing, outline, teaching writing through outlining, scoring method, an experiment study, and the t test.

A. Previous Studies

There are some studies related on outline technique in writing. They are as follows: a study was conducted by Sabrina. The results of the study showed that using outline technique could improve students’ achievement in writing ability.¹

A study also was conducted by Manalu. The results of the study showed there was significant effect of outline technique on the students’ achievement in writing ability.²

Furthermore, a study was conducted by Agustine. The result of this research showed there is significant difference in students’ achievement between those who are taught using outline and those who are taught without using outline.³

¹ Mutia Sabrina, Improving Students’ Achievement In Writing Descriptive Paragraph Using Outline Technique, Unpublished Thesis, Medan: English Department Faculty of Language and Art University of Negeri Medan, 2012, p. 40.
² Merani Karlina Boang Manalu, The Effect of Using Outline Technique On The Students’ Achievement In Writing Hortatory Exposition Text, Unpublished Thesis, Medan: English Department Faculty of Language and Art University of Negeri Medan, 2012, p. 34.
Another study was conducted by Maria. The results of this study showed that outlining strategy was effectively improving the students’ writing ability.4

B. Writing

1. The Nature of Writing

Faridah stated that writing naturally, language learners acquire a language starting from the listening activity. Afterward, they come to speaking activity. Gradually, they move to the reading activity, and finally to the writing activity. When language learners write, they are engaged in an activity, which is usually at the same time both private and public.5

Somingan stated that when we write, we use graphic symbols; that is letter of combination of letter which relate to the sounds we make when we speak. On one level, the writing can be said to be act of forming these symbols; making mark on flat surface for some kinds. But writing is clearly much more than productive of graphic symbols just as speech is more than the production of sounds. The symbol have to arranged, according certain convention, to form word and words have to be arranged to form sentences, although again we can be said to be writing if we are merely making list of words, as in inventories of items such as shopping list.6

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Based on the explained above, it can be conclude that writing is an activity in which did after other activity like listening through written symbols so that produces the sentence arranged.

2. The Writing Process

Writing is more than picking up a pen and putting words on paper. Writing requires thought and planning if it is to mean anything to the receiver who reads it. Beginning writers run into difficulties because they often consider only themselves when they write. They forget that the real purpose for writing is to send a message to someone, the reader, who must understand their ideas, and that readers are not mind-readers.\(^7\)

Learning this sequence will help you confidence when the time comes to write. You will know that you can use prewriting as a way to think on paper and to gradually discover just what ideas you want to develop. You will understand that there are four clear-cut goals—unity, support, organization, and error-free sentences to aim for in your writing. You will realize that you can use revision to rework a paper until it is strong and effective piece of writing. And you will be able to edit a paper so that your sentences are clear and error-free.\(^8\)

a. Prewriting

Prewriting which is the first stage in writing. If you are like many people, you may have trouble getting started with writing. A mental block may develop when you sit down before a blank sheet of paper. You may not be able to think of an interesting topic or thesis.

\(^8\) John Langan, College Writing Skills with Readings, p. 23.
The following pages describe five prewriting techniques that will help you think about and develop a topic and get words on paper: (1) freewriting, (2) questioning, (3) making a list, (4) diagramming, and (5) preparing a scratch outline. These techniques help you think about and create material, and they are a central part of the writing process.  

1) Freewriting

Freewriting means jotting down in rough sentences or phrases everything that comes to mind about a possible topic. See if you can write nonstop for ten minutes or more. Do not worry about spelling or punctuating correctly, about erasing mistakes, about organizing material, or about finding exact words. Instead, explore an idea by putting down whatever pops into your head. If you get stuck for words, repeat yourself until more words come. Since you do not have to worry about mistakes, you can focus on discovering what you want to say about a subject. Through continued practice in freewriting, you will develop the habit of thinking as you write. And you will learn a technique that is a helpful way to get started on almost any paper.

2) Questioning

In questioning, you generate ideas and details by asking question about your subject. Such question include Why? When? Where? Who? And How? Ask as many questions as you can think of.

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9 Ibid.
10 Ibid., p. 24.
3) Making a List

In making a list, also known as brainstorming, you collect ideas and details that relate to your subject. Pile these items up, one after another, without trying to sort out major details from minor ones or trying to put the details in any special order. Your goal is just to make a list of everything about your subject that occurs to you.12

4) Clustering

Clustering, also known as diagramming or mapping, is another strategy that can be used to generate material for a paper. This method is helpful for people who like to do their thinking in a visual way. In clustering, you use lines, boxes, arrows, and circles to show relationships among the ideas and details that occur to you.

Begin by stating your subject in a few words in the center of a blank sheet of paper. Then, as ideas and details come to you, put them in boxes or circles around the subject and draw lines to connect them to each other and to the subject. Put minor ideas or details in smaller boxes or circles, and use connecting lines to show how they relate as well.13

5) A scratch Outline

A scratch outline is an excellent sequel to the first four prewriting techniques. A scratch outline often follows freewriting, questioning, list-making, or diagramming; or it may gradually emerge in the midst of these strategies. In

12 Ibid., p. 27.
13 Ibid., p. 29.
fact, trying to make a scratch outline is a good way to see if you need to do more prewriting.

In a scratch outline, you think carefully about the point you are making, the supporting items for that point, and the order in which you will arrange those items. The scratch outline is a plan or blueprint to help you achieve a unified, supported, well-organized composition.\textsuperscript{14}

\textbf{b. Drafting}

The second stage is drafting. When you write a first draft, be prepared to put in additional thoughts and details that did not emerge during prewriting. And do not worry if you hit a snag. Just leave a blank space or add a comment such as “Do later” and press on to finish the paper. Also, do not worry yet about grammar, punctuation, or spelling. You do not want to take time correcting words or sentences that you may decide to remove later. It is a good idea to go away and leave your first draft alone for a while, maybe even a day or two, if time allows. Then when you come back to it, it is almost like you were reading someone else’s work. You will be able to find the mistakes more easily and you will have a better idea about what to leave in your writing and what to take out because it does not belong. Instead, make it your goal to state your thesis clearly and develop the content of your paper with plenty of specific details.\textsuperscript{15}

\begin{flushright}
\textsuperscript{14} \textit{Ibid.}, p. 30. \textsuperscript{15} \textit{Ibid.}, p. 32.
\end{flushright}
c. Revising

The third stage is Revising. Revising is as much a stage in the writing process as prewriting, outlining, and doing the first draft. Revising means rewriting a paper, building on what has already been done, in order to make it stronger.

Here are some quick hints that can help make revision easier. First, set your first draft aside for a while. A few hours will do, but a day or two would be better. You can then come back to the draft with a fresh, more objective point of view. Second, work from typed or printed text. You will be able to see the paper more impartially in this way than if you were just looking to your own familiar hand-writing. Next, read your draft aloud. Hearing how your writing sounds will help you pick up problems with meaning as well as with style. Finally, as you do all these things, add your thoughts and changes above the lines or in the margins of your paper. Your written comments can serve as a guide when you work on the next draft.  

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d. Editing

The last stage is editing. After you have revised your paper for content and style, you are ready to edit-check for and correct-errors in grammar, punctuation, and spelling. Students often find it hard to edit a paper carefully. They have put so much, or so little, work into their writing that it is almost painful for them to look at the paper one more time. You may simply have to will yourself to perform this important closing step in the writing process. Remember that eliminating

16 Ibid., p. 34.
sentence-skills mistakes will improve an average paper and help ensure a strong
grade on a good paper. Further, as you get into the habit of checking your papers,
you will also get into the habit of using the sentence skills consistently. They are
integral part of clear and effective writing.\footnote{Ibid., p. 36.}

3. Writing a Paragraph

a. The Structure of a Paragraph

1) The Topic Sentence

The topic sentence tells what topic the paragraph is going to discuss. Topic
sentence there must be in each or every paragraph. Afterwards, the reader will
know matter becoming focus explanation of paragraph in topic sentence. The
topic sentence is representing actually of fundamental idea.

2) The Supporting Sentences

The supporting sentences give details about the topic. The content of
supporting sentences can be in the form of reason, clarification, example and
support to something that stated in topic sentence. Through a supporting sentence,
the reader will be clearly the purpose of a topic sentence. Next, the supporting
sentence can be divided of supporting sentence major, minor, and subminor.

3) The Concluding Sentence

The concluding sentence summarizes the maintain points or restates the topic
sentence in different words.\footnote{Alice Oshima and Ann Hogue, Introduction to Academic English, p. 38.}
b. The Element of a Paragraph

1) Unity

An important element of a good paragraph is unity. When a paragraph has unity, all the supporting sentences discuss only one idea. Unity in writing is the connection of all ideas to a single topic.

From beginning to end, each sentence is directly related to the topic. In some languages, it is acceptable to wander away from the topic—to make little side trips to ideas that are somewhat, but not directly, related to the main topic. In English, doing so is not acceptable because it breaks the unity of the paragraph.\(^\text{19}\)

2) Coherence

Every good paragraph must have coherence. Coherent is related to unity. Ideas that are arranged in a clear and logical way are coherent. When a text is unified and coherent, the reader can easily understand the main points. A coherent paragraph flows smoothly from beginning to end. A reader can follow your ideas easily because one sentence leads naturally to the next one; there are no sudden jumps.

There are three main ways to make your paragraph coherent:

1. Use nouns and pronouns consistently throughout a paragraph.
2. Use transition signals to show relationships among ideas.
3. Put your ideas into some kind of logical order, such as logical division of ideas.\(^\text{20}\)

\(^{19}\) Ibid., p. 67.  
\(^{20}\) Ibid., p. 79.
c. The Patterns of a Paragraph

1) Paragraph of Analysis

In this kind of paragraph pattern, a topic is analyzed. The topic is broken down into causes, effects, reasons, methods, purposes, or other categories that support the main idea. This main idea may be presented as a general statement at the beginning of the paragraph. This kind of *deductive* organization moves from the general to the particular or the main idea may be presented as a general conclusion at the end the paragraph. This kind of *inductive* organization moves from the particular to the general.\(^{21}\)

Here is an example of a paragraph of analysis with deductive organization:

Modern people, in spite of their scientific knowledge, often seem as superstitious as their ancestors. Astrology is a half-billion-dollar business. Intelligent persons still believe that lines on their palm or the arrangement of tea leaves in a cup predict the future. Airplanes do not have a row of seat numbered 13, and buildings omit a thirteenth floor. Black cats, broken mirrors, and spilled salt create fear and anxiety in many people. And ouija boards continue to be a popular past time.\(^{22}\)

Here is an example of a paragraph of analysis with inductive organization:

From Italian we get such words as *balcony*, *cavalry*, *miniature*, *opera*, and *umbrella*. Spanish has given us *mosquito*, *ranch*, *cigar*, and *vanilla*. Dutch has provided *brandy*, *golf*, *measles*, and *wagon*. From Arabic, we have borrowed *alcohol*, *chemistry*, *magazine*, *zenith*, and *zero*. And Persian has loaned us *chess*,

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checkers, lemon, paradise, and spinach. It is clear that English is a language that borrows freely from many sources.\textsuperscript{23}

2) Paragraph of Description

A second type of paragraph pattern is one in which something is described. This may be a physical description, as of a person or place, or it may be a description of a process, a step by step explanation of how something is done.\textsuperscript{24}

Example:

An octopus appears to be just a huge head with eight long, fearful arms. Its head is soft and rubberlike. Its eyes stick out on stalks so that it can see in all directions. Its mouth is on underside of its body and has powerful jaws shaped like a beak. The long arms, or tentacles, have double rows of suckers. These can fasten on to object with such suction that they cannot be pulled off.\textsuperscript{25}

3) Paragraph of Comparison and Contrast

A third type of paragraph pattern is one in which several things are compared or contrasted. Paragraph of this kind usually state the main ide. The things being demonstated as similar or different-in the first sentence. Then, the idea is developed in subsequent sentences, often with examp

Example:

There are two kinds of elephants-the African and the Indian. The African elephant is larger and darker; it also has larger ears and a more sloping forehead. Both can be tamed, but the Indian elephant is more easily trained to do work. When an African elephant sleeps, it usually stands up, but its Indian cousin usually sleeps lying down.\textsuperscript{27}

\textsuperscript{23} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{24} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{25} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{26} Ibid., p. 124.
\textsuperscript{27} Ibid.
4) **Paragraph of Analogy**

A fourth type of paragraph pattern is one which is organized around an analogy for the purpose of clarifying a particular point. In the following example, after a clearly stated topic sentence, the author compares a good prose style with a good runner. The analogy demonstrates the clear and direct writing that it describes.\(^{28}\)

**Example:**

The distinction between Newton’s and Einstein’s ideas about gravitation has sometimes been illustrated by picturing a little boy playing marbles in a city lot. The ground is very uneven, ridged with bumps and hollows. An observer in an office ten stories above the street would not be able to see these irregularities in the ground. Noticing that the marbles appear to avoid some sections of the ground and move toward other sections, he might assume that a “force” was operating which repelled the marbles from certain spots and attracted them to others. But another observer on the ground would instantly perceive that the path of the marbles was simply governed by the curvature of the field. In this analogy Newton is the upstairs observer who imagines a “force” is at work, and Einstein is the observer on the ground, who has no reason to make such an assumption.\(^{29}\)

5) **Paragraph of Definition**

In this fifth of paragraph pattern, the purpose is to define, explain, or clarify the meaning of something. Because of the nature of definition, it may involve analysis, comparison or contrast, description, or perhaps even an analogy.\(^{30}\)

**Example:**

A pupil is one who is under the close supervision of a teacher, either because of his youth or because of specialization in some branch of study. In England *pupil* is used to describe one in school, which means up through public schools such as Eton or Harrow, or through the secondary schools, equivalent to American high schools. In American *pupil* is now usually restricted to one who is

\(^{28}\) *Ibid.*  
\(^{29}\) *Ibid.*  
\(^{30}\) *Ibid.*
in an elementary school. Those called *pupils* regardless of age because of their specialization in some branch of study are designated by the subject they are studying, as art pupils, music pupils, etc.\(^{31}\)

### 4. Types of Writing

There are three types of writing will be explained below.\(^{32}\)

#### a. Expository Writing

In reality, there are two kinds of expository writing. The first kind is called informative and is used when you have only facts to communicate. The second kind of expository writing is called persuasive, sometimes referred to as argumentative. Persuasive expository writing is used to persuade the reader to change his/her mind or to accept your point of view. Persuasive writing allows you to express an opinion and then support it with convincing reasons. Informative expository writing deals with facts only. If you write a set of instructions for cleaning your automatic coffeepot, you are using informative writing. If you write the facts about a city, you are doing informative writing. Informative writing is very important in the world of work. Much of the writing that takes place in an office is informative: a letter ordering stationary, a report on a work-related accident. A memo about contributions to the social fund.\(^{33}\)

Here is an example of an informative paragraph.

The Bathurst Adult Learning Centre has been in existence for seven years. It was founded in 1991 by a group of citizens concerned about the large number of local people who had low literacy levels. Initially, the volunteer worked to raise public awareness with meetings, newspaper articles, and radio commercials. Then in 1992, the group learned of a provincial government program, Community

\(^{33}\) *Ibid.*
Academic services Program (CASP) designed to help volunteer organizations set up and run community based classroom for adults in need of literacy training. Today, classes are still held in the Donald Eddy Memorial Hall on St. Patrick Street in Bathurst. During the seven years of its existence, more than 200 students have been registered. Many of them have since been able to find work or have advanced to Senior Academic Upgrading at the Community College. The future looks bright for this locally run literacy initiative.\(^{34}\)

b. Narrative Writing

Narrative writing is the way to present a story that consists of events that happen one after the other. The story you tell can be true or fictional. Any time you relate actions that take place over a period of time you are writing a narrative.

Here are some of the requirements for writing a narrative.

1. Use the writing process, just as you did for expository writing.
2. The incident you tell should have a point to it (e.g. a story about a car accident might focus on what fear is like).
3. Use a narrator to tell the story.
4. Include lots of specific details. Give people and places names. (e.g. My friend Susan and I were driving to lake Simcoe when...)
5. Use quotations (dialogue) if it will make the story seem more real and believable.
6. Include transitions that show how time is passing or how people in the story are moving from place to place. (e.g. now, later, then, next Wednesday...nearby, turning left, after entering the room)\(^{35}\)

\(^{34}\) Ibid., p. 30.
\(^{35}\) Ibid., p. 30-31.
Here is an example of narrative paragraph.

Shimmering heat waves rose from the pavement as Susan and I rounded Suicide Corner just outside Milton. A loud pop under my right foot jolted me into awareness, and Susan said rather too calmly, “We’re in trouble.” The Mustang wobbled briefly from side to side. Foolishly, I thought that maybe she was just kidding around. Then, I saw the trees along the roadside rush closer. Everything went quiet as she wrestled the car back in line, but inexplicably we were heading for the opposite ditch. Three times, we slued across the highway, flirting with culverts and ditches, and I remember thinking how odd the absence of sound was and how I felt no fear at all. Suddenly, the seatbelt tightened across my chest, and we were sliding down an embankment into the right hand ditch; brush and tall grass rushed past and slapped against my window. I waited for the crash, but it didn’t come immediately. The Mustang teetered clumsily before I realized that we were going to roll. In slow motion, the grass and mud pushed up toward my face. I was pressed against my door with the handle cutting into my side when we stopped with a rending crash. Susan hung from her seatbelt and clutched the steering wheel to keep from crushing me. Sound returned to my world as she gasped, “I’m sorry, I’m sorry, I don’t know what happened.” Sweeping diamonds of glass from our faces, we struggled to release our seat belts and climb from the wreck. Standing on the roadside staring at the long snaking skid marks that passed within a whisper of a big old oak tree, fear washed over us.36

c. Descriptive Writing

The last kind of writing is descriptive. Descriptive writing is like painting a still life picture. The writer has a picture in his/her mind that he/she wants to communicate to the reader. The writer describes that picture by presenting specific details in an organized way (as viewed from right to left, or back to front, or top to bottom, etc.) Descriptive writing requires the use of specific details and vocabulary that carries a strong meaning.

Another aspect of writing good description is that the details the writer provides should appeal to as many of the five senses as possible. Human beings gather information about the world around them in only five ways, their five

36 Ibid., p. 31-32.
senses. In order to communicate information about a scene, the writer has to give
the reader the same kind of information he/she would get about it on his/her own.
That means that the writer must tell not only what he/she sees, but also what
he/she smells tastes, touches and hears.  

Here of an example descriptive paragraph.

From her office window, melinda looked out over the whole dreary town
of Burnhampton. The distant mountains stretching out against the grey winter sky
were like a slash of purple ribbon. In front of that, an equally drab line of trees
marked the sand spit which separated the ocean from the little ice-covered inner
harbour. In general, the colour of the whole scene was a pale shade of grey and it
mimicked the atmosphere not only of the town which surrounded the harbour but
also the outlook of its inhabitants. The town itself hugged the harbour as if it was
cowering away from the tangled forest which marched right up to the back doors
of the few houses that struggled beyond the townline. All the houses were laid out
neatly along the subdivision streets, each with its standard lawn and driveway
leading to a double garage. Each backyard had the regulation two trees which in
summer created just enough shade to shelter a barbeque and two lawn chairs. It
was as if the whole town of Burnhampton and its surroundings had been drained
of its colour like a patient who has bled to death.

C. Outline

1. Definition of Outline

An outline is an organization of related ideas. It is a method of grouping
together things that are similar in some selected way, then presenting them in a
simplified manner that clearly illustrates the relationship within each group and
among all of the groups. Preparing an outline is essentially a problem of

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37 Ibid., p. 34.
38 Ibid., p. 35.
classifying and organizing. It is necessary to understand in what ways objects, facts, or ideas are related to each other.\textsuperscript{39}

Outlines evolve from the processes of audience analysis, focusing, and content generation, and they should support your main idea or thesis statement. They can be formal outlines with Roman numerals and letters, or they can be more visual representations of your lines of thought. The point is to create a plan before writing the first draft, not during the process.\textsuperscript{40}

An outline is a formal system used to think and organize your paper. For example, you can use it to see whether your ideas connect to each other, what order of ideas works best, or whether you have sufficient evidence to support each of your points. Outlines can be useful for any paper to help you see the overall picture.\textsuperscript{41}

Based on the explained above, it can be concluded that outline is a method, system and process of organization ideas to connect related the each other.

2. Kinds of Outline

There are two kinds of outline. They are:\textsuperscript{42}

a. The Working Outline

The working outline or scratch outline or informal outline is a private affair-subject to constant revision, made without attention to form and finally tossed into the waste basked. A working outline usually begins with a few phrases

\begin{footnotes}
\item[40] Capella, \textit{The Writing Process}, Capella University, 2006, p. 20.
\item[42] Lilia Indriani, \textit{The Effectiveness of Clustering Technique in Improving Writing of the Third Year Students of SLTP Kristen 3}, p. 83-84.
\end{footnotes}
and some descriptive details or examples. From them grow fragmentary sentences, tentative generalizations, guesses. One or two of these take on prominence and are shaped into statements that seem worth developing. New e.g. bring to mind new ideas, and these find a place in the list of phrases, canceling out, some of the original ones. The writer keeps inserting and crossing out, juggling and shifting, until he has his keys points in an order that makes sense to him.

b. A Formal Outline

A formal outline is orderly and neat. It should follow certain conventions. One of the advantages of making a formal outline is that it can quickly show up a flaw in thesis statements. Two versions follow:

(1) A Topic Outline

It uses single words and phrases for headings. In the topic outline heads that are coordinate should be presented in matching grammatical structures. It is the usual choice in preparing short or medium-long papers.

(2) A Sentence Outline

It uses complete sentences for headings. It is always the best choice for long papers and especially for research papers, when you plan to ask your instructor for advice and criticism before proceeding with the project. Because the ideas are expressed in complete sentences, in consistencies and lapses in logical progression are more obvious in it.
3. The Benefit of Outline

Outline can help the author in the following things:

a. To arrange a composition regularly

Outline helps the writer to see the manifestation of ideas in a glance, so it can be ascertained whether the structure and interrelationships between ideas that are appropriate, whether the ideas that have been presented, harmonious in equivalence.

b. To facilitate the author creates a different climax

Each paper was developed leading to a climax certainly. Every section also has its own climax in parts. So, readers can continuously lured towards the main climax, then the arrangement of the parts must be disposed of anyway so wide so as to create different climax that can captivate the attention of the reader.

c. To avoid cultivating a topic to two times or more

There is possibly a part needs to be discussed twice or more, according to the needs of each part of the essay. But the cultivation of a topic till twice or more is not necessary. On the other hand working on a topic more than once just a waste of time, energy and materials. If it is unavoidable then the author must establish where the topic was to be described, while the others simply by pointing back to another section earlier.

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d. To easy writer to seek material helper

Using the details for the outline of the author will easily find the data or facts to clarify or prove the point. Or the data and facts that have been collected will be used for the parts which of the essay.

4. Writing an Outline

Before writing an outline, the student must go through the usual process of gathering ideas, editing them, and deciding on a topic for writing. Writing an outline can be a very useful way of organising the ideas and seeing how they will work together.44

To show how the ideas work together, number them. To avoid confusion, use several different types of numbers and letters to show the organization of the ideas. Use Roman numerals (I, II, III, IV, etc.) for main ideas, body paragraph and the conclusion. Write all of these first, before going into more detail anywhere.

I. Introduction
II. First main idea
III. Second main idea
IV. Third main idea
V. Conclusion

Next, fill in more information for the paragraphs in the main body by using capital Roman letters (A, B, C, etc.). Use one letter for each supporting idea in main body paragraph. Complete this information for each paragraph in the main body before going into more detail.

I. Introduction
   II. First main idea
      A. First supporting point

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B. Second supporting point
... and so on.

Finally, use Arabic numerals (1, 2, 3, etc.) to give details for supporting points. Not every supporting point will have details, and some points will have several. It is not important to have the same number of details for every supporting point.

I. Introduction
II. First main idea
   A. First supporting point
      1. First detail
      2. Second detail
   B. Second supporting point
      1. First detail
      2. Second detail
      ... and so on.

Example:

VITAMIN\textsuperscript{45}

\textbf{Topic sentence :} The vitamin are necessary for our body has six kinds.

\textbf{A. Vitamin A}

1. Vitamin A is the most important thing. \textit{For example}, it is necessary for growth, looking, skin and hair health.

2. We need 5000 IU for our body. \textit{For example}, it can be gained from milk, vegetables and eggs.

\textbf{B. Vitamin B12}

1. Vitamin B12 is also important for our brain. \textit{For example}, it is important to prevent anemia, and to help nerve health and to grow child better.

\textbf{C. Vitamin C}

1. Vitamin C has the important role, too. \textit{For example}, it is important for teeth and bone health.

2. We need it 60 mg per day. For example, it can be obtained from fruits, sour fruits, and also vegetables.

D. Vitamin D

1. Vitamin D is imperative for our body. For example, it helps us to form good teeth and help our body use calcium and phosphor.

2. We need it for about 400 IU. For example, we can gain it from milk, coat, salmon fish, and eggs.

E. Vitamin E

1. Vitamin E is also important for us. For example, it functions for blood fluency and prevent overweight.

2. We need it for approximately 30 IU. For example, we can obtain it from the foods such as vegetables oil, oat, rice, and lettuce.

F. Vitamin H

1. Vitamin H also plays important thing in our life. For example, it is necessary for carbohydrate, protein, and fat metabolism.

2. We need it for about 0.3 mg. For example, we can gain it from yellow eggs, green vegetables, milk, and heart.

Concluding sentence: In short, the vitamins is essential for our brain and body.

VITAMIN

The vitamin are necessary for our body has six kinds. First of all, vitamin A. Vitamin A is the most important thing. For example, it is necessary for growth, looking, skin and hair health. We need 5000 IU for our body. For example, it can be gained from milk, vegetables and eggs. Second, vitamin B12. Vitamin B12 is also important for our brain. For example, it is important to prevent anemia, and to help nerve health and to grow child better. Third, vitamin C. Vitamin C has the important role, too. For example, it is important for teeth and bone health. We need it 60 mg per day. For example, it can be obtained from fruits, sour fruits, and also vegetables. Then, vitamin D. Vitamin D is imperative for our body. For example, it helps us to form good teeth and help our body use calcium and phosphor. We need it for about 400 IU. For example, we can gain it from milk, coat, salmon fish, and eggs. Next, vitamin E. Vitamin E is also important for us. For example, it functions for blood fluency and prevent overweight. We need it for approximately 30 IU. For example, we can obtain it from the foods such as vegetables oil, oat, rice, and lettuce. Finally, vitamin H. Vitamin H also plays important thing in our life. For example, it is necessary for
carbohydrate, protein, and fat metabolism. We need it for about 0.3 mg. For example, we can gain it from yellow eggs, green vegetables, milk, and heart. In short, the vitamins is essential for our brain and body.

D. Teaching Writing Through Outlining

Alice Oshima and Ann Hogue stated that the best way to organize a paragraph is to make an outline before begin to write.46

There were some procedures to be followed in implementing the outlining technique in teaching writing.47 First, the students were introduced to the outlining technique. Second, they were guided to brainstorm any details about a certain topic. Third, they were assigned to make an outline the topic of which was based on their personal interest. Fourth, they were asked to revise their draft based on notes from researcher or their peer. Fifth, they underwent final editing before publishing their writing.

E. Scoring Method

In product assessment usually there are three methods to assess student’s writing. They are holistic scoring, primary trait scoring and analytic scoring.48 Firstly, holistic scoring. Holistic scoring is a quick method of evaluating a composition based on the reader’s general impression of the overall quality of the writing— you can generally read a student’s composition and assign a score to it in two or three minutes. Holistic scoring is usually based on a scale of 0–4, 0–5, or

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47 Sherlie Agustine, Teaching Writing Hortatory Exposition Through Outlining at The Eleventh Grade of SMAN 3, p. 10.
0–6. Scoring criteria usually consist of general guidelines for each score point. Secondly, primary trait scoring. Primary trait scoring which is also known as focused holistic scoring, is similar to holistic scoring, but it focuses on the most important characteristics of specific types of writing. This type of holistic scoring takes into account the differences between, for example, descriptive writing and persuasive writing. To use this approach, review the rubric for the type of writing in question before you begin scoring, and keep the criteria listed on the rubric in mind as you read and score each paper on a scale of 0–4. Finally, analytic scoring. Analytic scoring is based on an in-depth analysis of aspects of writing such as focus/organization, elaboration/support/style, and grammar, usage, and mechanics. Analytic scoring is usually based on a scale of 0–100 with each aspect receiving a portion of the total points. In the present study, the writer used product assessment with analytic scoring in evaluating the students’ final composition. It is assumed that analytic scoring method applied in the study based on a scale of 0-100 in each category of the total points.

Table 2.1
Table of Scoring Rubric

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>30-27</td>
<td>Excellent To Very Good</td>
<td>Knowledgeable, substantive, thorough development of thesis, relevant to assigned topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26-22</td>
<td>Good To Average</td>
<td>Some knowledge of subject, adequate range, limited development of thesis, mostly relevant to topic; but lacks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>21-17</th>
<th>Fair To Poor</th>
<th>Limited knowledge of subject, little substance, inadequate development of topic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16-13</td>
<td>Very Poor</td>
<td>Does not show knowledge of subject, non-substantive, not pertinent, or not enough to evaluate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>20-18</th>
<th>Excellent To Very Good</th>
<th>Fluent expression, ideas clearly stated/supported, succinct, well-organized, logical sequencing, cohesive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17-14</td>
<td>Good To Average</td>
<td>Somewhat choppy, loosely organized but main ideas stand out, limited support, logical but incomplete sequencing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13-10</td>
<td>Fair To Poor</td>
<td>Non-fluent, ideas confused or disconnected, lacks logical sequencing and development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9-7</td>
<td>Very Poor</td>
<td>Does not communicate, no organization, or not enough to evaluate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Use</th>
<th>25-22</th>
<th>Excellent To Very Good</th>
<th>Effective complex constructions, few errors of agreement; tense; number;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mechanics</td>
<td>Good To Average</td>
<td>Effective but simple constructions, minor problems in complex constructions, several errors of agreement; tense; number; word order/function; articles; pronouns; prepositions; meaning seldom obscured</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-18</td>
<td>17-11 Fair To Poor</td>
<td>Major problems in simple/complex constructions, frequent errors of negation; agreement; tense; number; word order/function; articles; pronouns; prepositions and/or fragments; run-ons; deletions, meaning confused or obscured</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-5</td>
<td>Very Poor</td>
<td>Virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules, dominated by errors, does not communicate, or not enough to evaluate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Excellent To very Good</td>
<td>Demonstrates mastery of conventions, few errors of spelling; punctuation; capitalization; paragraphing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Good To Average</td>
<td>Occasional errors of spelling; punctuation; capitalization; paragraphing but meaning not obscured</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Fair To Poor</td>
<td>Frequent errors of spelling; punctuation; capitalization; paragraphing, poor handwriting, meaning confused or obscured</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Very Poor</td>
<td>No mastery of conventions, dominated by errors of spelling; punctuation; capitalization; paragraphing, handwriting illegible, or not enough to evaluate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
F. An Experiment Study

An experiment is a scientific investigation in which the researcher manipulates one or more independent variables, controls any other relevant variables, and observes the effect of the manipulations on the dependent variable(s). An experimenter deliberately and systematically introduces change and then observes the consequences of that change. Only research problems that permit a researcher to manipulate conditions are appropriate for experimental research. The goal of experimental research is to determine whether a causal relationship exists between two or more variables. Because the experiment involves control and careful observation and measurement, this research method provides the most convincing evidence of the effect that one variable has on another.50 The essential requirements for experimental research are control, manipulation of the independent variable, and observation and measurement.51

1. Control

Control of variables is the essence of the experimental method. When a study is completed, researchers want to attribute the outcome to the experimental treatment. To do this, they must eliminate all other possible explanations by controlling the influence of irrelevant variables. Without control it is impossible to evaluate unambiguously the effects of an independent variable or to make inferences about causality.52

51 Ibid., p. 267.
52 Ibid.
2. Manipulation

The manipulation of an independent variable is a deliberate operation performed by the experimenter. In educational research and other behavioral sciences, the manipulation of an independent variable involves setting up different treatment conditions. Treatment is another word for the experimental manipulation of the independent variable. The different treatment conditions administered to the subjects in the experiment are the levels of the independent variable.  

3. Observation and Measurement

After applying the experimental treatment, the researcher observes to determine if the hypothesized change has occurred. Some changes can be observed directly, whereas other changes are measured indirectly. Learning, for example, is often the dependent variable in educational research. Researchers cannot measure learning directly. They can only estimate learning through scores on an achievement test or other measures chosen according to the operational definition. Therefore, strictly speaking, the dependent variable is observed scores rather than learning per se.  

G. The t Test

T test is a statistical procedure for testing hypotheses concerning the difference between two means; also used for other purposes. There are two statistical test of t test. First, t test for independent samples. The t test for

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54 Ibid., p. 269.  
55 Ibid., p. 652.
independent samples is the difference between the mean of the group taught by method B and the group taught by method A (X_B - X_A). The t test for independent samples is a straightforward ratio that divides the observed difference between the means by the difference expected through chance alone.\(^{56}\) Next, t test for dependent samples. T test for dependence samples, investigators may wish to match the subjects of their two groups on some qualities that are important to the purpose of their research, or they may wish to compare the means obtained from the same subjects under two different experimental conditions. This test is also known as the correlated, or nonindependent, or paired t test.\(^{57}\) In the present study, the writer used t test for dependent sample of the study. In the case, the subject have correlated. It meant that pre test and post test scores of the same individuals must use of paired score. Paired score is used to analyze the mean difference of the subject.

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\(^{56}\) Ibid., p. 171.
\(^{57}\) Ibid., p. 176.