CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter covers: (a) Concept of writing, (b) Genre, (c) Recount Text, (d) Using Technique of Basic Questioning with Picture Technique, (e) Picture, (f) Procedure teaching writing using basic questioning with picture, (g) Motivation, (h) Experiment Study, (i) Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test.

A. Concept of Writing

1. Definition of Writing

Writing is one of four skill besides listening, speaking and reading. writing is a process that what people write is often heavily influenced by the constraints of genres, and then these elements have to be presented in learning activities.\(^1\) Writing is intellectual and exhibitionism.\(^2\) Writing is the act of putting letters, symbols, numbers or words on paper or a computer screen. Writing is the activity or occupation of writing e.g. Books, stories or articles. Writing is the representation of language in a textual medium through the use of sign of symbols.\(^3\) Writing is used to express and explain ideas.\(^4\)

According the statement, the writer defined that writing is a activity to express ideas of mind and produce a language by written in a text included symbols consists a word to words, phrase, sentence to sentences, paragraph to paragraphs that coherence and unity.

\(^1\) Jeremy Harmer, *How to Teach*, p.31.
\(^3\) AS Hornby, *Oxford Advanced*, p.1383
2. **Writing Process & Requisite for Good Writing**

   Generally the writing process consists of three stages:\(^5\)

   a. Prewriting

   In prewriting stage, it thinks about topic and organize ideas. Prewriting is the thinking, talking, reading, and writing about topic before writing a first draft. It is a way to warm up before writing. There are some ways to warm up before writing:

   a) Brainstorming

   This is a quick way to organize many ideas on a subject. It aims to organize or to make a list as many ideas as possible without worrying about how to use them. It can includes words, phrases, sentences. to warm up, there are several stages:

   (a) Start with a broad topic

   (b) Write down as many ideas about the topic

   (c) Add more items to the list by answering the questions *what, when, where, why, who and how.*

   (d) Make into groups similar item on the list together

   (e) Throw out items that do not belong

   b) Clustering

   Clustering is another prewriting technique. It is a visual way of showing how ideas are connected using circles and lines. Clustering is an activity of drawing the ideas. To cluster, there are some stages:

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(a) Write the topic in the center of a blank piece of paper and draw a circle around it.

(b) Write any ideas that come into mind about the topic in circles around the main circle.

(c) Connect these ideas to the center word with a line.

(d) Think about each of new ideas, write more related ideas in circles near the new ideas, and then connect them.

(e) Repeat this process until the ideas run out.

When write the first draft of the paragraph, the ideas generated from prewriting used as a guide. When writing a paragraph, remember to: Begin with a topic sentence that states the main idea, include several sentences that support the main idea, stick to the topic – do not include information that does not directly support the main idea, arrange the sentences so that the order of ideas makes sense, use signal words to help the reader understand how the ideas in paragraph are connected.

c) Revising

It is almost impossible to write a perfect paragraph on the first time. After completing the first draft, a writer must look for ways to improve it. This step is called revising. When revising paragraph, we can do the following:

(a) Add new ideas to support the topic.

(b) Cross out sentences that do not support the topic.

(c) Change the order of the sentences.
There are several process writing based on Johnson.\(^6\)

a) *Step 1: Prewriting.*

The goal here is to generate ideas. Listing, brainstorming, outlining, silent thinking, conversation with a neighbor, or power writing (described below) are all ways to generate ideas.

b) *Step 2: Drafting.*

Drafting is the writer’s first attempt to capture ideas on paper. Quantity here is valued over quality. If done correctly, the draft is a rambling, disconnected accumulation of ideas. Most of the writing activities in the classroom involve just these first two steps. Only those drafts that students feel are interesting or of value should be taken to the next step.

c) *Step 3: Revising.*

This is the heart of the writing process. Here a piece is revised and reshaped many times. The draft stage is like throwing a large blob of clay on the potter’s wheel. Revising is where you shape the blob, adding parts, taking parts away, adding parts, and continually molding and changing. Here you look for flow and structure. You reread paragraphs and move things around.

d) *Step 4: Editing.*

This is the stage where grammar, spelling, and punctuation errors are corrected. A word of caution: The quickest way to ruin a good writing project or damage a writer is to insist that step 4 be included in step 1, 2, or 3. If writers are editing or worrying about mechanics at the prewriting, drafting, and revising

stages, the flow of ideas and the quality of writing suffers. Precious brain space that is devoted to generating and connecting ideas will instead be utilized worrying about writing mechanics.

According to statement above, the writer can defined that in writing process there are several, in the first step is creating ideas. Next, organizing ideas. After that, is writing rough draft. And the last, is editing a rough draft and make revisions.

A paragraph is a basic unit of organization in writing in which a group of related sentences develops one main idea. The number of sentences is unimportant; however, the paragraph should be long enough to develop the main idea clearly. A paragraph has three major structural parts: a topic sentence (the main idea of the paragraph), supporting sentences (develop the topic sentence by giving reasons, examples, etc), and a concluding sentence (the end of the paragraph and leaves the reader with important point to remember).7

In writing a good paragraph, we should concern three things, they are:

a) Unity

Unity is an important element of a good paragraph. Every good paragraph has unity, which means that in each paragraph, only one main idea is discussed. If you start to discuss a new idea, begin a new paragraph.8 The unity is synonymous with oneness. It means oneness to express the ideas in one paragraph. All sentences in a paragraph should state on the one thing in the topic sentence. All of the sentences stick together.

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8 Ibid., p.29.
b) Coherence

Another element of good paragraph is coherence. The verb *cohere* means “hold together”. In order to have coherence in writing, the movement from one sentence to the next must be logical and smooth. Each sentence should flow smoothly into the next one. There are four ways to achieve coherence, they are: using repetition of key nouns, using pronouns which refer back to key nouns, using transition signals to show how one idea is related to the next, and using logical order.9

In order to have good writing skill, there are two important things that must be concerned. They are background knowledge and linguistic knowledge. Background knowledge related to the principles and theories how to write itself, and linguistic knowledge related to the use of punctuations, spelling, diction and grammar correctly.

3. **Principles for Teaching Writing and Teaching Writing for Junior High School**

The following are a few principles that every teacher should consider while planning a course, whether it is a writing course, or a course in which writing will play a part. These principles can be adapted to the many different learning situations.10

a) Understand the students’ reasons for writing

The greatest dissatisfaction with writing instruction comes when the teacher’s goals do not match the student’s, or when the teacher’s goals do not match those

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9 Ibid., p.39
of the school or institution in which the student work. It is important to understand both and to convey goals to students in ways that make sense to them.

b) Provide many opportunities for students to write

Writing almost always improves with practice. Writing is a part of physical activities that requires practice. Practice writing should provide students with different types of writing as well. Short responses to a reading, journal entries, letter writing, summaries, poetry, or any type of useful writing should be practiced in class. So the teacher should provide many opportunities for students to write in order to the students will become more comfortable with the act of writing.

c) Make feedback helpful and meaningful

Students need feedback on their writing. If the teacher write comments on students’ papers, make sure that the students understand the vocabulary or symbols used. Take time to discuss them in class. The teacher should be cautious about the tone of comments. The comments or feedbacks should be helpful and meaningful for the students writing.

d) Clarify for yourself, and for your students, how their writing will be evaluated

Students often feel that the evaluation of their writing is completely subjective. Students can help to form a rubric as well. Take class time to ask them what they value in writing. Ask them what features make writing enjoyable to read and what features distract from that enjoyable. This kind of discussion has two benefits: it not only gives students a voice in the evaluation of their own
work, it also provides a common vocabulary with which the entire class can
discuss their writing and the writing of others.

Writing is a good way for students who learn English. It related that writing
as one of the four language skills has always formed part of the syllabus in the
teaching of English. Writing has always been used as a means of reinforcing
language that has been taught.\textsuperscript{11} Teaching writing for Junior High School is not an
easy job, because the range of age of Junior High School students varies between
thirteen to fifteen years old. They can be named teenagers. Teens are in between
childhood and adulthood, so it is the period of transition and growing. In this
period, they will experience the confusion, self-consciousness, and changing
bodies and minds. They will be very sensitive to how others perceive their
changing physical and emotional selves along with their mental capabilities. One
of the most important concerns of the secondary school teacher is to keep self-
esteeem high by:\textsuperscript{12}

a. Avoiding embarrassment of students at all costs.

b. Affirming each person’s talents and strengths

c. Allowing mistakes and other errors to be accepted

d. De-emphasizing competition between classmates

e. Encouraging small-group work where risks can be taken more easily by a teen.

\textsuperscript{11} Jeremy Harmer, \textit{How to Teach}, p.31-32.

\textsuperscript{12} H. Douglas Brown, \textit{Teaching by Principles an Interactive Approach to Language
B. Genre

1. Definition of Genre

Genre is used to refer to particular text-types, not to traditional varieties of literature. It is a type or kind of text that has social purposes, generic structure and language feature. Genre is one of the most important and influential concept in language education. Genre can be defined as a culturally specific text type which results from using language (written or spoken) to (help) accomplish something. Genre is used to refer to particular text-types, not to traditional varieties of literature. It is a type or kind of text, defined in terms of its social purposes; also the level of context dealing with social purpose. So genres are cultural specific and have associated with: particular purposes, particular stages and particular linguistic features.

2. Kind of Genre

There are fifteen kinds of genre, they are:

(a) Recount is a kind of genre used to retell events for the purpose of informing or entertaining.

(b) Narrative is a kind of genre used to amuse, to entertain and to deal with actual or various experiences in different ways.

(c) News story is a factual text which informs reader’s events of the day which are considered newsworthy or important.

(d) Exemplum is a kind of genre used to deal with incidents that are in some respects out of the usual, point to some general values in the cultural context.

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(e) Anecdote is a kind of genre used to share with others an account of an unusual or amusing incident.

(f) Spoof is a kind of genre used to retell an event with a humorous twist.

(g) Procedure is a kind of genre used to describe how something is accomplished through a sequence of actions or steps.

(h) Explanation is a kind of genre used to explain the processes involved in the formation or workings of natural or socio-cultural phenomena.

(i) Report is a kind of genre used to describe the way things are, with reference to arrange or natural, manmade and social phenomena in our environment.

(j) Analytical exposition is a kind of genre used to persuade the reader or listener to take action on some matter.

(k) Discussion is a kind of genre used to present (at least) two points of view about an issue.

(l) Description is a kind of genre used to describe a particular person, place or thing.

(m) Review is a kind of genre used to critique an art work or event for a public audience.

(n) Commentary is a kind of genre used to explain the processes involved in the information (evolution) of a social-cultural phenomenon, as though a natural phenomenon.

(o) Hortatory exposition is a kind of genre used to persuade the reader or listener that something should or should not be the case.
C. Recount Text

1. Definition of Recount

In English language, there are two texts that can be mentioned as a genre. The first genre is story genre that contains narrative, news story, exemplum, anecdote and recount. The second genre is factual genre containing procedure, explanation, report, exposition, and discussion. Recount text is one of genre stories. Speaking or writing about past events is called a recount. A recount is a piece of text that retells past events, usually the order in which they happened, the purpose of a recount to give the audience a description of what occurred and when it occurred.

A recount is a text that contains retelling events that happened in the past. A recount text usually uses the past tense and past continuous tense in its content and its sequence of events told. Its generic structure is the orientation, series of events, and re-orientation. The orientation is a part of recount text that tells the introduction of the interesting event being told. The series of event is the sequence of things that happen from the beginning until the end. Lastly, a re-orientation is the feeling and impression after doing the events.

Recount text has some examples such as newspaper reports, conversations, speeches, television interviews, eyewitness accounts, and letters.

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19 Mark Anderson and Kathy Anderson, Text Type, p. 49.
2. **Generic Structure and Grammatical Features**

The steps for constructing a written recount are:  

a. A first paragraph that gives background information about who, what, where and when (called orientation)

b. A series of paragraphs that retell the events in the order in which they happened.

c. A concluding paragraph (not always necessary).

The language features usually found in recount are:  

a. Proper nouns to identify those involved in the text.

b. Descriptive words to give details about who, what, when, where and how.

c. The use of the past tense to retell the events.

d. Words that show the order of events (for example, *first, next, then*).

The common grammatical features of recount text are:  

a. Use of nouns and pronouns to identify people, animals, things involved

b. Use of actions verbs to refer to events

c. Use of past tense to locate events in relation to speaker’s or writer’s time

d. Use of conjunctions and time connectives to sequence of events

e. Use of adverb and adverbial phrase to indicate place and time

f. Use of adjective to describe nouns

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Here the example of recount text:

**Our Trip to the Blue Mountain**

**Orientation**
On Friday we went to the Blue Mountains. We stayed at David and Della’s house. It has a big garden with lots of colorful flowers and a tennis court.

**Event 1**
On Saturday we saw the Three Sisters and went on the scenic railway. It was scary. Then, Mummy and I went shopping with Della. We went to some antique shops and I tried on some old hats.

**Event 2**
On Sunday we went on the Scenic Skyway and it rocked. We saw cockatoos having a shower.

**Reorientation**
In the afternoon we went home.

**D. Basic Questioning Technique with Picture.**

1. **Definition of Question**

   According to Oxford Learner’s Pocket Dictionary, question is sentence, phrase, etc that asks for information. A question may be either a linguistic expression used to make a request for information, This information may be provided with an answer. Question is sentence, phrase or gesture that is used to get or ask information about the topic. To guide students on the learning process, it is essential to question on learning outcome (content) as well as students’ thinking and learning processes. So, it said that question is a technique to get or ask information regularly about the topic that consist of sentence and phrase.

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2. **Basic Questioning Technique Teaching Writing.**

There are two techniques in teaching writing, namely controlled and free writing. Controlled writing consists of five techniques namely controlled composition, question and answer, guided composition, sentence combining, and parallel writing, while free writing refers to writing activity which is not strictly controlled.

a) Controlled Writing Technique

Controlled writing Technique as a technique of teaching writing by controlling the students’ freedom of expression in his written work. Controlled writing technique is a technique used by the teacher for teaching writing in which great deal of the content of form is supplied to his students. For example, teacher gives an outline to complete a paragraph to manipulate, or a passage to continue.

According to the statement above, it can conclude that controlled writing is a technique of teaching writing that is implemented to control the students’ freedom expression in his written work. The technique will apply by giving controlled pattern exercises such as completion, rearrangement, or giving some language used in composing written text.

Raimes divides controlled writing technique into five different types. They are controlled composition, question and answer, guided composition, sentence combining, and parallel writing. They are describes as follow as:

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27 Giyatno, *Improving Students’,* p.149.
29 Ann Raimes, *Teaching Writing Technique*, p.95
a. Controlled composition deals with the teacher control which the students are given a passage to be manipulated, so they can produce a new composition without concerning themselves with content, finding ideas, and forming sentences.\(^{30}\)

b. Question and answer is the type of writing composition using question and answer format to allow the students a little more freedom of constructing sentences.

c. Guided composition is the extension of the controlled composition which give students some but not all the content and form of the sentences they will use.

d. Sentence combining is the combination of the simple sentences into a longer compound or complex sentence.\(^{31}\)

e. Parallel writing is a kind of controlled writing technique where students read and study a passage and then write their own or similar theme using vocabulary, sentence structure and organization of model passage as a guide.\(^{32}\)

b) Free Writing Technique

Free writing is limited to structuring sentences, often in direct answer to questions, the result of which looked like a short piece of discourse, usually a paragraph in technique, the students are not strictly controlled. They are given opportunity to express their ideas and to tell a story. However, their freedom is guided. It means that the teacher sets the genre. They may write their own stories and topic as long as it has generic structure shown in competence-based

\(^{30}\) Ann Raimes, *Teaching Writing Technique*, p.97

\(^{31}\) *Ibid.*, 107

\(^{32}\) *Ibid.*, 109
curriculum. For example the student may write experiences, but their writing should consists orientation, events and closure events.

c) Basic Questioning Technique

Questioning technique is a technique in the teaching of writing in which students are given a series of question given, they can combine their answer into a simple paragraph. It is used in writing a recount paragraph in each cycle of the action.\(^\text{33}\)

Question and answer format is one of the controlled writing types that encourages students a little more freedom in structuring sentences. The students are not given the actual text that they will write, rather they are given in series of questions, and the answers are the students’ guidance in structuring paragraph.\(^\text{34}\)

Ur states that there are various reasons why a teacher might ask questions in the classroom. One of the reasons is to encourage self-expression of students. It means that question enable students to express their idea, opinions, and thoughts though oral or written form.

4) Types of Questioning Technique.

There are two basic types of questions according to Frazee and Rose. They are as follows.\(^\text{35}\)

a) Convergent

Answer to these types of questions are usually within a very finite range of acceptable accuracy. These may be at several different levels of cognition-

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\(^{33}\) Giyatno, *Improving Students’*, p.27.

\(^{34}\) Ann Raimes, *Teaching Writing Technique*, p.115.

\(^{35}\) Giyatno, *Improving Students’*, p.28.
comprehension, application, analysis, or one where he makes inferences or conjectures based on personal awareness, or on material read, presented or known.

b) Divergent

These questions allow students to explore different avenues and create many different variations and alternative answers or scenarios. Correctness may be based on logical projections, may be contextual, or arrived at thought basic knowledge, conjecture, inference, projection, creation, intuition, or imagination. These types of question often require students to analyze, synthesize or evaluate a knowledge base and then project or predict different outcomes. Answering these types of questions generally fall into wide array of acceptability. After correctness is determine subjectively based on possibility or probability. Often the intent of these types of questions is to stimulate imaginative cause and effective relationship.

E. Procedure Teaching Writing Using Basic Questioning with picture

According to Ni’mah stated based on her research before about ‗the effect technique of using basic questioning with picture to improve the students’ descriptive writing skill that questioning is a key aspect of the teaching and learning process.\(^{36}\) Then, she states that the use of basic questioning with picture is to give a stimulus to make the students get an idea about the lesson that will be discussed. The teacher starts the lesson from the easiest to the most difficult one and the main point of this method is that the teacher gives stimulus in order the students will give feedbacks from some questions that are given by the teacher,

\(^{36}\) Ulin Ni’mah, \textit{The Effectiveness}, p. 26
and the teacher can lead them to think more, or we can say writing by guiding them using basic questioning with picture.\textsuperscript{37} So, based on this theory, the writer will do a research to find out the effect basic questioning technique with picture towards students’ writing skill of recount text.

Ni’mah also stated that the teachers can use the basic questioning to stimulate the students in order to involve them in the teaching learning activity, there are \textsuperscript{38}

1. Prewriting

First of all, the teacher is better to ask some questions related to the topic and give brainstorming to make a list as many ideas as possible without worrying about how to use them. They can include words phrases, sentences, or even question. To brainstorm, there are some steps:

(a) Begin with a broad topic.

(b) Write down as many ideas about the topic.

(c) Add more items to the list by answering the questions \textit{what, how, when, where, why, and who}.

(d) Group similar items on the list together.

(e) Cross out items that do not belong.

Then the teacher may ask the students to share their experience with their friends and discuss it together.

2. Whilst Writing

After that, the teacher explains about the material itself. Those activities will make all the students have a guideline in writing related material, so it will make

\begin{footnotesize}
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\item \textsuperscript{37} Ibid., p.28
\item \textsuperscript{38} Ibid., p. 23-24
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the lesson more effective and interesting. Give an example first, and then give some questionings. Ni’mah stated that the use of basic questioning is to give a stimulus to make the students get an idea about the lesson that will be discussed. The teacher starts the lesson from the easiest to the most difficult one. So there is a systematic pattern that is used by the teacher. When write the first draft of the paragraph, the ideas generated from prewriting used as a guide. When writing a paragraph, remember to:

1) Begin with a topic sentence that states the main idea.

2) Include several sentences that support the main idea

3) Stick to the topic – do not include information that does not directly support the main idea.

4) Arrange the sentences so that the order of ideas makes sense.

5) Use signal words to help the reader understand how the ideas in paragraph are connected.

3. Revising

After completing the first draft, a writer must look for ways to improve it. This step is called revising. When revising paragraph, we can do the following:

1) Add new ideas to support the topic.

2) Cross out sentences that do not support the topic.

3) Change the order of the sentences.
There are six step building sentences using questioning.\(^{39}\)

**STEP 1**

A subject (who? or what?) and a verb (did?) are provided. The direct object of the verb is introduced through the questioning procedure of asking what? or whom?. Use “action” verbs that require a direct object. Linking verbs, such as is, am, are, was, and were, etc., do not show action – they “link” the subject with a describing word. i.e. *That house is gray*. “Gray” describes the subject, so there is no direct object in the sentence. Also, the previously listed verbs can be used as helping verbs, i.e. *The paint is peeling*. In this sentence, “is peeling” is a verb phrase; again there is no direct object.

**STEP 2**

This step introduces the idea of adjectives by asking which?, whose? or how many? before the subject of the sentence. Start with teaching which?: *The boss, Those big men, The baseball fans*. Then add the question, whose?: *Your uncle, My friend*. After that you can combine the two questions: *Our gray cat, His old car*. Next can follow how many? With numbers and with words such as some and several: *Six girls, Several boys*. Last, teach learners that any number of these describing words can be used in front of the subject: *Her three tall sons*.

**STEP 3**

Through the question how? students learn an important sentence feature without having to know the term “adverb”. The how? of a sentence will always tell something about the verb. The easiest way to introduce this idea is to use words

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that end with –ly, i.e. quickly, slowly, softly, merrily, etc.. Students should be taught that how? can be moved around in a sentence: *Softly she sang the song.* (or) *She sang the song softly.* Prepositional phrases also can answer the question how?: *He closed the door with a bang.*

**STEP 4**

The idea of where? is taught without using difficult phrasing such as “prepositional phrases used as adverbs,” etc.

**STEP 5**

In this step prepositional phrases are used to answer the question when?.

**STEP 6**

“Because” or “because of” can be used to introduce the concept of why?. *She was late because her car wouldn’t start.* More advanced phrases, such as infinitive or prepositional, may also be used to answer the question why?. *He wanted to read to learn more about cars.* *She went to the library for a special presentation.*

**F. Picture**

**1. Definition of Picture**

Media are kinds of substances that are used by a teacher during teaching and learning process to support the presentation of the lesson. Media have important roles in teaching and learning process. Students’ motivation can be increased by using media in teaching. Picture is one of graphic media in teaching learning. Graphic media is combination of fact and concept clearly and strongly included a combination act of learning words and picture.\(^{40}\) The function of media is to send

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messages’ learning. Graphic media also defined as visual media that provides information or message related period, lines, pictures, or the others symbols. It purpose to give description certain ideas, data, condition or events that happened. Graphic Media is called two dimension (2D). There are several kinds of Graphic media are chart, diagram, poster, map, cartoon, newspaper/magazine, book.

Picture is visual tool that easy to get it. because, it gives visual description concretely about problem which complicate. Picture is visual media included lines, squiggles, perception or human opinion toward an object or specific items. Picture is defined as visual representation of person, object, or scene, as a painting, drawing, or photograph. Pictures can be in the for of flash cards, large wall pictures, photographs, or illustration. The writer can concludes that, picture included as like as art. It is not mean that art can expression of feeling such as emotions, fury, anxiousness etc. for example when you scream louder and then you express to write in a paper, it is not art. It just express through instinct.

2. Types of Picture And Function of Picture

a) Types of Picture

According to Jeremy Harmer, pictures can be in form of flashcard, large wall pictures, cue cards, photographs or illustrations, and projected slide.

(a) Flashcard

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41 Ibid., p.1.
42 Ibid., p.62
It is a small card which we can hold up for students to see. Flashcard is particularly useful for “drilling” grammar items, for cueing different sentences, or practicing vocabulary.

(b) Large wall picture

It is big enough for everyone to see detail. Sometimes teachers use large wall pictures when pointing to detail of a picture to elicit response.

(c) Cue card

It is a small card which students use in pairs or group work. Teachers put students in pairs of groups and give them some cards so that when a student picks up the top cue card in a pile he or she will say a sentence that the card suggests.

(d) Photograph or illustration

It is a photo or an image that depicts a situation or people in action. The teacher uses it to make the situation or the action clear. Photograph can be found in the book, newspaper, magazine, etc.

(e) Projected slide.

In multimedia class, some teachers also use it to teach. Sometimes the teacher uses it to show the images in the big form. Among the teaching media, pictures are the common media to be used. There are three kinds of pictures that are used in teaching and learning process, they are:46

a. Picture of individual person and individual objects.

b. Pictures of situation in which person are “doing something”.

c. A series of pictures on the paper.

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46 Ulin Ni’mah, The Effectiveness, p. 27.
Pictures is one of the variety of teaching aids which is used to explain language meaning construction, engage students in a topic, or as the basis of a whole activity. In teaching listening, teachers can use pictures whether drawn, taken from books, newspaper and magazine, or photographs to facilitate learning.  

Media are kinds of substances that are used by a teacher during teaching and learning process to support the presentation of the lesson. Media have important roles in teaching and learning process. Students’ motivation can be increased by using media in teaching.

It can conclude that the function of picture is a media to help teacher in teaching learning and to support process to present material in teaching learning in order reach visual sense to give motivation more in teaching learning process.

b) The Principles of media selection

According to brown, there are principles of media selection

(a) Content

Do the media have significant relation with the lesson? The choice of certain media must be conformed to the lesson (message) that will be given to the students.

(b) Purposes

The use of visual aids should contribute to the teaching learning process significantly. It means that the media can facilitate the teaching learning process.

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(c) Price

Before buying certain visual aids, a teacher should consider whether or not the cost or money spent is in accordance with the educational result derived from its use.

(d) Circumstances of Use

In choosing visual aids, a teacher should take into account the environment (school) where he/she teaches. He/she should think whether or not the aid would function effectively in environment.

(e) Learners’ Verification

A teacher must think whether or not there are data providing that the students learnt accurately through the use of learning aids.

From the explanation above, it should be better if the teacher follows all the principles, so that the teaching and learning process can go on normally and the goal of teaching and learning process can be reached.

G. Motivation

A person who feels no impetus or inspiration to act is thus characterized as unmotivated, whereas someone who is energized or activated toward an end is considered motivated. 50 According to Given statement that motivation is attributions made about ability, another that discusses motivation as a socially constructed phenomenon, and another that proposes that motivation is the result of

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reinforcements from authority figures. Good writing comes from complex sources: intense motivation and sensibility, passion and cultural curiosity, from energy and craft (Malcolm Bradbury, 1998). Motivation is the reason for a character’s behavior and attitudes. Motivation is some kind of internal drive which pushed someone does things in order to achieve something. Motivation is extend to which you make choices about goals to pursue and the effort you will devote to that pursuit. Personal motivation comes from within—you are motivated from the inside out—when someone “makes” you do something, your goal is to get the other person to leave you alone.

From statement above, the writer defined that motivation is to do something to reach the purpose without forced by anyone that influence character, ability and attitudes and usually it comes by inspiration. According to Dornyei’s book, in self-determination theory that focus on various types of intrinsic and extrinsic, has been one of the most influential approaches in motivational psychology, and several attempts have been made in the L2 field to incorporate certain elements of the theory to explain L2 motivation. Cognitive psychologists divided motivation into intrinsic and extrinsic.

53 Adele Ramet, Creative Writing(how to unclock your imagination, develop your writing skill-and get published), (UK:howtobooks,2007), 7th Ed.,p.178.
57 Zoltan Dornyei, The Psychology, p.76.
1. **Intrinsic Motivation**

Intrinsic motivation results in high-quality learning and creativity, it is especially important to detail the factors and forces that engender versus undermine it.\(^{58}\) Intrinsic motivation is defined as the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence. When intrinsically motivated, a person is moved to act for the fun or challenge entailed rather than because of external prods, pressures, or rewards. The phenomenon of intrinsic motivation was first acknowledged within experimental studies of animal behavior, where it was discovered that many organisms engage in exploratory, playful, and curiosity-driven behaviors even in the absence of reinforcement or reward. These spontaneous behaviors, although clearly bestowing adaptive benefits on the organism, appear not to be done for any such instrumental reason, but rather for the positive experiences associated with exercising and extending ones capacities.\(^ {59}\)

The CET (Cognitive Evaluation Theory) aspect of SDT suggests that classroom and home environments can facilitate or forestall intrinsic motivation by supporting versus thwarting the needs for autonomy and competence. However, it is critical to remember that intrinsic motivation will occur only for activities that hold intrinsic interest for an individual—those that have the appeal of novelty, challenge, or aesthetic value for that individual. For activities that do not hold such appeal, the principles of CET do not apply. To understand the

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58 Richard M. Ryan and Edward L. Deci, *Intrinsic and Extrinsic*, p.2
59 *ibid.*, p.2.
motivation for activities that are not experienced as inherently interesting, we need to look more deeply into the nature and dynamics of extrinsic motivation.\textsuperscript{60}

Self-Determination Theory is specifically framed in terms of social and environmental factors that \textit{facilitate} versus \textit{undermine} intrinsic motivation. In \textit{definition operational} related motivation intrinsic and extrinsic, that if there is no extrinsic reason to do the task (e.g., no reward and no approval), then the more time they spend with the target task, the more intrinsically motivated they are for that task.\textsuperscript{61}

According to Noel statement that intrinsic motivation refers to the reasons for the second are obtained from a person’s inbuilt joy and interest in the activity as well as the spontaneous satisfaction that come with it. When people are intrinsically motivated, they will get involved in activities or task that interest them willingly and they do not need material rewards or restrants.\textsuperscript{62}

Deci and Ryan when they mentioned that if someone is intrinsically motivated in learning, the quality of the learning will improve, those conditions that are autonomy supporting and informational will promote more effective learning as well as enhanced intrinsic motivation and self esteem\textsuperscript{63} Personal motivation comes from within you are motivated from the inside out when someone “makes” you do something, your goal is to get the other person to leave you alone.\textsuperscript{64}

\textsuperscript{60} Ibid., p.7-8.
\textsuperscript{61} Ibid., p.5.
\textsuperscript{63} Richard M. Ryan and Edward L. Deci, Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation, p.8.
\textsuperscript{64} Bob Sullo, Activating Desire, p.1.
Penny Ur defines intrinsic motivation as a common desire to learn for oneself. She also claims that it is tied to pupils’ previous attitudes, i.e. they consider learning useful, or they have positive respect towards the target language and to its cultural, political and ethnic components.\(^{65}\)

From the statement above, the writer define that intrinsic motivation is the result of part of nature without to force by anything but it refers to do something by inside of awareness by self.

1. Extrinsc Motivation

*Extrinsic motivation* is a construct that pertains whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome. Extrinsic motivation thus contrasts with intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing an activity simply for the enjoyment of the activity itself, rather than its instrumental value.\(^{66}\) Extrinsic is not belonging naturally to sb/sth: coming from or existing outside.\(^{67}\) SDT (Self-Determination Theory) proposes that extrinsic motivation can vary greatly in the degree to which it is autonomous.\(^{68}\) External regulation is the only kind of motivation recognized by operant theorists, and it is this type of extrinsic motivation tha was typically contrasted with intrinsic motivation in early lab studies and discussions. A second type of extrinsic motivation is *introjected regulation*. Introjection describes a type of internal regulation that is still quite controlling because people perform such

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actions with the feeling of pressure in order to avoid guilt or anxiety or to attain ego-enhancements or pride.  

According to the SDT (Self-Determination Theory) approach, a regulation that has been internalized may be only introjected, and that type of regulation could well leave people feeling satisfaction of their needs for competence and relatedness. However, to only introject a regulation and thus to be controlled by it will not leave the people feeling self-determined.

Wolter offered a different system of macro strategies for the regulation of motivation. This taxonomy, which is an extension of his earlier work, is not exhaustive but, as the author argued, is merely intended to substantiate the motivational self-regulatory process.

The writer conclude that extrinsic motivation is the result of the others factors and it is not coming from inside part of nature but outside, moreover, it will do by some reasons that will force and it is not a willingness but it force by something or factors.

H. Experimental Study

Experiments may be multivariate in either or both of two senses. More than one "independent" variable (sex, school grade, method of teaching arithmetic, style of printing type, size of printing type, etc.) may be incorporated into the design and/or more than one "dependent" variable (number of errors, speed,

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69 Ibid., p.9.
70 Ibid., p.11.
number right, various tests, etc.) may be employed. Experimental research involves a study of the effect of the systematic manipulation of one variable(s) on another variable. The manipulated variable is called the experimental treatment or the independent variable. The observed and measured variable is called the dependent variable. In experimental studies, the treatment is the independent variable and the outcome is the dependent variable. In an experiment in which freshmen are randomly assigned to a “hands-on” unit on weather forecasting or to a textbook-centered unit and are then given a common exam at the end of the study, the method of instruction (hands-on versus textbook) antecedes the exam scores and is the independent variable in this study. The exam scores follow and are the dependent variable.

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 variables(s). An experiment deliberately and systematically introduces change and then observes the sequences of that change. Only research problems that permit a researcher to manipulates conditions are appropriate for experimental research. The goal of experimental research to determine whether a causal relationship exist between two or more variables. Because the experiment involves control and careful observation and measurement, this research method provides the most

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73 Ibid.,p.37.
convincing evidence of the effect that one variable has on another.\textsuperscript{74} The essential requirements for experimental research are control, manipulation of the independent variable, and observation and measurement.\textsuperscript{75}

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.\textsuperscript{76}

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 manipulations of the independent variable. The different treatment conditions administered to the subjects in the experiment are the levels of the independent variable.\textsuperscript{77}

3. Observation and Measurement

After applying the experimental treatment, the researcher observes to determine if the hypothesized change has occurred. Some changes can be

\begin{flushright}
\textsuperscript{74} Donald Ary, et al, \textit{Introduction to Research}, p.265.
\textsuperscript{75} Ibid., p.266.
\textsuperscript{76} Ibid., p.267.
\textsuperscript{77} Ibid., p.267.
\end{flushright}
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 perse.\textsuperscript{78}

I. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Test

Simple or one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a statistical procedure used to analyze the data from a study with more than two groups. The null hypothesis is that there is no difference among the group means. It is called one-way ANOVA because there is only one independent variable and one dependent variable. In analysis of variance, as in the $t$ test, a ratio comparing observed differences to the error term is used to test hypotheses about differences among groups. This ratio, called the $F$ ratio, employs the variance ($\sigma^2$) of group means as a measure of observed differences among groups. The $F$ ratio is named for R. A. Fisher, the early statistician who developed it. Because ANOVA can be used with more than two groups, it is more versatile technique that the $t$ test. A $t$ test can be used only to test a difference between two means. ANOVA can test the difference between two or more means.\textsuperscript{79}

The general of ANOVA is that the total variance of all subjects in an experiment can be subdivided into two sources: variance between groups and variance within groups. Variance between groups is incorporated into the

\textsuperscript{78} Ibid., p.269.

\textsuperscript{79} Ibid., p.269.
numerator in the $F$ ratio. Variance within groups in incorporated into the error term or denominator, as it is in the $t$ test.

As variance within group increases, the $F$ ratio increases. As variance within groups increases, the $F$ ratio decreases. The number of subjects influences the $F$ ratio: the larger the number, the larger the numerator becomes. When the numerator and denominator are equal, the differences between group means are no greater than would be expected by chance alone. If the numerator is greater than the denominator, you consult the table of $F$ values to determine whether the ratio is great enough to let you reject the null hypothesis at the predetermined level.