

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. Background of the Research

Language, as a means of communication, plays a very important role in daily lives. With language people can express and exchange ideas, thoughts, opinion, intention, and whatever they have in mind. Through language, too, interactions among people can occur so that businesses happen. Everyday, in all countries in the world, people use language to interact with others. In line with this idea, Hurlock (1989: 155) states that language encompasses every means in communication in which thoughts and feeling are symbolized so as to convey meaning to others. Wallace and McLoughin (1975: 131) add:

“It is through language we can express our feelings, discuss an idea, or present a point of view. Through language we can share our experiences with others by describing things we have seen, or people we have met. Through language we can speak or write about an object without the necessity of having the object presented and we can understand and abstract idea with which we have had no personal experience.”

It is obvious that that language is a very essential thing in human civilization, because it is needed to express feeling, discuss an idea, present a point of view, share experiences, or describe an object. Thus, our life will be very difficult without language.

The development in communication technology has made people of one country able to communicate with other people from other countries. Such sophisticated technology has made the world smaller nowadays since a person in

such a remote part of this world can contact, talk, send messages, and meet his relatives, colleagues or collaborators in millions of miles away in other parts of the world in just a few seconds. People can send news to other people in other parts of the world only with his tips of fingers in a very short time. Having the technology, people say that the world is just on the hands.

This easy way of communication enables them to make deals or collaborate in many fields of lives. Businesses nowadays are not based only in one country, but they have been internationally based which means involving many people from different countries since people have made collaborations. Thus, the ability to communicate with “mutually intelligible” language is a must in many cases, for people all around the world, unless they want to be left behind. To be mutually intelligible, people need a language which is understood by most people of many parts of the world. In other words, those collaborations need an international language, and the language is English, as English is used by the most people in most countries in the world as the first, the second or foreign language.

The future of one nation relies on the young generations. Therefore, it is absolutely compulsory for the young generation to get “up to date” to the technology and be able to collaborate with people from other countries. This means that the young generations need to be able to communicate in English. They need to be skillful in English and well equipped with the language. In short, they need to be communicatively competent.

Students of Senior High Schools, as young generations, need to be communicatively competent in the international language. It means that they need to master the four language skills namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

As stated in 2006 English Curriculum, students of Senior High Schools are expected to be able to use English in oral form through speaking and written forms through writing.

Ironically, the fact tells a different story. The ability of Senior High School graduates in communicating in English, especially in writing, is still far from the expectation. Many students are able to communicate orally but cannot communicate in written form. As it is stated by Hughey, et al. (1983: 38), writing is often found as the most difficult skill among all of the English skills both as the first and the second language. It is because the writer has to be able to communicate with the readers without face-to-face interaction. It means he or she is required to write on his or her own without the possibility of direct interaction with the readers. It is quoted by Lyon and Heasley in Sudarsono (2001: 65) that writing is clearly a complex process and competent writing is frequently accepted as being the last language skill to be acquired. Writing is seen to be a complex activity because it includes complex language components such as grammar, mechanic, and vocabulary. Considering the concept, it can be said that it is not easy for the students to write well in English as the second language. Some students might be good in speaking but they might not be good at writing.

In addition, students commonly have negative perception or attitude toward writing and it will make them difficult in achieving their writing improvement and becoming good writers. They are reluctant to write in English and are afraid of making mistakes in their writing. Shortly, they are afraid of being failed in writing English or in producing a good piece of English work of writing. The statement is supported by Blanton (1987: 112) who says that most of his students are scared to

death to write English. Or more accurately, they are scared to death that they will not write English well enough to pass their examination in English as a foreign language. So, it can be interpreted that the students feel under pressure and anxious about writing.

Writing is considered as a complicated work. The opinion is supported by Coulthard in Porto (2001: 2) who states that without a clear sense of audience, the writer cannot decide what texts and what result are incoherent, almost unreadable texts, requiring a lot of inferential effort to be processed. Based on those ideas, it can be assumed that too many simple or short sentences will make the reader get bored and uninterested to keep on reading. On the contrary, too difficult sentence constructions will likely cause unnecessary problems to the beginning readers. As a result, the purpose of writing will fail completely.

Related to writing, Porto (2001: 40) believes that writing is an interactive activity. It means that a writer writes for the reader or at least for himself or herself at other time. Also, a writer should know well whom he or she writes for and why he or she writes. Actually, when a writer writes, there is an interaction between a writer and his or her reader in a form of indirect interaction. Then, as quoted by Russo (in River, 1987: 85), writing is not a necessary activity on the part of the author but it can be intensely interactive, involving the instructor, other students, and individual outside the formal classroom setting. She adds that writing skill could be developed by using some techniques such as class writing, group writing, individual writing, and community writing. Based on the explanation above, it can be concluded that it is important to give the students opportunities to interact among others in written language to improve their writing skill.

Tarigan (1993: 9) states that writing skill cannot come by itself, but it must be practiced a lot regularly. It is due to the fact that there is no skill that comes by itself, including writing skill. Thus, to be able to write English well, students should practice a lot to have writing competence. By practicing writing a lot, students do more exercises and, they will get more experiences in writing. Therefore, it is important for teachers to assign the students to practice writing regularly in order to improve their writing skill and, in teaching writing, the method that the English teacher uses should be challenging and suitable with the students' level of English proficiency in order that both the lower and the higher achievers are able to achieve the teaching goals and improve the writing achievement.

One method that can be used in teaching writing is cooperative learning. According to Dornyei (1997: 482), in cooperative learning (CL) students settle small groups in order to achieve common learning goals via cooperation. This statement is supported by Joyce (2005: 1) who says in cooperative learning students group together to accomplish significant cooperative task. Shortly, cooperative learning is a learning activity in which students work together to accomplish the objective of learning.

In addition, as quoted by Crandall (in Arnold, 1999: 237), in cooperative groups, students are afforded the opportunity to develop skill in listening to divergent views, asking for greater support for ideas they find confusing or disagreeable, and providing for differences in opinion. They should be able to react positively for the different perceptions, ask question about something they do not understand, and give different opinions about the problem they have. Based on the ideas, it can be concluded that cooperative learning allows the students to interact

with each other easily for achieving the learning objectives. Thus, students who are involved in cooperative learning will get many social and academic benefits.

A variety of cooperative learning models has been developed, such as jigsaw, think-pair-share (TPS), learning together, numbered heads together, students' team achievement division, and group investigation. The selection of a particular model or design is influenced by the desired outcomes for instruction, the subject area, and the social skill of students (Joyce, 2005: 1). Concerning with writing, think-pair-share (TPS) is a "multi-mode" strategy developed to encourage students' participation in the classroom (Lyman, 2005: 4). This method allows students to engage in individual and small-group thinking before they are asked to answer questions in front of the whole class.

There are four steps in the implementation of this method. Firstly, a group of four students listens to a question posed by the teacher. Secondly, individual students are given time to think and then write their responses in free writing before turning to another learner and sharing what they have just thought and written about. Thirdly, pairs of students read and discuss their responses. Finally, a few students are called on by the teacher to share their thoughts and ideas with the whole class. With TPS, learners have several opportunities to develop their ideas, rehearse their language, and receive feedback on both language and content before having to present in front of the entire class. It seems that in TPS, students practice both oral and written skills.

TPS provides students with "food of thought" on a given topic enabling them to formulate individual ideas with other students. This strategy is developed to encourage student participation in the classroom activities (Lyman, 2005: 1). It

means that by using TPS, a teacher is able to encourage a high degree pupil response and able to help students keep on task. This activity also builds positive interdependence among pair members because of the shared writing surface. Each student should give written contribution for his or her pair of group. It can be assumed that there is a positive correlation among the group members to help each other for gaining the objective of their group. As stated previously, writing skill can be developed through class writing, group writing, individual writing, and community writing. These make it possible to adapt TPS activity for teaching writing.

Several action researches in cooperative learning had been done by many researchers. One example is Hariyanto, the college student of faculty of teacher training and education of Jember University. It dealt with 35 students of second year students of SMP NEGERI 2 Kendit Situbondo in 2004/2005 academic year. He decided to improve students' reading comprehension achievement through cooperative learning. The class was divided into seven groups, and every group consisted of five students. The students read and discussed the text with their peers in the small group. Every student was concerned with one paragraph and discussed the text together, and then they shared information about the text among the group members. Finally, they worked with reading test individually. The improvement was shown in the second cycle, in this cycle students showed their enthusiasm and progress in cooperative learning and reading comprehension.

The other example, in 2006, Dhayang Chrisna Wahyuni, the student of the college of faculty of teacher training and education of Jember University, did the same research. Her research was done to improve the teaching quality of reading

comprehension by using cooperative learning technique at SMP PGRI 4 Kanigoro Blitar in the 2005/2006 academic year. In the cycles of her research, she and the English teacher as the collaborator tried to improve the students teaching learning process quality and reading comprehension achievement by applying cooperative learning technique with Jigsaw model in teaching reading. The improvement was shown in the second cycle. The result of average score of reading test in the second cycle was 77.16 that had acquired the target mean score. It can be concluded that the use of cooperative learning technique can improve the learning process quality and the students' achievement of reading comprehension of English reading test.

Other previous research found out that roundtable model of cooperative learning as instructional media could improve the writing achievement of the students. A research conducted by Riniati (2006: 48) proved that roundtable model of cooperative learning to improve the writing achievement of the second year students of SMAN 1 Trenggalek in 2006/2007 academic year. The t-statistic was higher than t-table ($2.75 > 2.00$), it means that there was a significant effect of roundtable model of cooperative learning toward the improvement of the writing achievement of the second year students of SMAN 1 Trenggalek in 2006/2007 academic year. Therefore, in this research, the researcher is interested in finding out the effect of think-pair-share (TPS), one model of cooperative learning, on the writing achievement of the second year students of SMAN 1 Plosoklaten Kediri in the 2008/2009 academic year.

Think-pair-share (TPS) has never been applied in SMA Negeri 1 Plosoklaten Kediri. The teachers usually apply the conventional method that is Parallel Writing. Parallel writing is, in a way, the freest kind of controlled writing

(Raimes, 1983: 109). Parallel writing is a good way in teaching controlled writing, when ideas or opinions are not of importance. It is easy for students because they just follow the model and apply only little changes. In fact, in real life, people have to write in a very free situation where no one guides. Furthermore, because it is very often applied, and perhaps the teacher does not have enough knowledge about the method, students find it monotonous. This makes them fail to perform good writing.

Motivation, as a supporting element of learning, plays an important role in teaching and learning process. High motivated students usually perform better learning than low motivated ones. Students who know how to do and are challenged to do something usually work harder than those who do not know and are not motivated. Those who have greater intrinsic motivation are eager to learn more. Intrinsic motivation often arises when students get satisfaction on what they do. Therefore, teachers should be able to provide the students with activities which can increase such motivation by implementing challenging atmosphere of learning activities.

Based on the explanation above, it has been described that TPS model in cooperative learning is a technique that is suitable to be applied in teaching writing for the students of senior high school since it can promote students motivation. In TPS, students with low motivation will get assistance from those who have high motivation.

After considering the theory and the object of the research, a research entitled **“The Effectiveness of Think-pair-share (TPS) to Teach Writing Viewed from Students’ Motivation (An Experimental Research in the Second Year**

Students of SMAN 1 Plosoklaten Kediri in the 2008/2009 Academic Year)” is proposed.

B. Identification of the Problems

Based on the elaboration in the background of the research above, the English teaching and learning process in the second year of SMA Negeri 1 Plosoklaten, shows that: (a) writing is not given equal portion of time as the other skills; (b) the teacher often gets difficulties in finding appropriate technique which is suitable, challenging and interesting enough for the students to improve their competence in writing especially writing exposition texts; (c) the teacher uses monotonous technique in teaching writing; (d) the teacher never gives them opportunity to do exercises in pairs or in groups; (e) the students never work cooperatively with their friends so that they lack of chance of sharing ideas; (f) the students think that producing a piece of work of writing is very difficult.

C. Limitation of the Problems

The researcher realizes that he has very limited knowledge on how to conduct a scientific research, teaching methodologies, and the theories underlying the principles of second language teaching. In addition, he has very limited time in conducting this research. Therefore, the result of this research should not be broadly interpreted as if it were effective to overcome all problems in teaching writing in senior high schools in general. It is, however, limited on the followings: (1) this research is an experimental research trying to compare the effectiveness of think-pair-share (TPS) and Parallel Writing to teach writing in the second year of SMAN

1 Plosoklaten; (2) this research tries to compare the effectiveness of think-pair-share (TPS) model for high motivated and low motivated students in the second year of SMAN 1 Plosklaten Kediri; (3) in this research, the researcher tries to find interaction between think/pare/share (TPS) model in cooperative learning and students motivation; (4) the type of texts taught and evaluated in this research is Narrative.

Thus, in this research, the researcher tries to solve some problems that are faced by both the teacher and the students: (1) the teacher often gets difficulties in finding appropriate technique which is suitable, challenging and interesting enough for the students to improve their competence in writing especially writing narrative texts; and (2) the students never work cooperatively with their friends so that they lack of chance of sharing ideas and this makes them not know what and how to begin and finish writing.

D. Statements of the Research Problems

Based on the background of the research above, the problems of this research may be stated as follow:

1. In general, is think-pair-share (TPS) more effective than parallel writing to teach writing in the second year of SMA Negeri 1 Plosoklaten in 2008/2009 academic year?
2. Do students with high motivation have better writing achievement than those with low motivation in the second year of SMA Negeri 1 Plosoklaten Kediri in 2008/2009 academic year?

3. Is there any interaction between teaching techniques and motivation in the second year of SMA Negeri 1 Plosoklaten Kediri in 2008/2009 academic year?

E. Objective of the Research

In order to answer the problems defined above, this research is aimed at;

1. finding out whether or not think-pair-share (TPS) model of cooperative learning is more effective than parallel writing for teaching writing.
2. finding out which one has higher writing achievement, students with high motivation or those with low motivation.
3. finding out the interaction between teaching technique and motivation.

F. Significance of the Result

The results of this research are expected to give significant contribution to the followings:

1. English teachers, especially the English teachers of SMAN 1 Plosoklaten Kediri.

The result of this research could be an input for the English teachers to know the new method of cooperative learning in teaching English; especially the classroom implementation of think-pair-share (TPS) in teaching writing. Thus, they could select the most suitable method for that purpose.

2. The students.

Through cooperative learning applied in this research, students are expected to know the new learning model or method that could be applied in writing class, in which it allows them to interact with their peers cooperatively. Further, the students are expected to realize the advantages of interaction among them for

improving their writing skill. In addition, students are given chance to learn in such challenging and interesting atmosphere that increases their motivation.

3. The future researchers.

The result is useful for the other researchers as a reference to conduct future researches dealing with similar problem by using another research design or model such as classroom action research to improve the students' writing achievement by applying cooperative learning model think-pair-share (TPS).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter highlights the discussion of some literatures related to the variables of the research. They are the nature of writing, cooperative learning, the characteristics of cooperative learning, the benefits of cooperative learning, and the models of cooperative learning, writing achievement, grammar, mechanics, vocabulary, organizations and motivation.

A. The Nature of Writing

The main purpose of learning a language is to be able to communicate in the target language. It means learning a language is learning to communicate in the target language. When learning to communicate, people may learn to understand others by listening to them, talk to others, read what others have written, or write to others. Listening and talking to others mostly happen when people are present right near each other. In such situation, spoken language is the easiest means of the communication. When a person is trying to communicate with other people who are not present nearby, often he or she has to use written language. To be able to use written language well, people need to learn writing.

When writing, people use graphic symbols such as letters or the combinations of letters which relate to the sounds people make when speaking. Writing can be said to be the act of forming these symbols (Byrne 1997: 1). However, writing is not merely the formations of graphic symbols just as speech is not merely the production of sounds. More than that, writing involves the act of

arranging the symbols accordingly to certain conventions to form words and the words have to be arranged in such a way to form sentences although making a list of words as in inventories of words in a shopping list may be said to be writing too.

Further, dealing with the nature of writing, Byrne (1997: 1) states:

“As a rule, however, we do not write one sentence or even a number of unrelated sentences. We produce sequence of sentences arranged in particular order and linked together in certain ways. The sequence may be very short – perhaps only two or three sentences – but, because of the way the sentences have been put in order and linked together, they form a coherent whole. They form what we may call a text.”

Writing involves the encoding of a message of some kind: that is, translating our thought into written language. It is a process of thinking ideas and putting them down in written form. Farbain and Winch (1996: 32) state that writing is about conveying meaning by using words that have been selected and put together in a written or printed form. Dvorak in Hadley (1993: 291) states that writing refers to all the various activities that involve transferring thought to paper, while Hadley himself (1993: 291) states that writing might be best viewed as a continuum of activities that range from the mechanical or formal aspects of “writing down” on the one end to the more complex act of composing on the other.

Written language, however, differs in some ways from the spoken one. The following table, quoted from Byrne (1997: 3), presents the main difference of speech form writing, although certain cases such as telephoning and lecturing may have special similarities.

Table 1. The differences between spoken and written language.

SPEECH	WRITING
1. Takes place in a context, which often makes references clear (e.g. that thing, over there)	1. Creates its own context and therefore has to be fully explicit.
2. Speaker and listener(s) in contact. Interact and exchange roles	2. Reader not present and no interaction possible.
3. Usually person addressed is specific	3. Reader not necessarily known to writer
4. Immediate feedback given and expected: a. verbal: questions, comments, murmurs, grunts b. non – verbal: facial expressions	4. No immediate feedback possible. Writer may try to anticipate reader's reaction and incorporate them into text.
5. Speech is transitory. Intended to be understood immediately. If not, listeners expected to interact.	5. Writing is permanent. Can be reread as often as necessary and at own speed.
6. Sentences often incomplete and sometimes ungrammatical. Hesitations and pauses common and usually some redundancy and repetition.	6. Sentences expected to be carefully constructed, and linked and organized to form a text.
7. Range of devices (stress, intonation, pitch, speed) to help convey meaning. Facial expressions, body movements and gestures also used for this purposes.	7. Devices to help convey meaning are punctuation, capitals and underlining (for emphasis). Sentence boundaries clearly indicated.

Raimes (1983: 4) states some of the differences between writing and speaking as follows:

1. Speech is universal; everyone acquires a native language in the first few years of life. Not everyone learns to read and write.
2. The spoken language has dialect variations. The written language generally demands standard form of grammar, syntax, and vocabulary.
3. Speakers use their voices (pitch, stress, and rhythm) and bodies (gestures and facial expressions) to help convey their ideas. Writers have to rely on the words on the page to express their meaning.
4. Speakers use pauses and intonation. Writers use punctuation.
5. Speakers pronounce. Writers spell.
6. Speaking is usually spontaneous and unplanned. Most writing takes time. It is planned. We can go back and change what we have written.
7. A speaker speaks to a listener who is right there, nodding or frowning, interrupting and questioning. For the writer, the reader's response is either delayed or nonexistent. The writer has only that one chance to convey information and be interesting and accurate enough to hold the reader's attention.
8. Speech is usually informal and repetitive. We say things like, "What I mean is" or "Let me start again." Writing, on the other hand, is more formal and compact. It progresses logically with fewer digressions and explanations.
9. Speakers use simple sentences connected by a lot of "and's and but's. Writers use more complex sentences, with connecting words like however, who, and in addition.

Related to written language, Brown (2001: 341) lists some characteristics of written language as follows:

1. Permanence

When something is written down to intended audience in its final form, it remains its features time without any changes for unspecified period of time. This is because the writer abdicates a certain power: the power to emend, to clarify, and to withdraw it. In other words, a written text tends to be permanent.

2. Production Time

A person may be a good writer when he or she can manage the time to revise his or her work before it comes to the final form. However, not all works of writing are given ample time of production. Some writers have only very limited time to finish their work. Thus, the production time of writing may vary depending on the situation.

3. Distance

Anticipating the audience is a difficult problem for writers. The anticipation included how specific words, phrases, sentences, and paragraphs will be interpreted. Different people from different background of knowledge may have different interpretation on the words, phrases, or sentences. This is because of the distance factor between the writer and the targeted readers.

4. Orthography

All expressions in writing are captured through the manipulation of letters and other written symbols. Mechanics which involves spelling and punctuation play very important role to convey clear meanings. Therefore, a good writer must have good knowledge in orthography.

5. Complexity

Writing is complex work. Writers must know how to avoid redundancy, combine sentences, make references to other elements in a text, create syntactic and lexical variety, and other supporting elements of writing.

6. Vocabulary

Written language typically utilizes greater variety of lexical items than spoken one. Written language places a heavier demand on the use of vocabulary than spoken one does. In spoken language the real social context is present and the meaning of certain words or expressions can be directly negotiated and predicted from the context. In written language, such context and negotiation should be created as clearly as possible in the written form of expressions. Therefore, careful choice of vocabulary is paramount to create clear context.

7. Formality

Formality refers to prescribed forms that certain written message must adhere to. Rhetorical and organizational formality demands a writer's conformity to conventions like paragraph topics, logical order of comparing and contrasting something, preferences for non-redundancy and subordinate clauses, etc.

The purpose of writing according to Ur (1996: 163) is the expressing of ideas, the conveying of a message to the readers; so that the ideas themselves should arguably be seen as the most aspects of writing. Some other aspects such as neat handwriting, correct spelling and punctuation, acceptable grammar and careful selection of vocabulary, however, are things that need some attention to be paid by

a writer. Some skills are needed to produce a clear and understandable writing, such as manipulating proper words and arranging the words coherently and know the characteristics of good writing. Heirston (1986: 5-6) proposes six characteristics of good writing. They are as follows:

1. Good writing should be significant. It means that writing should tell something suitable with the purpose of writing.
2. Good writing should be clear. It means that writing must be understandable, for that the readers do not have to reread the writing several times to find out the meaning.
3. Good writing should be unified. It means that in writing, each sentence develops and supports the main idea. In addition, the sentences must support each other in a logical sequence or coherence.
4. Good writing is economical. It means that each point exposed in writing should be written in simple way. Rewriting some sentences or some words or sentences that do not support the main idea should be avoided.
5. Good writing should be adequately developed. It means that writing should have limited topic. The topic should be developed by having suitable supporting details.
6. Good writing should be grammatically acceptable. It means that writing must use correct grammar and punctuation.

The explanations above give clear description about the characteristics of good writing. One of the characteristics is that writing should be well organized. It means that writer should have ability in arranging his or her ideas into a possible order. In addition, good writing should also be well written. A writer should be

mastering the aspects of writing. Dealing with the aspects of writing, Hughes (1996: 91) mentions five aspects of writing, they are: (1) grammar, that is an element of writing which deals with a set of rules to have a writer construct sentences that makes sense and acceptable in English; (2) vocabulary, it deals with a list of words and their meanings; (3) mechanics, that is the convention in writing, which is related to punctuation, spelling, and capitalization; (4) fluency, which refers to the ease and the style of the composition; and (5) form (organization), that is the logical sequence and cohesion, or the flow of ideas being put into written language, to make unified contribution to the whole paragraph. This organization of the written text is recently often called the generic structure. BSNP (The Body of National Education Standard) states that writing should involve the following four aspects: (1) generic structure (organization); (2) developing ideas; (3) accuracy (grammar and vocabulary); and (4) mechanics (spelling and punctuation)

A good writer should know well those aspects of writing as by mastering the aspects of writing the writer will be able to write a meaningful writing and to use language effectively. Those aspects, grammar, mechanic, vocabulary, developing ideas, and organization are described in the following details.

1. Grammatical Skill

Grammar is equally important as other elements of writing; such as organization, mechanic, vocabulary (Byrne 1997: 19). According to Fairbain and Winch (1996: 108), grammar is an element of writing which deals with a set of rules to help a writer to construct sentences that make sense and applicable in English. When a paragraph or composition is written, grammar must be applied

correctly in order to make the writing sensible and acceptable. It has something to do with Heaton's opinion (1991: 135) stating that grammatical skill is the ability to write correct and appropriate sentences. Thus, it can be said that if someone wants to produce an effective paragraph or composition, he or she has to know the grammar well. Consequently, if a writer wants to make a good writing, he or she should follow a very basic rules and conventions of grammar to construct sentences. To make good sentences, here Fairbairn and Winch (1996: 1080 suggest some advices as follows:

1. Make sure that all of your sentences contain a main verb. It means that all sentences should have main verb.
2. Make sure that verbs and nouns or pronoun agree. It means that the verbs, which are used in sentences, should agree with its nouns or pronouns.
3. Ensure that tenses of verbs are consistent. It means that the verbs used in sentences should be consistent to its tense.
4. Make sure that no crucial or grammatically significant words are missing. A writer has to write sentences with grammatical words completely.

Consequently, grammatically correct sentences in this research are concerned with students' ability in writing correct sentences. In this case, the sentence should have main verb and the verb should meet the grammar rules of the language.

2. Mechanical Skill

Mechanic skill is very essential in writing. It deals with the use of particular conventions in written language. Improper application of mechanical skill can make

someone misunderstand the message of a certain work of writing. Related to mechanical, Heaton (1991: 135) states that mechanical skill is the ability to use those conventions peculiar to the written language correctly. Furthermore, Heaton (1991: 135) uses the term mechanical skill for punctuation and spelling. Therefore, the following section discusses further about them.

Punctuation is one of the technical aspects of writing that makes the writing understandable and communicative. In this case, Fairbairn and Winch (1996: 81) say that punctuation is a variety of devices that a writer uses in order to help readers to understand the meaning of a piece of writing. The use of correct punctuation will help the readers to understand what the writer intends to communicate. Correct use of punctuation can help the writer communicate confidently and without confusion. The writer must follow the rules and conventions of punctuation because errors can make the writer's message uninterpretable. Kanar (1998: 461-476) reviews the marks and rules of punctuation as follows:

a. End Punctuation Marks

As a writer, someone must be able to choose the most appropriate punctuation mark to end the sentences. The *period*, *question mark*, and *exclamation point* are marks of punctuation that are used most of the time. Kanar (1998: 461) proposes three ways to end a sentence. They are as follows:

- 1) Place a period at the end of a sentence that either makes a statement or issues a command. Examples:
 - a. Maria took her bicycle to the repair shop for an estimate.
 - b. Rick has good business sense.

- 2) Place a question mark at the end of a sentence that asks a direct question, but place a period at the end of a statement that indirectly asks a question.

Examples:

- a. Is pink your favorite color?
 - b. What do you think the term “love at the first sight”?
- 3) Place an exclamation point at the end of a statement to indicate surprise or intense feeling.

Examples:

- a. How delicious the soup is!
- b. Do not cheat!

b. The Colon (:)

Place a colon at the end of a statement if what follows is a list, quotation, explanation, or word needing special emphasis.

Examples:

- a. The members of Metallica are follows: Lars Ulrich (drums), Jason Newstead (bass), Kirk Hammet (lead guitar) and James Hetfield (vocal and rhythm).
- b. Princess Masako Owada speaks four languages: Japanese (her mother tongue), French, English, and Russian.

c. The Dash (-)

Place a dash before and after words that interrupt the flow of thought or before words that create a dramatic effect.

Examples:

- a. Do not forget – once again do not forget – to pass the letter today.
- b. The criminals robbed the bank – all the money is taken.

d. The Hyphen

If two or more words that describe a noun function as a unit, connect them with a hyphen.

Examples:

- a. They try to write every little article using easy-to-understand language.
- b. Lulu's nine-year-old sister enjoys reading comics.

e. The Semicolon (;)

- 1 Place the semicolon between two sentences that are closely related.

Examples:

- a. I admire Metallica very much; I like all of their songs.
- b. Nana is a faithful worker; she has worked for the same company for twenty-two years.

- 2 Place a semicolon before a conjunctive adverb that joins two independent clauses.

- a. On Friday, Maria's bike is ready; moreover, it looked as good as it did on the day she bought it.
- b. My father is reading a newspaper; meanwhile, my mother is sweeping the floor.

- 3 Use a semicolon to separate items a series if the items already contain commas.

- a Generally, a sentence consists of a subject, verb, object, and adverb; a paragraph contains a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence; and an essay is made up several paragraphs.
- b Three major parts of speech are nouns, such as; books, cats, and trees; verbs, for instance; to sing, to read, and to persuade; and adjective, for example; lovely, patient, and heroic.

f. The Comma (,)

The comma, or the pause, gives readers or listeners a chance to think about what is being said and relation of one idea to another.

1. Commas separate items in a series.

Examples:

- a Swimming, cooking, sewing, and dancing are Pipit's hobbies.
 - b The rich, the poor, the young, and the old have the right to keep order.
2. Commas separate two adjective that modified the sane word if the adjective are coordinate and belong to the same class.

Examples:

- a The tired, overworked nurses worked on Blake for several hours.
 - b The large, restless crowd waited impatiently for the concert to begin
3. A comma follows introductory words, phrases, and clauses.

Examples:

- a On the other hand, he had already spent some money before he is able to file the claim.

- b Even after he had recovered from his injuries, Blake had occasional soreness.
4. Commas come before and after interrupting words, phrases, and clauses that are not restrictive in meaning.

Examples:

- a. Several coworkers, fortunately, were close by when Blake's accident happened.
 - b. Blake, hurt and frightened, lay in the ambulance wondering what would happen next.
5. A comma comes before a coordinating conjunction joining two independent clauses.

Examples:

- a. Blake fully recovered from his accident, *and* he returned to his job.
 - b. The company instituted new rules that they hope would prevent accidents like Blake's in the future, *but* they would have to wait and see.
6. Commas set off certain ordinary material.

Commas set off the names of people who are addressed directly.

Examples:

- a. This may hurt a little, Blake, when I remove the cast.
- b. Can you move all of your fingers, Blake?

Commas separate the parts of a date and divisions of numerical expression.

Examples:

- a. Blake's accident happened on Friday, March 27, 1992.
- b. Blake's insurance covered more than \$5,000 in medical bills.

Commas separated the parts of address.

Examples:

- a. The hospital is at 1500 Mercy Drive, Bloodworth, MA 02123.
- b. His office is at Java Street 10, Jakarta, Indonesia.

Commas follow informal greeting and the closing in letter.

Examples:

- a. Greeting → Dear Blake,
- b. Closing → Sincerely,

g. The Apostrophe (')

The apostrophe (') has two functions: to show possession and to indicated omitted letters of numbers.

1. To show possession add ('s) to the end of a singular noun even if the noun ends in (-s).

Examples:

- a. A student's book.
- b. The bat's wings.

If a noun is plural, add only an apostrophe at the end.

Examples:

- a. Hundreds of voters' wishes.
- b. Two doctors' patient.

If a noun is plural but does not end in (-s), add ('s).

Examples:

- a. Women's friends.

- b. Children's toys.
2. Use an apostrophe when making contractions.

Examples:

- a. They're (they are).
- b. Class of '97 (1997).

h. Quotation Marks (“”)

1. *Double quotation marks (“”) to enclose direct quotations.*

Examples:

- a. “Hand in your papers”, she said.
- b. Chris said, “I’m not finished”.

2. *Single quotation marks (‘’) for a quotation within quotation.*

Examples:

- a. “‘A person Worthy of Admiration’ is the title of my essay”, said the student.
- b. “I will watch ‘The Superman Returns’ tonight”, said Thomas.

3. *Use quotation marks to enclose songs, short stories, articles, essays, and poems.*

Examples:

- a. “On Liberty” (essay by John Stuart Mill)
- b. “Master of Puppet” (song made popular by Metallica)

3. Vocabulary

Vocabulary deals with a list of words with meanings (Hornby, 1995: 1331).

Writing is a tool of communication in a written form. The writing will be understandable if the students have a good store of words and are able to use words

appropriately. Without words, readers cannot understand about the content of writing because the ideas informed would be seen through the words used.

The words choice used in writing will influence the success of transforming message to the reader. For that, choosing the words appropriately is important. Bramer and Sadley (1981: 181) state that if the words are not chosen with precision and care, part of the meaning will be lost. Then, writing does not function fully in communicating meaning. The use of inappropriate words in writing will make the reader fail to understand. Therefore, the use of words must be precise to convey the meaning accurately.

Furthermore, English vocabulary includes noun, adjective, verb, adverb, preposition, pronoun, conjunction, and article. In this research, the vocabulary skills are focused on the choice of verb, noun, adjective, and preposition. Verb is a word to express an action. It can be also a form of “be” (Wingersky, et al., 1999: 61). Some examples of verb that express actions are *go, run, and stay*. Some examples of verbs that are *a form of be* are *has, had, is, are* and *should*. *Noun* is a word to name or identify any class of thing, people, place or ideas (Hornby, 1995: 791), for example: *John, flower, beauty, and chair*. *Adjective* is a word that describes nouns or pronouns (Wingersky, et al., 1996: 61), for example: *her, some, good* and *beautiful*. *Preposition* is a word or a group of words. Those are used a noun or pronoun to show place, position, time or method (Hornby, 1995: 111). For example: *at, by, in, in front of* and *beside*.

4. Developing Ideas

A good work of writing should be adequately developed. It means that writing should have limited topic. The topic should be developed by having suitable supporting details. The development of ideas may be in the form of personal experience, illustration, facts, opinion, use of description, cause and effect, or comparison and contrast.

BSNP implicitly states that developing ideas deals with the relevance of main ideas and supporting sentences. A well developed work of writing should contain high relevancy of main ideas and the supporting sentences. Arnaudet and Barret (1990: 1- 47) determine the main ideas as topic sentences and supporting sentences as supporting topic sentences.

a. Main Ideas (Topic Sentences)

In written form, English is divided into paragraphs to distinguish one main idea from other main ideas. The paragraph is the basic unit of composition. It is a group of sentences which develops one central idea which is usually stated in a topic sentence. Every sentence in a paragraph must support the development of the topic sentence.

The first sentence in a paragraph is usually indented to show the readers that a new subject or a different aspect of the same subject is being dealt with. The first sentence of a paragraph which serves as the central idea is usually called the topic sentence. Some paragraphs, however, place the topic sentence at the end as a kind of conclusion. Other paragraphs do not have any topic ideas at all. The topic sentence of this kind of paragraph is implied or suggested. The topic sentence which

is placed at the beginning of the paragraph is a clear kind of paragraph organization, simple, effective, and easy to manage and easy to understand for readers.

A topic sentence always tries to make a statement about a topic which limits it to a certain extent. When a person wants to write about basketball, there are many things to write about it. So, he or she should decide how he wants to write about it. In other words he should limit the topic. One good way to limit topic sentence is to place key words or phrases in the topic sentence. These words or phrases will limit the topic of what a person is going to write about and they control the organization of the paragraph. Therefore, they are often called controlling words or phrases.

Besides topic sentence, a paragraph consists of several other sentences which in some way contribute to or support the idea in the topic sentence. In other words, all sentences must be related to the topic and must therefore refer back to the topic sentence. A paragraph is called unified if it announces the main idea in the topic sentence and all the supporting sentences contribute to the understanding of the main idea.

b. Supporting Sentences

Once the subject of a paragraph is limited by using good topic sentence, the subject must next be developed to make readers understand thoroughly what is meant in the paragraph. A good writer must think carefully what he or she is going to write to ensure that the readers know exactly what he/she means. Some ways to develop and clarify main ideas are examples, details, anecdotes, and facts and statistics.

1) Examples

An example is a specific instance that explains a more general idea. Yellow is the example of colour, Indonesia is the example of a country, an apple is the example of fruit, and so on. Since examples are specific (smaller and often more concrete) they are easier to understand than more general ideas.

2) Details

A detail is a particular part of characteristic of a whole thing or a whole idea. Details are frequently used in description.

3) Anecdotes

An anecdote is a short, entertaining account of some happening. It is usually personal and can be thought of as a lengthy example.

4) Facts and statistics

A fact is something which is objectively verifiable. A statistic is a numerical fact which presents information about a given subject.

5. Organization

Organization is one of the keys to write good paragraph. Organization is the ability of the students to arrange the ideas in logical sequence and cohesion, to make unified contribution to the whole paragraph. Kanar (1998: 16) states that organization in writing means presenting the material in order that makes sense – that is, a *logical* order. To write a good paragraph, a main idea and evidences to support the main idea should be arranged and organized in a well organization pattern to get the meaning logically. How well writer's evidences are organized determine how understandable it will be to the readers.

Raimes (1983: 116) states:

“Organizing your thought in writing is, like writing itself, a process. It’s a process of moving back and forth from general statements to specific details, of finding appropriate and relevant details and arranging them such in the most effective order. It’s also a process of moving back and forth between reading and writing.”

Thus, a well organize text will make the writer’s thought, intention, and meaning easily understood by the readers. To be well-organized, a text or paragraph should be unified and coherent. It means that to present good work of writing, unity and coherence are important aspects. In this research, the organization will also be evaluated from the aspects of its unity and coherence.

a. Unity

Hornby and Ruse (1988: 686) states that unity means the state of being unified. This means “formed into one”. According to Bram (1995: 20), a paragraph is said to be in good unity if it is unified by mutually supported sentences that express one main idea of the topic sentence only. Each of the supporting sentences should serve to back up, clarify, explain, or prove the point in the topic sentence. In other words, each sentence in a paragraph should relate and develop that idea in the controlling idea.

Arnaudet and Barret (1990: 8) state that a paragraph includes several sentences which in some way contribute to or support the idea in the topic sentence. In other words, all the sentences must be related to the topic and must therefore refer back to the topic sentence. It means that when one or more sentences or details within a paragraph do not support the main idea, the unity is interrupted, and the

paragraph strays from its topic. In short, a paragraph has unity when each sentence of the paragraph shows clear connection to the main idea stated in the topic sentence. If a sentence does not relate to or develop the idea in the topic sentence, the sentence is irrelevant and should be omitted. In this case, Muhyidin (1988: 13) states that a paragraph that has sentences that do not relate to the controlling idea is lacking of unity. Then, it can be said that the paragraph is not unified. Therefore, the writer should avoid writing sentence that irrelevant to the topic. The following is the example of a unified paragraph.

The greatest NBA players are not only great shooters but also great passers. Earvin “Magic” Johnson of the Los Angeles Lakers earned his nickname for his passing more than just his shooting. Larry Bird of the Celtics, though one of the greatest shooters in NBA history, could take the crowd’s breath away with “no look” passes that made him seem to have eyes in the back of his head. Detroit Pistons’ guard Isiah Thomas often dazzles his opponents with passes behind his back or even through the opponents’ leg. While many NBA stars have been fine shooters, only the greatest are blessed equally with the ability to pass.

(Carino, 1991: 158)

This paragraph discusses three different players, but it is unified by the focus on passing. All three examples work together to support the topic sentence that the best NBA players are great passers. Keeping paragraph unified can be difficult because one example or idea can lead to another that does not fit the topic of the paragraph. For instance, in discussing examples of Magic Johnson, the writer might have been tempted to add that in addition to being a great passer. Johnson is an excellent rebounder. That is true, but because the topic of the paragraph focuses on passing, the point about rebounding does not belong.

b. Coherence

Coherence is derived from the word *cohere*. Hornby and Ruse (1988: 117) defines *cohere* as: (1) to stick together; be remain united; (2) to be consistent and reasonable; and (3) to be composed or arranged (e.g. in order of sentences, by use of paragraph etc) so that the writer's intentions, the plot etc are easily understood. According to Wong (1999: 369), coherence means that the ideas and sentences flow smoothly in a logical, organized manner. It means that a paragraph is coherent when the sentences are clearly connected to each other. The idea and the supporting sentences in a paragraph are logically connected. Every of the sentences supports another in such a way that the sentences flow in good stream. Thus, a paragraph is said to be coherent if the movement of sentences in a it is smooth that it makes the readers not have problems in understanding the writer's idea.

Creating a coherent paragraph needs some skills. According to Wong (1999: 369), in developing coherence in the body of a paragraph, a good writer needs to have three skills. He should know: (1) how to organize the events chronologically (in time sequence). It means that the writer should be able to organize the information based on the sequence that makes logical sense to the readers; (2) how to use sentence variety and how to combine sentences. In this case, the writer must have the ability in presenting the information to be understandable and interesting to be read. It can be done by combining good sentences; and (3) how to connect the ideas and sentences by using transition words. Each sentence must be connected well in order to make them move naturally. Based on the idea above, it can be

assumed that a writer is required to have those skills in order to make the readers save extra time and energy in comprehending the content of the paragraph well.

To achieve coherence, the writer needs to use transition. According to Oshima and Hogue (1991: 29), transitions are words that signal the connection between sentences in paragraph. It means that transition is similar to change one item of the idea to another. There are two types of transitions that a writer should pay attention namely the repetitions and variation of key words and transitional words and phrase. In this case, students should concern with their ways in informing the ideas that is ordered logically. Without transitions, it is difficult for the writers, especially beginner writers, to produce a coherent paragraph.

By using appropriate transitions, the ideas will flow smoothly one after another. The following paragraph is the example of coherent paragraph. The sentences are connected by using transitions. The transitions are italicized.

Spike Lee is a controversial filmmaker. *In fact*, his movie *School Daze*, about blacks in college, received much criticism for black leaders and educators *because* they believed black students were portrayed as wanting to be white. *Furthermore*, in 1989, the movie *Do the Right thing* depicted a race riot in Brooklyn Bedford Stuyvesant area. *As a result*, Lee is often questioned about the film's title. *Of course*, the title is only one controversial element in the movie. *Still*, the title provoked some people to think that Lee is advocating racial violence. *However*, many elements in Spike Lee's movie advocate the need for better understanding and sensitivity among people of all races. Whatever Lee's message, he produces films that cause people to think.

(Carino, 1991: 164)

From the previous elaboration, it can be concluded that writing is the activities of putting ideas into written language. There are four aspects of writing. They are: (1) generic structure (organization); (2) developing ideas (fluency); (3) accuracy (grammar and vocabulary); and (4) mechanics (spelling and punctuation).

Generic structure or organization is the logical order of sentences presented so that the arrangement of the sentences makes sense. Developing ideas is related to the relevancy of the main ideas with the supporting sentences. Grammar is the way of manipulating the words into understandable and acceptable patterns of sentences and vocabulary is the selection of words to be used to convey meaning. Mechanics deal with the use of particular conventions in written language which includes spelling, punctuation and capitalization. A good writer should be able to apply the five aspects of writing well enough. In other words, a good writing should be: sufficiently developed, grammatical, well spelled, well punctuated, well capitalized, use proper selection of vocabulary, and well organized.

Thus, it can be inferred that writing is the activities of putting ideas into written language using good and correct generic structure (organization), developing ideas, accuracy (grammar and vocabulary), and mechanics (spelling and punctuation). In other words, a good writing should be: grammatical, well organized, well developed, and accurate. It should also be well spelled, punctuated, and capitalized.

B. Cooperative Learning

Many students often assume that they are in competition with each other thus subscribing to a culture where a form of conflict can prevail. Alternatively, even if the latter is not always the case, there are still solitary students who beaver away alone oblivious to the potential support that group work can offer.

Group work assumes an alternative way of learning: by expressing and exploring diverse ideas and experiences in a cooperative atmosphere. It is not about

competing with fellow students and winning, but about using the range of resources available in the group to deepen understanding, to sharpen judgment and to extend knowledge. It involves mutual support and culture of shared commitment. It is important to remember that individuals within such groups are assessed not only on their contribution to the project, but also their ability to work within a group, the ability to be involved in a cooperative way of solving problems.

The most common type of group work which involves such mutual support and culture of shared commitment is what is so called cooperative learning. At its base, cooperative learning requires social interaction and negotiation of meaning among heterogeneous group members engaged in tasks in which all group members have both something to contribute to and learn from the others members (Crandall in Arnold, 1999: 226).

There are many definitions of cooperative learning stated by the experts. However, there are only some definitions of cooperative learning that will be written in this research. They are:

- a. Cooperative learning is an instructional task design that engages students actively in achieving lesson objectives through their own effort and the efforts of the members of their small learning team (Leighton, 1999: 273). It means that in cooperative learning, students' learning success is not only by their own effort, but also the efforts of the member of their small group also play an important role.
- b. Cooperative learning is an activity organized in such a way so that learning is dependent on the society structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning

- and is motivated to increase of others (Olsen and Kagan, 1997: 443). It can be concluded that cooperative learning is an activity in which students are engaged to help each other for the whole group to be successful and each student is accountable for her or his own learning.
- c. Cooperative learning is the instructional use of small group through which students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning (Johnson, Johnson, and Holube in Joyce, 2005). In this case, cooperative learning is described as a small group interactive method in which students work together to achieve their own and other's learning.
 - d. Cooperative learning is the instructional use of small groups in order to achieve common learning goals via cooperation (Dornyei, 1997: 487). In cooperative learning, students cooperate with the members of their small group to gain their learning objectives. They help each for their learning success.

Based on the definition above, it can be concluded that cooperative learning is the learning activity that is involving small group interaction, in which each student is given responsibility for his or her own learning and in which students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning. Students gain their learning objectives through their own effort and the effort of the members of their group. It can be seen that cooperative learning is more than just small group activity. There are some characteristics belonging to cooperative learning.

1. The Characteristics of Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning has been defined in different ways. However, Crandall (in Arnold, 1999: 227) mentions five characteristics of cooperative learning activity.

Those are: positive interdependence, group interaction, individual accountability, development of small group social skills, and group processing. The following is the details of the characteristics.

a. Positive interdependence

Positive interdependence is a positive correlation among the students. Cooperative learning requires positive interdependence. Dornyei (1997: 484) says that cooperative classroom is characterized by positive interdependence. When there is no positive interdependence in the learning activity, it means that the learning activity is not cooperative. Kagan (2000: 2) states that positive interdependence is positive correlation among outcomes where the students are positively interdependent when a gain for one is a gain for another and they, therefore, feel themselves to be on the same side. According to Joyce (2005: 20), positive interdependence can be built into the task by jig sawing information, by limiting information, by having single team product, through team roles, or by randomly selecting one student to answer for the team. Based on the theory, it can be said that learning can be cooperative when positive interdependence occurs in the learning activity that is when students feel that a gain for one is a gain for another.

b. Face-to-face, group interaction

Another characteristic of cooperative learning is the emphasis on small group interaction. In cooperative learning situation, students interact, assist one another with learning task, and promote one another's success. It means that when the students get the difficulties in learning they may ask for help from

others. Orlich, et al (1998: 277) say that the small group setting allows the students to work directly with one another, to share opinions and ideas, to come to common understanding and to work as a team to ensure the member's success and acceptance. Concerning with cooperative group, Joyce (2005: 21) recommends that the small group consists of two students, when the largest one consists of six students. In other words, a learning group can be cooperative if it is not more than six so that the group's members are able to interact and assist one another directly to achieve their success. It may happen because small group can encourage all members to participate and benefit from multiple ideas and roles of the individual members. Besides, by using face-to-face interaction, learning can become active rather passive. Thus, in cooperative learning situation, group interaction should be enhanced.

c. Individual accountability

Individual accountability is the individual responsibility for doing his or her share of the work and for learning the material. Johnson and Johnson in Dornyei (1997: 484) argue that cooperative leaning works best when the group rewards for learning are combined with individual accountability in order to ensure that participants perform their share of the work. Each group's member should have something to be contributed to his or her group in order to gain group's success. In cooperative learning setting, each student is held accountable for his or her own academic progress and task completion, apart from the accomplishment of the group as a whole. In cooperative learning, individuals are asked to sign statements describing their contribution to

particular object. Crandall (in Arnold, 1999: 228) states that individual accountability is encouraged through the assignment of specific roles or tasks, and individuals are held accountable for the success of each of the other members. Accountability is also developed through activities, which ask learners to engage self-evaluation concerning with their participations and their attitudes and actions towards the other members. In other words, in cooperative learning, each student must be held individually responsible for doing his or her own effort for learning. He or she cannot rely only upon the effort of the members of his or her group.

d. Development of small group social skills

It has been stated that cooperative learning involves group interaction. To be able to interact among group's members, students should have social skills that are the skills for working together effectively. Crandall (in Arnold, 1999: 228) states that for cooperative groups to succeed individuals need to develop not only linguistics but also social skills with facilitate teamwork, create trust and enhance communication, leadership, problem solving and decision making in group interaction. It means that students need to learn and to work together as a team and how to help each other, assuming responsibility for their own and each other's learning. Based on the explanation, it can be assumed that cooperative learning activity should encourage students to develop their social skills so that they can work together with one another as well.

e. Group processing

Besides engaging in group tasks, learners also need to reflect upon their group's experiences, noting how group members interact in doing the tasks, the kind and number of contributions each makes, and the difficulties that are encountered as different views are suggested or one member is noticeable silent or vocal. Group processing is needed to evaluate how well the students learn and how well the cooperative group works. According to Joyce (2005: 2), group processing means giving students the time and procedures to analyze how well their groups are functioning and how well they are using necessary collaborative skills. Students need to evaluate how well they are meeting their goals, what actions help their groups, and what actions seem to hurt group interaction. It will help them to recognize what actions should or should not be done when they work together as a team. In this way, next time, they can improve the effectiveness of their cooperative learning activity.

Those characteristics of cooperative learning can be used to create comfortable environment for the students to participate in writing. Positive interdependence will make students feel they learn together, not competed with each other. They are asked to be cooperative, not competitive. Group interaction encourages them to get more idea, because they may share opinion with others. Individual accountability will motivate them to think more deeply, because they want to give their group some contributions. The social skills can increase students' self-confidence, because they are not alone but involved in a team work. They know how to ask question, share opinion and present point of view.

The last characteristic of cooperative learning, group processing, will make students know how to work cooperatively. In other words, all those characteristics, if applied properly, can increase the effectiveness of the teamwork.

In line with the characteristics of cooperative learning, Smith (in Suhartono, 2007: 28) states that there are eight behaviors associated with effective teamwork. They are:

1. Collective decision making: in effective teams, decisions are discussed and agreed to by all. In less effective teams, one person strongly asserts a position and others do not verbally object even though their opinions differ.
2. Collaboration/Interchangeability: in effective teams, members do whatever is needed to get the job done. They are not afraid to tackle unfamiliar tasks in areas outside their expertise. In less effective teams, members work independently.
3. Appreciation of conflicts/differences: productive teams expect conflict and disagreement. They openly discuss their differences and use the differences as a matter of consideration in making group decision. Less productive teams prefer avoiding conflicts to getting involved in managing the conflicts and how to get benefit from them.
4. Balance of participation: effective teams recognize that people have other demands on their time and as a group they are willing to help a member who may, for a time, need to decrease the amount of effort devoted to the team. This is different from an ineffective team where one or two members do

more than their fair share of work, resent it, but never confront members who do not contribute what they should do to the team.

5. Focus: good teams keep their ultimate goals and objectives in mind. Teams run into trouble when they do not allocate their time well. In such teams everyone notices the error but no-one is willing to offer helpful solutions.
6. Open communication: members of effective teams keep each other informed. They discuss individual work and let others know when they will be late or missing. Lack of communication results in individuals working alone too much unaware of how their work fits with that of others.
7. Mutual support: in good teams, members support one another and vocalize the support. They compliment and publicize the contributions of each member and they are proud of the success of all members of the team. Conversely, poor teams will comprise those who have little awareness of individual input.
8. Team spirit: effective teams develop pride & loyalty in their group. They stand up for the group and speak positively about it. They are committed to the group and do not view it as an impediment to the accomplishment of individual goals.

2. The Benefits of Cooperative Learning

The reason why cooperative learning is used is that it offers many benefits. Crandall (in Arnold, 1999: 233-234) mentions some benefits of cooperative learning as follows:

a. Reducing anxiety

Oxford and Ehrman (in Arnold, 1999: 233) define cooperative learning as a classroom procedure that can lower anxiety in the language classroom. It is because when students are involved in cooperative learning, they get opportunity to work with one another and to share their opinion with their group's member. Besides, they also have more time to think so that they feel more comfortable in learning. Time to think, opportunities to rehearse and receive feedback, and the greater likelihood of success reduce anxiety and can result in increasing participation in the learning activities especially in foreign language learning. Students may get feedback from the others. They get more time to think and it will increase the possibility for them to provide correct or acceptable answers. As a result, it will increase their participation in learning activity. Cooperative learning provides students with the above circumstances in such a way that it can reduce their anxiety.

b. Promoting interaction

Cooperative learning encourages students to interact with each other during the learning activity. Besides, students should work together as a team to gain their group success. In cooperative classroom, students learn to rely on each other and also have security of knowing that they will have several opportunities to rehearse contribution before they are asked to share their ideas with larger class (Coffey in [/http://www.learn.org/lp/pages/4771](http://www.learn.org/lp/pages/4771)). Thus, to make learning and group work effective, students should respect one another's differences, support one another through learning process, and communicate

effectively with one another. In other words, students who are involved in cooperative learning must interact with their peers for gaining their learning success.

c. Increasing self-confidence and self-esteem

Cooperative learning can increase self-confidence and self-esteem of the students. In cooperative learning, positive interdependence is enhanced. It makes each student hopes their partner to come up with good answer because they know that a gain for one is a gain for the other (Kagan, 2000: 3). As a result, sharing, caring, verbal skills, and listening skills are enhanced. Thus, it can increase the students' self-confidence and self-esteem. Related to the previous idea, Slavin (in Coffey in [/http://www.learnnc.org/lp/pages/4771](http://www.learnnc.org/lp/pages/4771)) states that by encouraging group interdependence, cooperative activities build greater learners' confidence and self-esteem. Cooperative learning can increase self-confidence and self-esteem through the enhancement of its positive interdependence.

d. Increasing motivation

Cooperative learning activity can increase students' motivation because cooperative learning encourages students to work in small group, so they feel more comfortable in learning activity. They know that everything will be easier because they can ask for help from others. Long and Porter (in Arnold, 1999: 235) say that group work increases students' motivation. When students are allowed to work together, they know that they can get feedback and assistant in

making contribution as clearly, relevantly and appropriately as possible. This situation can motivate students to continue participating at their own level proficiency. Thus, it can be said that cooperative learning can increase motivation by encouraging students to work in group so that they have more enjoyable activity.

It can be seen that cooperative learning environment is appropriate to teach writing. It is because those benefits of cooperative learning are needed by the students by practice writing. It is difficult for students to have idea if they feel anxious. As a result, they do not know what they will write. Group interaction will make students more comfortable, because they may share opinion with others. Using their self-confidence and high motivation, students are able to enjoy their writing activities. Furthermore, it plays the main role for the success of their writing.

3. Models of Cooperative Learning

There are so many cooperative activities that have been developed. A number of books have appeared in the few years which provide hundreds of cooperative activities either designed for the language classroom or easily adapted for language learning. It is impossible, however, for the writer to write all of the cooperative activities because of the limited time and resources available. Therefore, the writer will describe some models of cooperative learning suggested by Kagan ([in www. KaganOnline.com](http://www.KaganOnline.com)). They are, Jigsaw, Numbered Heads Together, and Think-pair-share. The model that will be used in this research is Think-pair-share, for this model viewed to be the most suitable for teaching writing.

a. Jigsaw

Rouviere (2005: 2) defines jigsaw as a cooperative learning activity where each member in a team becomes an “expert” on a topic. After the teacher introduces the material, each team separates, with the members joining different groups who study on particular aspect of the topic. As a result, they become “expert” on that topic. The teacher’s role is to move among the students’ group, listening, probing, and assuring that the group makes progress and correctly understand the concepts. When asked, the teacher should not try to “teach” the material, but rather pose question, which lead the students to form their own correct conclusion. When students return to their original teams, they teach the other members what they have learnt. The teacher is responsible for choosing topics and for monitoring the groups to assist and verify that what is being learnt is accurate.

Jigsaw is assumed to be difficult to be adapted for teaching writing, as in doing jigsaw, each student becomes an expert with different information for his or her group. Each student must present the members of their group the information he or she has in order that all members of his or her group master the complete information. It means that in doing this activity, students spend most of the time to discuss the complete information only. As a result, it is impossible for the students to be able to write well just in the rest of time after they discussed the complete information. In short, jigsaw is not applicable for teaching writing because it does not give students time to write.

b. Numbered heads together

Numbered heads together makes drill and quick reviews of fact engaging and productive for the whole class (Leighton, 1999: 281). It may add depth to the students' participation in more complex academic work as well. Numbered heads together is easy to use when the class has existing learning teams. In this activity, members of a group count off Kagan (in Crandall, 1999: 231). Leighton mentions six components in doing Numbered Heads Together, they are: (1) plan; (2) assign students to teams of four; (3) give each member of each team a number from 1 to 4; (4) pose a question to the whole class; (5) students make sure everyone knows the answer; (6) while others wait in silence, the teacher calls on a number to answer and earn points for each team.

However, numbered heads together is particularly appropriate for reviewing grammatical structures, vocabulary or factual items from a reading or audio-visual text. For example, students may be given an infinitive and asked to form the past tense or a word and expected to provide an appropriate definition (High in Crandall, 1999: 231).

c. Think-pair-share

According to Estes and Scwab (<http://www.adlit.org/strategies/23277>), Think-Pair-Share is a strategy to provide students with “food of thought” on a given topic enabling them to formulate individual ideas and share the ideas with other students. It is a learning strategy developed by Lyman and associates to encourage

students' classroom participation. Related to the definition of TPS, Coffey (in <http://www.learnnc.org/lp/pages/4771>), states:

“In the think-pair-share strategy, students think on their own about a topic and then pair with another student to discuss their thoughts. Finally, the pair shares their thoughts with the rest of the class. The structure facilitates independent thinking and fosters a sense of confidence while engaging students in revising their hypothesis based on others' opinion.”

Based on the previous quotations, it can be seen that there are three main steps in applying TPS: (1) think in which teachers begin by asking a specific question or giving prompt about a topic and then ask the students to “think” about what they know or have learned about the topic; (2) pair, the stage when students are paired up to discuss ideas with other; and (3) share, when students share ideas with their friends in the whole class.

“Think-pair-share (TPS) as a cooperative discussion strategy that provides structure in the classroom while allowing students “think time” to internalize content. Students follow a prescribed process that keeps them on task and holds them accountable for their result. The advantages of think-pair-share strategy are that it is quick, does not take much time, motivates students with intrinsic rewards, can be adapted to all levels, engage a whole or parts of class, and allows teachers to circulate among the students to advise, correct, and evaluate students. The immediate reinforcement this process provides allows students to move from one positive learning experience to another with little time for wandering from the tasks.”([Http://www.eht.k12.nj.us/~Jonesj/defferentiated%20/Think-Pair-Share.htm](http://www.eht.k12.nj.us/~Jonesj/defferentiated%20/Think-Pair-Share.htm))

The special feature of Think-pair-share (TPS) is that it is easy to be applied since it is simple, not time consuming, suitable for any levels of students and it involves the whole students in the class actively. Furthermore, it can motivate students intrinsically and enable teachers to go around the class assisting students to do the tasks.

Trianto (2007: 61-62) defines TPS or thinking in pair as one type of cooperative learning designed to influence the pattern of students' interaction. It is an effective way of varying the flow of classroom discussion. There are three steps suggested to apply in the classroom activities.

1. Think

The teacher provokes the students' thinking with a question, prompt, or observation related to the learning materials and asks the students to take a few minutes to think about the idea or answer to the question. Students need to know that verbalizing the answer to the question is not the part of thinking.

2. Pair

Using designated partners, nearby neighbor, or a deskmate students pair up to talk about the idea or answer each has developed. They compare their mental or written notes and identify the best, most convincing, or most unique answers.

3. Share

After students discuss their reasoning in pairs for a few moments, the teacher calls for pairs to share their thinking with the rest of the class. This can be done by calling on each pair randomly, taking answers as they are called out, or as hands are raised.

Lyman (2005: 2-4) states that Think-pair-share (TPS) is a "multi-mode" strategy developed to encourage students' participation in the classroom activities. Teacher may also ask students to write their responses while doing TPS activity. TPS helps students develop conceptual understanding of a topic, develop the ability to filter information and write conclusions, and develop the ability to consider other points of view. It means that TPS is applicable for teaching writing. In doing TPS

all students are involved. In this research, TPS will be used for teaching writing. The following is the procedures of using TPS model in cooperative learning in writing class:

1. Explain strategy to students

Before beginning the lesson, the teacher explains the TPS strategy. Students will have more time to think of the appropriate response, because there is a 'wait-time' for them to think of a response after a question is posed. Then, they share their responses with their pair, and finally discuss the responses with the whole class.

2. Teacher possesses a question

The process of TPS begins when the teacher possesses a thought-provoking question for the entire class, while the students are listening. This may be a straightforward question or a problem the teacher wants to pose to the class for solution, for example, "What would it be if there is no television?" or "Do you think English is difficult or not? Why?" Too simple questions requiring low level of thinking such as those with single right answer questions are to be avoided in this model. Questions must pose problems or dilemmas that make students enthusiastic and challenged to think about.

3. Students think individually

At a signal from the teacher, students are given a limited amount of time to think about their own answer to the problematic question. The time should be decided by the teacher on the basis of knowledge of the students, approximately 5 minutes to think and write out their individual responses and solutions. Students should understand that there may be no one right answer. It is

important that everyone comes up with some reasonable answers to the questions.

4. Assign partner

Here, before the pair session begins, the teacher may form partnerships by using a simple pairing scheme, for example, having students count off in duplicate – 1,1; 2,2; 3,3; 4,4 and so on. It is necessary to do, because the experimental class is a large class. Students are not allowed to select their own deskmate because students' self-selection of mate tends to be unfair, reducing the likelihood of divergent thinking. After the teacher forms partnerships, students are then cued to pair and start to discuss or work together sharing ideas or points of view then put the answer to the question in free writing. They compare their mental or written notes and identify the best answer, the most convincing, or most unique.

5. Students share their answers with whole class

The teacher then chooses a few pairs (either at random or from volunteers) to present their joint answer. The pair, then, shares their ideas with other pairs, or with the whole class. It is important that students need to be able to share their partner's ideas as well as their own.

For teaching writing, Suhartono (2007: 50) suggests the steps as follows:

1. Pair the students up and provide them with interesting topics of a specific genre to write on.
2. Give them two or three minutes of "silent period" to think deeply about the outline and the generic structure of the genre.
3. Ask the students to share their thought with their partners to draw or unify ideas.

4. Group the students of four or six and ask each pair to share the ideas within the group to draw a new concept.
5. Ask each group to formulate the new ideas based on the ideas of each pair.
6. Let each group to share the ideas with the rest of the class, give correction, or criticize.
7. Write the new text.

Based on the steps in using TPS model of cooperative learning above, it can be seen that this technique is truly simple. Teacher can easily use this technique for teaching writing. Besides, TPS offers some benefits. For instance, it can build positive interdependence with their partner because in doing TPS, the students are able to learn from each other. Then TPS can build individual accountability, it means that students are accountable to each other for sharing ideas. The students may also be required to share their partner's ideas to another pair. Moreover, with TPS, students are given time to think through their own answers to the questions before the questions are answered by other peers and the discussion move on. Students also have the opportunity to think with another student about their responses before being asked to share their ideas publicly. This strategy provides an opportunity for all students to share their thinking with at least one other student; this increases their sense of involvement in classroom learning. As a cooperative learning strategy, TPS also benefits students in the areas of peer acceptance, peer support, academic achievement, self-esteem, and interest in other students.

In addition, TPS can also promote the effectiveness of the teamwork. It can create situation which increases the behaviors associated with effective teamwork. Students can learn how to make collective decision, they learn to work in

collaboration, interchange ideas, appreciate of conflicts and differences, and devote the team in balance participation. In TPS, members of small groups keep in mind their ultimate goals and objectives so that they can focus on their work. They also keep each other well informed, support one another, and develop pride and loyalty to their groups. These all will support them in achieving their goals.

From the review of the above literatures, it can be concluded that cooperative learning is an instructional paradigm in which students work in teams to solve some problems under the conditions that meet five criteria: positive interdependence, face-to-face interaction, individual and group accountability, development of small group collaborative and social skills, and group processing. It explicitly builds cooperation skills by assigning roles to team members and establishing norms for conflict resolution. It offers some benefits like reducing anxiety, promoting interaction, increasing self-confidence and self-esteem, and increasing motivation.

Think – pair share (TPS) is one of the models in cooperative learning. Its implementation in the classroom begins with the chance for the students to think, followed by sharing the ideas in pairs and small group discussion and sharing the ideas with the whole class. It is assumed as a good technique in teaching writing since it gives students chance to: dig their own ideas on what to write, share ideas with peer students, develop ideas, learn to criticize and accept criticisms, and promote effective team work.

D. Parallel Writing

Parallel writing is one type of controlled writing. In a way, it is the freest kind of controlled writing (Raimes, 1983: 109). The word “*parallel*” which means “*similar*” indicates that in parallel writing students are given example texts then they should produce a work of writing similar to the given examples. The word “*similar*” means that students have to make some changes. Instead of making changes in a given passage or writing according to an outline or given sentences, students read and study a passage and then write their own on a similar theme, using the guided vocabulary, sentence structure, cohesive devices, and organization of the model passage.

Johnson (1996) states that parallel writing is a simple way in teaching controlled writing to foreign language learners. It is simple because it is easy to do. In the activities, students are just given clues, prompts or outlines as to guide what they have to do. Students are guided with the outlines of the example passage and they know well what they have to do with the passage.

Byrne (1998: 25) states the important role of guidance in writing practice. Foreign language learners often face difficulties in learning how to write a foreign language. Guiding and sometimes controlling what they write is something that can not be slightly dismissed. Since the purpose of teaching writing is to develop the students' ability to write texts, one way of helping students and providing them with guidance is by using texts as the basic format for practice. This will make writing more meaningful for students. The texts provide the setting within which they can practice, but they should not imply a tight control over what the learners write.

In the classroom activities, parallel writing is often embedded to the reading activities, as the post reading activities. Students read a text and do reading activities. Then the text is used as a model to produce text by themselves with some changes required. When they have finished the deep problems, they may be asked to write similar text referring the passage as the model. Instead of making changes in a given passage, students read and study the passage and then write their own at similar theme, using guided vocabulary, sentence structure, cohesive devices, and organization of the model passage. Even sometimes they adopt the outline and idea of the model passage.

Related to parallel writing, Byrne (1997: 37) states that in the activities students are given a model text of some kind and are asked to write a similar text with the help of cues. The text may recycle items of spoken or written language and can be used as an introduction of to organizing ideas in the form of a paragraph. Doff (1988: 154) supports similar activities as he states,

“Students read a short text, and perhaps study particular features of it (e.g. the way sentences are joined, the use of verb tenses, the use of the passive). Then they write a paragraph which is similar but involves some changes. Examples of text that can be used: Students read a paragraph about a student’s day, then write about their own day; students read a description of a car; then write the description of the car from notes; students read the description of a room, then write description of another room shown in a picture.”

The activities of parallel writing may vary depending on the situation. The examples of activities suggested by Raimes, (1983: 109 – 112) are as follows:

1. The students read or listen to a textbook dialogue a few times, then they write down what they heard or read, though now not in the form of dialogue, but narrative. The teacher may gives a prompt such as :

Andy: "I am going to school" .

Students then may write: Andy said that he was going to school (he was going to school/ was about to go to school/intended to go to school)

- The students listen to a series of short descriptions of people. They are given a table with some information missing and they have to fill in the form from the given description.

Table 2. Discription form.

Name	Age	Hair	Height	Clothes
Ann Marie		long black hair		
Rosa	17		quite tall	A gray skirt and a blue sweater

Then, they write a description of each person, using the given and the collected information. After the students practice describing a person using given information, they use what they have written as a guide of writing a description of another student in the class without giving the student's name. Each student reads his description aloud and the class guesses who is being described.

- Letters, dialogs, and stories may be good models in parallel writing. After reading, tudents are given an outline of different set of information or different topics then they write a passage that is parallel to the passage they have just read.

The following is the example of the activities.

Dear Ms. Johnson:

Thank you for your letter applying for a job as a waitress at Waterside Camp. It is important for you to know what your duties will be. First, you will have to set the tables. Second, you will have to carry the food from the kitchen to the table and serve it to the campers. Third, you will have to clear the tables and take the dishes back to the kitchen. Finally, you should know that we serve breakfast at 7 a.m., so you'll have to be on duty every day at 6 a.m.

Please let me know if you would like to arrange an interview.

Sincerely yours

Karen Grene

Debbie Johnson decided not to work at the camp. Instead, she applied for a job in a bookstore. Write a letter for the manager of the bookstore, Helen Rodgers, to Debbie Johnson telling her about the job. You can use the following ideas and others of your own in your letter.

- Check the orders
- Keep a record of all the books sold.
- Put the books in the selves.
- Keep the books clean and neat in the selves.
- Serve the books at the bookstore's Saturday evening parties for authors.

(Adapted from Raimes, 1983: 110)

4. Parallel writing assignment can vary in the amount of control or guidance given to the students. The example of a tightly controlled exercise is: the teacher asks the students to read a passage and then rewrite it with different but given subject matter. The teacher may ask the students to read the description of Jakarta then he asks the students to write the description of Surabaya.
5. For far more freedom of imagination, the teacher may ask the students to write about an event from another person's point of view, but still following the outline of the model passage. Here, students invent their own sentences but they follow the story outline that the model provides, and the use of past tense and much of

the given vocabulary. This writing from a new point of view can be extended to parallel writing using a passage from literature as a model.

The most common the procedure of parallel writing technique may be determined as follows:

1. Students are provided with a passage, and asked to read a few times.
2. Students learn the features of the passage including the grammar, mechanic, vocabulary, and the organization of the passage.
3. Students write similar passage based on the features of the model passage involving some changes.
4. Students are asked to write a passage with more changes and difference from the model passage.

As one type of controlled writing, parallel writing does not give students much chance to develop their own ideas and allow much student's creativity. This idea is supported by Brown (2001: 344) who states; "Writing is sometimes used as a production mode for learning, reinforcing, or testing grammatical concepts. This intensive writing typically appears in controlled given grammatical exercises. This type of writing does not allow much, if any, on the part of the writer." A common form of controlled writing is to present a paragraph to the students in which they have to alter a given structure through out. For example they have to change all the present tense verbs into the past tense involving the changes in the time references in the paragraph.

Thus, parallel writing is a technique in teaching writing in which students are given a model passage and then they are asked to write a passage similar to the model with some changes required. The steps of parallel writing are: (1) students

are given a model text; (2) they learn the feature of the text; (3) they write a text following the features of the model text; and (4) in the freer activity they write a new passage involving more differences and changes from the model.

E. Motivation

1. Theoretical Definition

Motivation is a broad term used in psychology to cover the internal conditions or states that activate or energize organism and that lead to goal directed behavior (Whittaker, 1970: 142). Motives or drives as they are often called, may be primarily innate in nature, or learned, but whatever their origin, when aroused, they initiate activity toward goals or incentives that have become related to the particular motive involved in learning. The term “incentive” is used to refer to goal objects that are employed to control or manipulate motivated behavior. Some motives also perform a cue function that influences the direction of activity (Hebb in Whittaker 1970: 142). The sound and smell of food being cooked will activate hungry individual. It also provides a cue to where the motives may be satisfied.

Wikipedia (in <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Motivation>) states that motivation is the set of reasons that determines one to engage in a particular behavior. Motivation may be rooted in the basic need to minimize physical pain and maximize pleasure, or it may include specific needs such as eating and resting, or a desired object, hobby, goal, state of being, ideal, or it may be attributed to less-apparent reasons such as altruism, morality, or avoiding mortality.

Like many other concepts in psychology, the word “*motive*” refers to something that cannot be directly observed. The existence of motive can be

observed from the behavior or for the knowledge of certain other factors. Covington, 1998 in Dornyei (2001: 7) states; “Motivation, like the concept of gravity, is easier to describe (in terms of its outward, observable effects) than it is to define. Of course, this has not stopped people from trying it.” The existence of some motives, on the other hand, may be inferred directly from the knowledge of physiological condition of the organism. Stomach contractions, chemical changes in blood, and taste sensitivity, for example, are psychologically related to hunger drive.

Dornyei (2001: 7) states that motivation explains why people decide to do something, how hard they are going to pursue it and how long they are willing to sustain the activity. Because human behavior has two basic dimensions; direction and magnitude (intensity), motivation is closely related with the choice of a particular action, the effort expended on it, and the persistence with it.

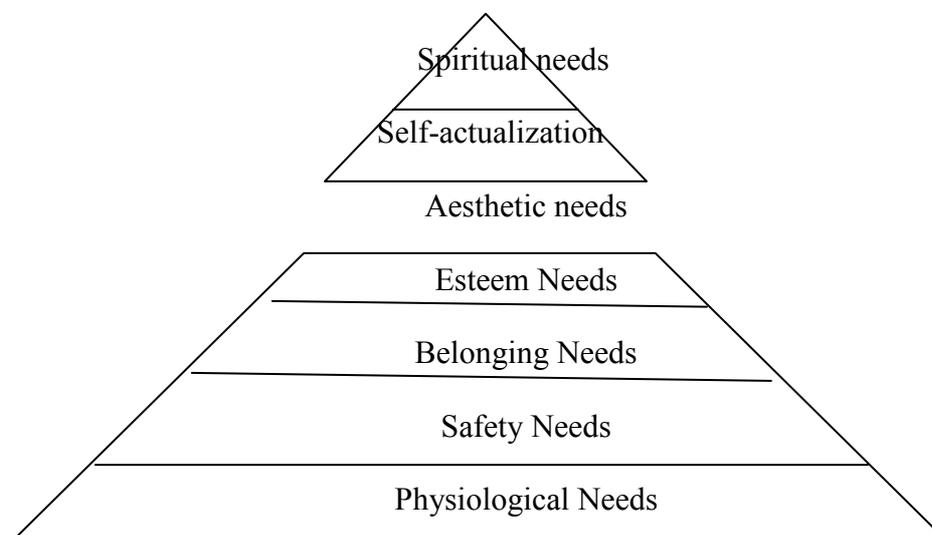
Brophy (1998: 3) says that motivation is a theoretical construct used to explain the initiation, direction, intensity, and persistence of behaviour, especially goal-directed behaviour. Another similar concept by Elliot, Kratochwill, Cook, and Travers (2000: 332) define motivation as an internal state that arouses one to action, pushes one in particular directions, and keeps one engaged in certain activities.

Dealing with motivation, Brown (2001: 72) divides the definition of motivation into two, based on the schools of psychology. They are behavioristic definition and cognitive definition. Behaviorists stress on the role of rewards and perhaps punishments in motivating behavior. Reward, according to Skinner (in Brown, 2001: 73), serves to reinforce behavior, that is to cause it to persist. Behaviorists define motivation as “the anticipation of reinforcement”. Rewards

function as reinforcement and good reinforcements will motivate individual to perform such behaviors in accordance with the stimulus given. Praises, gold stars, grades, certificates, diploma, and other things alike are powerful reinforcements. It means that such rewards are powerful motivations.

Cognitive definition places the focus on how individual's conscious attitude, thoughts, beliefs, and interpretation of events influence behavior; that is, how mental processes are transformed into actions. There are three different theories underlying this definition: (1) drive theory claims that motivation stems from basic innate drives. Ausubel (1968) in Brown (2001:73) elaborates six different drives: exploration, manipulation, activity, stimulation, knowledge and ego enhancement. All of those drives act as innate predisposition to control environment, to be physically active, to be responsive to mental, emotional, or physical stimulation to be yearn for answers to questions and to set up self-esteem; (2) hierarchy of needs theory views that a person is not adequately energized to gain higher needs until the lower foundation of the needs, such as air, water, food, rest and exercise, have been satisfied. Maslow in Dornyei (2001: 8) in his famous "Hierarchy of Needs", distinguishes five basic classes of needs: physiological needs, safety needs, love needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs. The needs form a *hierarchy*, with the lower, physiologically based needs having to be satisfied first before a person can strive for the higher needs. A person who is hungry and who has gotten little sleep, therefore, has little motivation to gain anything higher. Needs of safety (comfort, routine, protection) and for feeling of belonging (in a group of classmates or friends) must be fulfilled to gain full energy to the higher needs. Maslow (in Boeree, in Yamin 2008: 98) figures the hierarchy needs theory as following:

Figure 1. Maslow's hierarchy need theory.



In other words the basic needs must be satisfied to pursue higher ones, and (3) control theory focuses on the importance of people deciding for themselves what to think, feel or do. People define themselves by making their own decision rather than reacting to others. Motivation is highest when a person can make his or her own choices, whether they in long or short terms. When students have opportunities to make their own choices on what to gain and not to gain, as in cooperative learning context, they fulfill the needs for autonomy. This makes their motivation to pursue higher needs become greater.

Yamin (2008: 94) states that motivation may be explained by coordinating these three principles: (1) every behavior will result in a certain outcome. A person behaves certain behavior because he or she expects certain result or outcome. This is called outcome expectancy; (2) the outcome has certain value or interest for certain people. A person performs special action because he or she wants other people to be interested and pay attention to him or her. This is called valiancy; and (3) the outcome can be gained with certain efforts. Every outcome is related to the

perception on how difficult and how hard the efforts are. For instance, a student who believes that reading will make him pass the final examination will have to do harder effort to pass the exam and get good scores. This is called effort expectancy.

According to Harmer (1989: 3), motivation is some kinds of internal drive that encourages somebody to pursue a course of action. It seems to be the case that if an individual perceives a goal (that is something we wish to achieve) and that goal is sufficiently attractive, he or she will be strongly motivated to do whatever is necessary to reach that goal.

Whittaker (1970: 142) determines the characteristics of motivated behavior into four that differentiate them from unmotivated behavior.

1. Motivated behavior is cyclical. First, motives or drives are aroused from both physiological needs, such as food or water, and psychological need, such as the need for companionship or acquisition. Second, a sequence of behavior occurs when the individual is trying to satisfy or reduce the drives. Finally, some goals are reached whereby the drive is reduced.
2. A motive operates to make both behavior and experience in the organism selective. An animal that has been deprived of water but not food for a certain period of time will show greater effort to get water than food or other goals irrelevant to the arouse motives.
3. Motivated behavior is relatively active and persistent. A man may become increasingly persistent to search food as hunger is increasing on him, ultimately, as he approaches /starvation, activity and persistent diminish.
4. Motivated behavior is *homeostatic*. It means that everybody tends to preserve or maintain a constant physiological equilibrium.

Further, Whittaker (1970: 143) states that motives are originally classified into two; physiological and social motives. Physiological motives are inborn. They are originated in the physiological requirements and self-regulating process. They include hunger, thirst, sex, maternal motivation, rest, pleasant feeling, pain avoidance, etc. Social motives are acquired in the course of being socialized in a given culture. They are formed through interpersonal relations, established social values, norms, or intuitions. The main point of the relations between physiological and social motives is that once aroused, a motive influences behavior in the same way, regardless of origin.

2. Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

The incentive theory of motivation views that a reward, tangible or intangible, which is presented after an occurrence of an action (i.e. behavior) may cause the behavior to occur again. This is done by associating positive meaning to the behavior. Studies show that if the person receives the reward immediately, the effect would be greater, and decreases as duration lengthens. Repetitive action-reward combination can cause the action to become habit. Motivation comes from two things: motivator and other people. There is extrinsic motivation, which comes from others, and intrinsic motivation, which comes from within people.

Extrinsic motivation comes from outside the performer. Money is the most obvious example, but coercion and threat of punishment are also common extrinsic motivations. Extrinsically motivated behaviors, in contrast, are performed to anticipate the extrinsic reward, that is, the reward from outside and beyond the self.

The examples of extrinsic rewards are money, praises, grades, and certain positive feedback.

Intrinsic motivation is a motive that comes from the inner heart of the person himself and not because of the influence of extrinsic reward. Intrinsic motivation, according to Harmer (1989: 4), is the motivation which is concerned with what takes place in the classroom.

Deci (in Brown, 2001: 76) defines intrinsic motivation as follows:

Intrinsically motivated activities are one for which there is no apparent reward except the activity itself. People seem to engage in the activities for their own sake and not because they lead to an extrinsic reward. Intrinsically motivated behaviors are aimed at bringing about certain internally rewarding consequences, namely feeling of competence and self-determination.

Intrinsic motivation occurs when people engage in an activity, such as a hobby, without obvious external incentives. This form of motivation has been studied by social and educational psychologists since the early 1970s. Research has found that it is usually associated with high educational achievement and enjoyment by students.

Researches prove that intrinsic motivation is more powerful than the extrinsic one. Human beings universally view incongruity – or what Krashen and Teller (1988: 32) called “i + 1”, uncertainty and disequilibrium as motivating, since most people seek reasonable challenge to conquer. Maslow (in <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Motivation>) claims that intrinsic motivation is superior to extrinsic one. People are ultimately motivated to achieve self-actualization once the basic physical, safety and community needs are met. Bruner (/1962) (in Brown

2001:76) even emphasizes that the freedom from the control of reward is the most effective way to help children and adults to think and learn.

From the elaboration above, it is clear that intrinsic motivation influences human behaviors greater than extrinsic one. Thus, motivation in this research is focused on intrinsic motivation rather than the extrinsic ones.

3. Learning Motivation

Learning motivations exist in every learning behavior. Stronger learning motivation results in better learning performance. It is the duty of teachers, parents, and community to strengthen the students' learning motivation.

Winkel (1996: 150) defines learning motivation as all internal drives which prompts the learning activities, support the continuation of learning and direct the learning activities toward a particular goal. This means that learning motivation plays an important role to promote the spirit of learning so that students with high motivation have strong energy to perform learning.

Sardiman (1992: 75) defines learning motivation as non-intellectual psychical factors which have specific roles in promoting learning enthusiasm, joy, and interest. Natawijaya and Moesa (1992: 59-61) determine the roles of learning motivation as follows: (1) motivation determines learning reinforcement; (2) motivation determines the goal of learning; (3) motivation determines the types of control toward learning stimuli; and (4) motivation determines learning seriousness.

Honey (in <http://www.peterhoney.com/content/LearningMotivation.html>) suggests five important concepts of learning motivation. Firstly, learning motivation is an internal process which activates, guides, and maintains behaviour from time to

time. Individuals are motivated based on different reasons and intensity. For example, a student may be highly motivated to do a test in social science because he wants to get high score (extrinsic motivation), and he is highly motivated to do mathematic test because he likes mathematics (intrinsic motivation). Secondly, learning motivation is dependent on the theory underlying it. It may be a consequence of reinforcement, the degree of the needs, the effect of dissonance, the attribute of success or failure, or an expectancy of a success. Thirdly, learning motivation may be promoted by emphasizing the learning objectives. Fourthly, learning motivation can increase if teachers draw students' interest, maintain curiosity, apply various learning motivation, and give immediate and sufficient feedback. Finally, learning motivation may increase if teachers provide proper reward.

4. Learning Motivation in Foreign Language Education

Intrinsic motivation influences human behavior to pursue higher needs greater than the extrinsic one. It means that in education students will be more motivated to perform better learning when they have strong intrinsic learning motivation. Brown (2001: 77-78) suggests that teachers convert extrinsic motivation into the intrinsic one in the shake of better outcome of learning. Students may be given chance to satisfy their own very basic drive through the more students-centered learning. Working together in solving problems, by devoting balance participation to the team will meet the drive of self-actualization. The opportunity to share ideas through cooperative learning may result in better performance and the appreciation of love, intimacy, and respect of others. Class discussions which focus

on critical evaluation of society may result in a sense of belonging, a sense of the value of wider community and of harmony.

Regarding the role of intrinsic motivation in the second language classes, Brown (2001: 80) suggests teachers to consider the following activities to gain learners' self-determinations and autonomy:

- teaching writing as a thinking process in which learners develop their own ideas freely and openly,
- showing learners' strategies of reading that enable them to bring their own information to the written word,
- language experience approaches in which students create their own reading material for others in the class to read,
- oral fluency exercises in which learners talk about what interests them and not about teacher-assigned topic,
- listening to an academic lecture in one's own field of study for specific information that will fill a gap for the learner,
- communicative language teaching, in which language is taught to enable learners to accomplish certain specific function,
- grammatical explanations, if learners see their potential for increasing their autonomy in second language.

The example of bringing such extrinsic motivation into the intrinsic one is depicted in the following table:

Table 3. The example of bringing extrinsic motivation into intrinsic one.

Extrinsic Pressure	Intrinsic Innovation	Motivational Result
SCHOOL CURRUCULUM	Learner-centered Personal goal setting Individualization	Self-esteem Self-actualization Decide for self
PARENTAL EXPECTATION	Family values	Love, intimacy, acceptance, respect for wisdom
SAFETY'S EXPECTATION	Security of comfortable routines, task-based learning	Community, belonging, identity, harmony, security
TESTS AND EXAMS	Peer-evaluation, self-diagnosis, level-check exercise	Experience, knowledge
IMMEDIATE GRATIFICATION	Long term goals, the big picture things take time	Self-actualization
MAKE MONEY	Content-based teaching, ESP, vocational education Workplace ESL	Cooperation Harmony
COMPETITION	Cooperative learning Group work The class is a team	Manipulations, strength, status, security
NEVER FAIL	Risk-taking, innovation, creativity	Learn from mistakes, nobody's perfect, "c'est la vie"

Adapted from Brown (2001:79)

Then, Whittaker (1970: 376) states that intrinsically motivated second language learners show the following aspects: (1) high genuine interest; (2) positive attitude toward the lesson; (3) enthusiastic manner in learning; (4) hard effort in

fulfilling the goal; (5) high courage to discover the learning; and (6) ultimate autonomy and independence.

Kohn (1990) reports that certain types of extrinsic rewards can effect on intrinsic motivation: the positive feedback that learners perceive as a boost to their feelings of competence and self-determination. He, however, does not find any other external rewards which can have a lasting effect toward learning. Sincerely delivered positive feedback in the classroom that students see as the validation of their - own personal autonomy, critical thinking ability, and self – fulfillment can increase or maintain intrinsic motivation.

High genuine interest is shown in the attendance in the lesson. Students having high genuine interest perform hard effort to attend the lesson. They are curious to learn more and unsatisfied with what they get in the class. Positive attitude toward the lesson is shown with the attitude of being fond of the lesson. Students with this attitude usually enjoy learning and look forward to the lesson. Enthusiastic manner in learning is shown on how students involve themselves in learning activities by actively answering questions, do the assignment well, etc.

Intrinsically motivated students perform hard effort to fill their goals such as taking extra lesson and using other resources and ask questions. High courage to discover the learning is indicated with the courage of taking risks to construct learning. The effort is reflected in their trial to show their ideas, answer questions, contribute in problem solving, etc. Autonomy and independence are reflected in the behaviour that students do not depend on other people. They can perform learning without depending on other people even the teacher.

Further, Winkel (1996: 173-175) states that intrinsic motivation in learning activities exists when learning begins and continues based on the consciousness and drives which absolutely deal with the learning activities themselves. Thus, the intrinsic learning motivation arouses from the realization of the needs to be successful and students perform hard efforts through learning to satisfy the needs. The learning behavior is usually accompanied by high interest, positive attitude toward the lesson, curiosity, and consciousness that learning will enrich the students themselves.

Students are likely to be intrinsically motivated if they:

- attribute their educational results to internal factors that they can control (e.g. the amount of effort they put in),
- believe they can be effective agents in reaching desired goals (i.e. the results are not determined by luck),
- are interested in mastering a topic, rather than just rote-learning to achieve good grades.

Willing learners are self-motivated, thrive on challenge and change, and take responsibility for their learning and development. The more they want to learn, the easier and more sustainable it becomes – and the greater their contribution now and in the future. According to Honey (in http://www.peterhoney.com/content/Learning_Motivation.html) intrinsically motivated learners show the following behaviors: (1) holding positive beliefs about the worthwhileness of learning; (2) having enthusiasm about learning as an activity; (3) showing curiosity and

inquisitiveness; (4) demonstrating the courage to take risks in order to learn; and (5) showing resilience in the face of setbacks and disappointments.

Harmer (1989: 5-6) suggests some factors affecting intrinsic motivation in language learning under the heading of physical condition, method, the teacher, and success.

a. Physical condition

Physical conditions of the environment have a great effect on learning and can alter a student's motivation either positively or negatively. The setting, the condition and the atmosphere of the classroom are influential toward learning motivation. In general, teacher should presumably try to make his classroom as pleasantly as possible.

b. Method

The method and technique of teaching, using which students are taught, have some effects on their motivation. If they find it deadly boring, they will probably become de-motivated, whereas if they enjoy the situation and have confidence in the method they will find it motivating. The student's confidence in the method, the most important factor affecting intrinsic motivation, is largely in the hands of the teacher.

c. The teacher

Two teachers using the same method can have vastly different results. A good teacher is capable of helping to find and provide intrinsic motivation. In 1970 a study done by Denis Girard attempted to answer the question of how a teacher can support the students in providing intrinsic motivation. Clearly this study on its own is in no way conclusive, but it does suggest certain conclusions:

- 1) The teacher has to make his classes interesting.
- 2) The teacher must be fair, treat his students equally and as far as possible understand and act on the worries and aspirations of his pupil.
- 3) The teacher must offer a good model as the target language user.
- 4) The teacher must be a good technician: his students should understand what the students need, be able to pronounce words correctly, and be stimulated into activity in the target language.

d. Success

Success or lack of it plays a vital part in the motivational drive of a student. Both complete failure and complete success may be de-motivating. Though the student's success or failure relies on his own, the teacher may be influential toward the course of events in the student's favour. And it will be the teacher's job to set goals and tasks at which most of his/her students can be successful or he could realistically expect the students to be able to achieve.

While in extrinsic motivation, according to Winkel (1996: 173-175), learning behaviour begins and persists based on the drives which are not absolutely deal with the learning itself. It deals with external reward including praise, prize, and avoidance of threat or punishment. Moreover, extrinsic learning motivation involves: (1) learning for obligation; (2) learning for avoiding punishment; (3) learning for prizes; (4) learning for social status; (5) learning for praises; and (6) learning for position or promotion in career.

Dealing with Foreign Language Learning, Harmer (1989: 3) defines extrinsic motivation as the motivation which concerns with factors outside the classroom. There are two types of extrinsic motivation:

a. Integrative motivation

Here, the student is attracted by the culture of the target language community, and in the strong form of integrative motivation wishes to integrate himself into that culture. A weaker form of such motivation would be the student's desire to know as much as possible about the culture of the target language community.

b. Instrumental motivation

Here, the student believes that mastery of the target language will be instrumental in getting him a better job or position. The language is an instrument to be used by such a student.

From the above elaboration, it can be concluded that motivation is a set of reasons that determines one to engage in a particular behavior. It refers to the internal conditions or states that activate or energize human being to perform certain behavior to reach the goal. Motivated behavior has four characteristics: it is cyclical, makes a person selective, involves heightened activity, and relatively persistent, and it is homeostasis. Motives or drives may be physiological or psychological. Physiological motives are those to satisfy physical needs and psychological motives are ones as the influence of psychological needs. Based on the origin, motives are classified into intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is the motives that come from the inner heart of a person. It occurs when people engage in an activity, such as a hobby, without obvious external incentives. Extrinsic motivation comes from outside the performer. Money is the most obvious example, but coercion and threat of punishment are also common extrinsic motivations.

In education, intrinsic learning motivation plays greater role in increasing students' learning motivation than the extrinsic one. Therefore, learning activities should be provided with sufficient intrinsic learning motivation and teachers should convert the extrinsic motivation into the intrinsic one. Intrinsic learning motivation also lasts longer and plays greater role in increasing students' learning motivation, the teaching-learning process should give more chance for the students to develop their own choice in deciding their long term goals. The teaching-learning process, which now still tends to provide immediate reward or extrinsic motivation may be converted to the more challenging one which serves more intrinsic motivation by designing the class into more students-centered rather than teacher-centered. The classes should provide the students with more chance to solve some problems and make progress in learning by themselves through teamwork or cooperative learning. These will help them satisfy their very basic drive and students will perform greater effort to pursue higher needs.

Thus, it can be inferred that learning motivation involves: (1) positive beliefs about the worthwhileness of learning; (2) high genuine interest; (3) positive attitude toward the lesson; (4) enthusiasm about learning as an activity; (5) curiosity and inquisitiveness; (6) demonstrating the courage to take risk; (7) hard effort in fulfilling the goal; and (8) ultimate autonomy and independence.

F. Rationale

Writing is a complex work of language. It involves some aspects like grammar, spelling, punctuation, and organization. A good work of writing should fulfill a high degree of those aspects. To be able to produce a good work of writing,

students need to be given chance to learn how to write well. They need to know how a good work of writing should be like. They need to be given much chance to exercise. Exercises should be done often enough in the classroom so that students can learn how to begin and finish the work. The exercises give students chance to learn from their errors and be able to avoid it in the future.

Think-pair-share (TPS) is a model of cooperative learning that provides students with “food of thought.” In teaching writing, it gives students chance to dig their own ideas and share their ideas in pair before sharing them within small groups or the whole class. While sharing, the students learn to appreciate different opinions, contribute toward the groups in seeking for best work, and accept criticism or suggestion from their peers. In other words students can learn from other students and this reduces affective filters such as fear, shyness, and frustration. Therefore, the writer assumes that TPS is more effective than parallel writing, since in parallel writing students are not given broad chance to dig and develop their ideas. They only have to produce texts similar to the models. It means that their work of writing is tightly controlled and students often only imitate the grammar, mechanic, organization, and vocabulary from the model. It only gives reinforcement to their learning without any challenge to develop their own ideas. When they are asked to write in freer circumstances without any models given, they will find difficulties in deciding what and how to write in their own style.

Motivation determines the reinforcement, goal, seriousness and type of control toward stimuli of learning. Students with high motivation have strong energy to perform learning. They have greater effort in pursuing success than those with low motivation. They have strong intention to learn more than what is given in

the class. They tend to actively involve themselves in learning activities and problem solving, and this makes them experience many things. They are also eager to find other learning resources to make their work better. They are curious to know more than what they get from the teacher. Unlike students with high motivation, students with low motivation are usually lazy. They tend to be passive without significant involvement in the teaching and learning process. If they have some problems in learning, they are reluctant to solve them or ask their friends. Since they are not actively involved in the teaching learning process, they do not experience learning much. Based on the elaboration, the researcher assumes that students with high motivation have better writing achievement than those who have low motivation.

Teaching techniques influence students' motivation. The right choice of teaching techniques will help to increase students' motivation. Good teaching techniques motivate students to perform better learning and make them learn more easily than inappropriate techniques. The ease of learning promotes the outcome and good outcome gives satisfaction to the students. When students get satisfaction with the result of the learning process, their motivation will increase and they will seek for higher degree of knowledge which means they will learn more. On the contrary, improper choice of teaching techniques will make students easily get bored. When students feel it is difficult to understand the lesson, they will be frustrated. This reduces their motivation to learn more. Therefore, there is a significant interaction between teaching techniques and students' motivation. TPS is suitable for highly motivated students since it provides students with enough chance to develop their own ideas and to think more deeply about what they are going to

write. For students with low motivation, the researcher assumes that parallel writing is more suitable than TPS because in parallel writing students are required to write a text similar to the sample text. Here, they do not need to develop their own idea since the idea, the organization of texts, the grammar, the vocabulary, and the mechanic have been exemplified in the sample text.

G. Hypotheses

Based on the theory above, the hypothesis of this research can be formulated as follow:

1. In general, think-pair-share (TPS) is more effective than parallel writing to teach writing in the second year of SMA Negeri 1 Plosoklaten Kediri in the academic year of 2008/2009.
2. Students having high motivation have higher writing skill than the students having low motivation in the second year of SMA Negeri 1 Plosoklaten Kediri in the academic year of 2008/2009.
3. There is an interaction between teaching techniques and students' motivation for teaching writing to the second year of SMA Negeri 1 Plosoklaten Kediri in the academic year of 2008/2009.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents research methods that were used in this study. They cover the setting and time of the research, research design, population, sample and sampling, technique of collecting data, and technique of data analysis.

A. Setting and Time of the Research

This research was conducted in SMAN 1 Plosoklaten Kediri. This school was chosen purposively because think-pair-share model in cooperative learning had never been applied by the English teacher at that school. It was the result of preliminary study when the researcher asked some questions to the English teacher. Another reason was that it was possible to get permission to conduct the research at the school since the writer also teaches at the school.

This experimental research was conducted from February to July 2009 beginning from observation, writing the research proposal, up to writing the research report.

Table 4. Time schedule of the research

Time Schedule

No	Activities	Feb		March			April			May			June			July		
1	Observation																	
2	Writing the	v	v															

Then the experimental group and control group were given post-test in the form of writing test. The result was analyzed by comparing the post-test scores of both groups by using ANOVA or F-test and then the result was tested using Tukey test.

The design is presented by the following diagram:

Table 5. The diagram of a 2 x 2 multifactor analysis.

Motivation	Treatments	
	TPS	Conventional
High	Cell 1	Cell 3
Low	Cell 2	Cell 4
Mean		

C. Population, Sample, and Sampling

1. Population

Wiersma (1998: 78) defines population as the group to which the researcher would like the result of the study to be generalizable; it includes all the individuals with certain specified characteristic. It is the group to which a researcher hopes to apply the result of the research. Tuckman (1978: 227) defines population in educational research as the group about which the researcher is interested in gaining information and drawing conclusion. Further, he states that the term *defining the population* refers to the establishment of the boundary conditions that specify who shall be included in or excluded from the population. Arikunto (2006: 130) states; “*Populasi adalah keseluruhan subyek penelitian.*” Thus, population is the total number of respondents.

It is important for the researcher to determine the population before the sample is taken and treatments are given. Based on the title and background of this research, the population of this research is the second year students of SMA Negeri 1 Plosoklaten Kediri in 2008/2009 academic year. There are six classes in the population consisting of one class of language program (XI B), two classes of science program (XI IA 1 and XI IA 2), and three classes of social science program (XI IS 1, XI IS 2 and XI IS 3). Each class consists of 34 to 38 students. The total number of the population is 213 students.

2. Sample

Sample is any group from which information is obtained. The sample of this research is class XI IA 1 and XI IA 2 SMA Negeri 1 Plosoklaten in 2008/2009 academic year, each of which consists of 36 students. Class XI IA 1 is the experimental group, while class XI IA 2 is the control group.

3. Sampling

Sampling is the way or technique of taking samples out of a population. There are some ways of sampling, and this research uses cluster sampling as the way to take sample. The use of cluster sampling is due to the fact that the number of population is large enough, in accordance with Arikunto's statement (2006: 133) that samples can be used if the number of the population is too large to be observed wholly. Considering the number of population, the technique of cluster sampling is used to take the samples.

For the above reason, two classes were taken as the samples and in determining which two classes out of seven were chosen as the samples, the writer used cluster random sampling. The result was class XI IA 1 and XI IA 2 as the

samples. Then, the researcher had to decide which one of the two classes would be the experimental group and which one would be the control group. In this case, too, a lottery was applied and the result was; class XI IA 1 represented the experimental group and class XI IA 2 was as the control group.

After determining the experimental and the control group, questionnaire was distributed to the students. The score of the questionnaire was then analyzed to know who had high motivation and who had low motivation.

D. Technique of Collecting the Data

1. Writing Test

According to Margono (2000: 171), test is a set of stimulant given to respondents to get answer and to determine score. Heaton (1984: 1) explains that language test is constructed as device to reinforce language learning by assessing students' performance in the target language. Writing test in this research is used as the media to get the primary data of the students' writing score of narrative text. However, in this research, the aspects of writing that are evaluated are grammar, mechanic, vocabulary and organization skills. Those aspects are chosen for the reason that the teaching writing to the second year students of senior high school is intended on those aspects of writing.

Arikunto (2002: 127) defines test as a set of questions, exercises or other instruments which are used to measure skill, knowledge, intelligence, and aptitude of an individual or groups. Hughes (1998: 9-14) divides the test into four types based on the purpose of giving a test covering proficiency test (to measure how suitable candidates will be for performing certain task or following a specific

course), achievement test (to measure a student's mastery of what has been taught), diagnostic test (to check the student's progress for specific weakness and problem they may have encountered), and placement test (to sort students into groups according to their language ability at the beginning of a course). Moreover, Hughes (1998: 10) says that achievement test is to determine how successful individual students, group of students, or a course is in achieving objectives. This research uses the achievement test with the consideration that the researcher wants to know the students' writing achievement.

Concerning with the person who constructs the test, test can be divided into two kinds. Those are teacher-made test and standardized test (Arikunto, 2006: 223). Teacher-made test is a test created by the teacher with certain procedures. Standardized test is a test created by testing institution. The validity and reliability of such kinds of tests have been evaluated. In this research, a teacher-made test is used. The test is constructed based on the indicators used, which include grammatical, mechanical, and organization skills, and considering the 2006 English Curriculum for the second year students of senior high school. Besides, it is consulted to the English teacher to know whether the test can be given to the students or not.

In this research, a teacher-made test in the form of subjective test is administered. This test is chosen related to the use of cooperative learning think-pair-share (TPS) model for students' writing achievement. By applying this technique, it is expected that students are able to write composition more easily. Furthermore, composition test is applicable to the construction of writing achievement test. It means that by using composition test, it is possible to measure

students' achievement in composition writing more easily. Harris (1969: 69) explains that there are three strengths of composition test. First, composition test requires students to organize their ideas by using their own words, thus, it can measure certain writing ability more effectively. Second, composition test is able to motivate students to improve their writing skills. Third, composition test can be prepared more easily and quickly. He adds that the best way of measuring students' writing ability is to have them write.

In the process of conducting the test, the students were assigned to write a narrative text. The composition should contain at least three paragraphs functioning as orientation, complication, and resolution. The story should be original. The time given for doing the test is 75 minutes. The test was conducted after the students are given treatment or taught by using TPS technique for experimental group and taught using parallel writing for control group. The treatments were given in nine sessions in which each session was about 90 minutes. After the students' work had been submitted, analytical scoring method was applied to score the students' writing work. Analytical method is a method that gives different scores for different aspects of writing (Heaton, 1991: 147). Those aspects include organization, developing ideas, accuracy (grammar and vocabulary) and mechanics as discussed in the previous chapter.

To know whether the time given in writing test was enough or not, and to know whether the instruction of the test was clear or not for the respondents, the try out was administered. The try out was also used to evaluate whether the test was readable or not. So, it was given to other students out of the samples having the same level as the samples. Therefore, the respondents of the try out were the second

year students of SMAN 1 Plosoklaten Kediri who are not taken as the sample of the research. According to Yousda and Arifin (1992: 61), try out is important to make sure whether the test can be administered easily, the instruction is clear and understandable, and to evaluate the validity and the reliability of the test.

Concerning with the scoring system, analytical scoring method is used to score the writing aspects suggested by Hughes (1996: 19) and BSNP (2006) that cover organization, developing ideas, accuracy (grammar and vocabulary), and mechanics (spelling and punctuation). Further, Hughes (1996: 19) states that by using the analytical scoring method, the scorer has to give the scores that will tend to make the scoring more reliable. Hopefully, the scorer can give more objective scores and can get more specific information about the students' ability in writing. The errors of the writing aspects in this research are counted by using the scale from 1 to 5 for each writing aspects. Thus, the minimum score a student may obtain is 1 and the maximum score is 20 (For the scoring rubric, see appendix 5 on page 151).

Dealing with the validity and reliability, Hughes (1989: 22) states that test is said to be valid if it measures what it is intended to be measured. This research establishes content validity because the test is constructed based on the 2006 curriculum for SMA and it is used to measure the research indicators. Hughes (1989: 42) explains that a valid test must be reliable because it provides consistently accurate measurement. Based on the idea, this writing test is valid based on its content, and it is reliable since it has content validity.

The instruction of the test was then tested to some students to know whether it was readable or not. Unreadable instructions are not effective and do not function as they are supposed to. To check the readability of the instruction, it was tried out

to some respondents and they are asked whether it was readable and clear enough to do. The result of the try out showed that all the respondents stated that the instruction was readable.

There are two ways to score writing test with little subjectivity. They are by using intra rater and inter rater. Hughes (1996: 19) explains that to decrease subjectivity, the writing can be scored by two different scorers (inter rater) or one scorer scores the same writing test in different occasion (intra rater). In this research, the students' work was scored by two persons, the first was the researcher himself and the second was the English teacher who teaches in the sample classes. It means that in scoring the students' work the researcher used inter rater. Then the scores from the two scorers were compared and combined and the average score was taken as the final score. This final score was then analyzed statistically.

2. Questionnaire

Hornby and Ruse (1988: 508) defines questionnaire as a list of questions to be answered by a group of people especially to get facts or information. Arikunto (2006: 151) defines that questionnaire is a set of written questions used to obtain information from respondents in the form of their own personality and things they know. In a research, the term questionnaire is used to refer both the method and the instrument of collecting data.

Viewed from how the questions are answered, questionnaires are classified into two types: (1) open questionnaire, when respondents are given chance to answer openly with their own styles or sentences; and (2) closed questionnaire, the answers of the questions are provided by the interviewer, and the respondents are

expected to choose the answers. Based on the answers given, questionnaires are divided into two: (1) direct questionnaire, when the questions have to be answered by and about the respondents themselves; and (2) indirect questionnaire, if the respondents are required to answer questions about other people. Viewed from the form of the questions, there are four types of questionnaires: (1) multiple choice questionnaires. In this type of questionnaire, the answers of the questions are provided by the interviewer and respondents are just to choose the answers. Thus, it is similar to closed questionnaire; (2) fill-in questionnaire, when the respondents are to answer the questions by filling in the spaces given with their own sentences. This type is similar to open questionnaire; (3) check list, in which the questions and the answers are provided in such a list that respondents are just to give checks ($\sqrt{\quad}$) on the most suitable answer; and (4) rating-scale, when respondents are required to give statements followed by column showing the degree of agreement.

Tuckman (1978: 196) states:

“Questionnaires and interviews are used by researcher to convert into data the information directly given by a person (subject). By providing access to what is “inside a person’s head,” these approaches make it possible to measure what a person knows (knowledge or information), and what a person thinks (attitude and beliefs). Questionnaires and interviews can also be used to discover what experiences have taken place (biography) and what is occurring at the present.”

Thus, questionnaires are used to dig information about respondents’ mental state dealing with what they know, what they believe, what they think, and what experience they have undergone and are undergoing now. In this research, the questionnaire is used to obtain information about the students’ motivation. It is used considering that the questions may be answered by the respondents simultaneously

and confidentially. It may be standardized so that all respondents receive exactly the same questions.

The type of the questionnaire used in this research was close-direct-multiple choice questionnaire since this type is easier to be applied and it can save more time and money. Before being applied, the questionnaire was tried out to analyze its validity and reliability.(For the complete blue print and the questionnaire, see appendix 3 and appendix 4 on page 147 and 148)

In analyzing the data obtained from the questionnaires, respondents' answer was scored then the scores were put into table of score and the validity was analyzed by using the following formula:

$$1. \sum x_i^2 = \sum X_i^2 - \frac{(\sum X_i)^2}{n}$$

$$2. r_{it} = \frac{\sum x_i x_t}{\sqrt{(\sum x_i^2)(\sum x_t^2)}}$$

The result of the computation (r_o) was compared with the value in validity table (r_t). If r_o is higher than r_t ($r_o > r_t$), the item is valid. After that, the reliability test was administered. The formula is:

$$r_{kk} = \frac{k}{k-1} \left(1 - \frac{\sum s_{t^2}}{s_{t^2}}\right)$$

If the coefficient of reliability (r_{kk}) is higher than r_t ($r_o > r_t$), the instrument is reliable.

The valid and reliable questionnaires about students' motivation were distributed to the samples to be responded. The answers were then scored and the

4score was ranked. From the rank of the score, the researcher knew who and how many students had high motivation and how many had low motivation.

At first, the researcher constructed 54 questions. The questions were tried out and at the first analysis, 45 questions were valid. Then the analysis was continued on valid out questions or valid on valid questions. The analysis resulted in 44 questions valid out and 44 questions are used. Then, reliability test was administered and the coefficient of reliability of the questionnaires (r_{kk}) was 0.999. It was higher than the value of r table (r_t). Because r_{kk} (0.999) is higher than r_t (0.361), the questionnaires are reliable. (For the complete analysis of validity and reliability, see appendix 6 on page 158 and appendix 7 on page 162).

E. Technique of Data Analysis

Data analysis method is a way to analyze the obtained data. In this research, the primary data were obtained in the form of students' writing score in the post-test. The students' works of writing are scored by using the writing scoring rubric (see table 15 in appendix 5 on page 151). The scoring rubric consists of four sub skills namely generic structure, developing ideas, accuracy, and mechanics. Each sub skill ranges from 0 to 5, so the highest score is 20. The means scores of the two groups are compared to know whether there is a significant difference.

The writing scores of both experimental and control group were first analyzed using the F-test ANOVA. The formula of ANOVA is as the following:

1. The total sum of the squares:

$$\sum x_i^2 = \sum X_i^2 - \frac{(\sum X_i)^2}{N}$$

2. The sum of squares between groups:

$$\sum x_t^2 = \frac{(\sum X_1)^2}{n_1} + \frac{(\sum X_2)^2}{n_2} + \frac{(\sum X_3)^2}{n_3} + \frac{(\sum X_4)^2}{n_4} - \frac{(\sum X_t)^2}{N_2}$$

3. The sum of squares within groups:

$$\sum x_w^2 = \sum X_t^2 - \sum X_b^2$$

4. The between-columns sum of squares:

$$\sum x_{bc}^2 = \frac{(\sum X_{c1})^2}{n_{c1}} + \frac{(\sum X_{c2})^2}{n_{c2}} - \frac{(\sum X_t)^2}{N}$$

5. The between-rows sum of squares:

$$\sum x_{br}^2 = \frac{(\sum X_{r1})^2}{n_{r1}} + \frac{(\sum X_{r2})^2}{n_{r2}} - \frac{(\sum X_t)^2}{N}$$

6. The sum-of-squares interaction:

$$\sum x_{int} = \sum x_b^2 - (\sum x_{bc}^2 + \sum x_{br}^2)$$

7. The number of degrees of freedom associated with each source of variation:

df for between-columns sum of squares = C – 1

df for between-rows sum of squares = R – 1

df for interaction = (C – 1)(R – 1)

df for between-groups sum of squares = G – 1

df for within-groups sum of squares = $\sum (n - 1)$

df for total sum of squares = N – 1

where

C = the number of columns,

R = the number of rows,

G = the number of groups,

n = the number of subjects in one group, and

N = the number of subjects in all groups.

The result of data analysis was consulted to the F_{table} at the significance level $\alpha = 0.05$ to know whether the result was significant or not. If the result of $F_{computation}$ is higher than F_{table} , it means that the null hypothesis is rejected and the result this research was significant. If the result of the analysis is significant, then, the degree of effectiveness is analyzed.

If there is an interaction, the data are analyzed using Tukey-test. The formula of Tukey-test is as follow:

1. TPS compared with parallel writing:

$$q = \frac{\bar{X}_{c1} - \bar{X}_{c2}}{\sqrt{ErrorVariance / n}}$$

2. TPS compared with parallel writing for students having high motivation

$$q = \frac{\bar{X}_{c1r1} - \bar{X}_{c2r1}}{\sqrt{ErrorVariance / n}}$$

3. TPS compared with parallel writing for students having high motivation

$$q = \frac{\bar{X}_{c1r2} - \bar{X}_{c2r2}}{\sqrt{ErrorVariance / n}} \quad \text{or} \quad q = \frac{\bar{X}_{c2r2} - \bar{X}_{c1r2}}{\sqrt{ErrorVariance / n}}$$

q_o is compared with q_t , if $q_o > q_t$, the difference is significant.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH FINDING

A. Data Description

The data distribution in this research is classified into six groups: (1) the students taught using Think-Pair-Share (TPS) technique (A_1); (2) the students taught using parallel writing (A_2); (3) the students having high learning motivation who are taught using Think-Pair-Share (TPS) technique (A_1B_1); (4) the students having high learning motivation who are taught using Think-Pair-Share (TPS) technique (A_1B_2); (5) those having high motivation who are taught using parallel writing (A_2B_1); and (6) those having low learning motivation who are taught using parallel writing (A_2B_2).

1. The students taught using Think-Pair-Share (TPS) technique (A_1)

- a. The highest score is 18
- b. The lowest score is 9
- c. Range (r) is 9
- d. The number of classes is $1 + (3.3) \log n = 1 + 4.293399 = 5.293399$
(6 is used)
- e. Class width (interval) = $\frac{9}{5} = 1.8$ (2 is used)

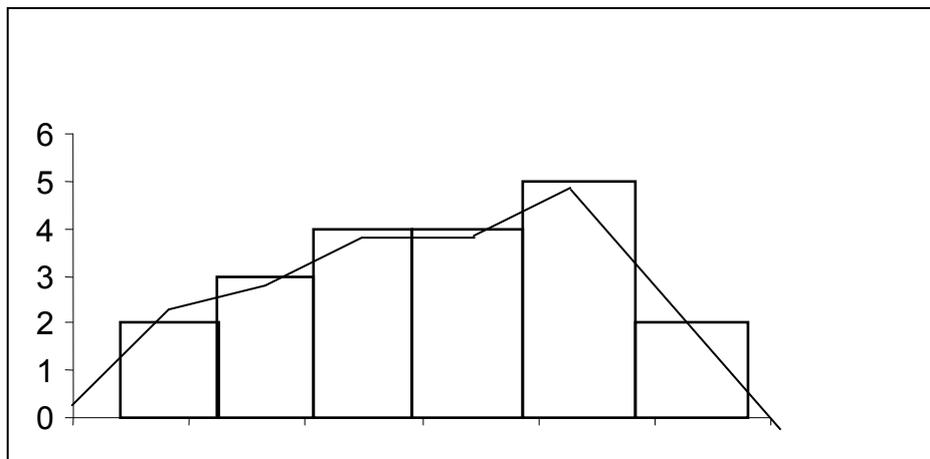
e. Tally the data

Table 6. Tally the data of A_1

Class limits	Frequency
9 – 10	2
11 – 12	3
13 – 14	4
15 – 16	4
17 – 18	5
19 – 20	2

f. Histogram/polygon

Figure 2. Histogram/polygon of A_1



h. Mean:

$$1) \text{ Individual data } \bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{n} = \frac{292.5}{20} = 14.7$$

$$2) \text{ Data in frequency distribution: } \bar{X} = \frac{\sum f_i X_i}{n} = \frac{294.5}{20} = 14.7$$

i. Mode :

1) Individual data 17

2) Data in Frequency distribution:

$$Mo = L + i \left(\frac{f_1}{f_1 + f_2} \right) = 16.5 + 6 \left(\frac{1}{1+3} \right) = 5.625$$

j. Median :

1) Individual data = 15.5

2) Data in Frequency distribution:

$$Me = L + i \left(\frac{\frac{n}{2} - cfb_1}{fw} \right) = 14.5 + 6 \left(\frac{\frac{20}{2} - 9}{4} \right) = 16$$

k. Standard deviation:

$$1) \text{ Individual data: } s = \sqrt{\frac{x^2}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{174.4375}{19}} = 3.03$$

2) Data in Frequency distribution:

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum f_i X_i^2 - \frac{(\sum f_i X_i)^2}{n}}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{4509 - \frac{86436}{20}}{19}} = 3.13$$

2. The students taught using parallel writing (A_2)

b. The highest score is 18

c. The lowest score is 7

c. Range (r) is 11

d. The number of classes is $1 + (3.3) \log n = 1 + 4.293399 = 5.29$ (6 is used)

e. Class width (interval) = $\frac{11}{5} = 2.2$ (2 is used)

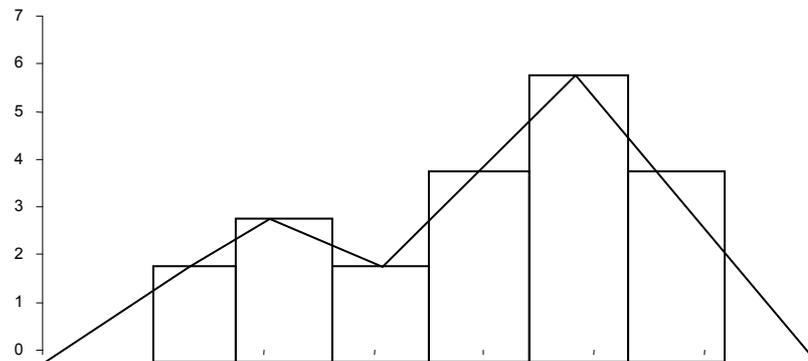
f. Tally the data

Table 7. Tally the data of A_2

Class limits	Frequency
7 – 8	2
9 – 10	3
11 – 12	2
13 – 14	4
15 – 16	6
17 – 18	4

g. Histogram/ polygon

Figure 3. Histogram/polygon of A_2



h. Mean :

1) Individual data: $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{n} = \frac{268.5}{20} = 13.425$

2) Data in frequency distribution: $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum f_i X_i}{n} = \frac{270}{20} = 13.5$

i. Mode :

1) Individual data: = 16

2) Data in frequency distribution:

$$Mo = L + i \left(\frac{f_1}{f_1 + f_2} \right) = 15.5 + 2 \left(\frac{2}{2+2} \right) = 16.5$$

j. Median:

1) Individual data = 13.5

2) Data in Frequency distribution:

$$Me = L + i \left(\frac{\frac{n}{2} - cfb_1}{fw} \right) = 12.5 + 2 \left(\frac{\frac{20}{2} - 7}{4} \right) = 14$$

k. Standard deviation:

1) Individual data: $s = \sqrt{\frac{x^2}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{241.6375}{19}} = 3.57$

2) Data in Frequency distribution:

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum f_i X_i^2 - \frac{(\sum f_i X_i)^2}{n}}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{3869 - \frac{72900}{20}}{19}} = 3.43$$

3. The students having high learning motivation who are taught using Think-Pair-

Share (TPS) technique (A_1B_1)

a. The highest score is 19

b. The lowest score is 11

c. Range (r) is 8

d. The number of classes is $1 + (3.3) \log n = 1 + 3.3 = 4.3$ (5 is used)

e. Class width (interval) = $\frac{8}{4} = 2$

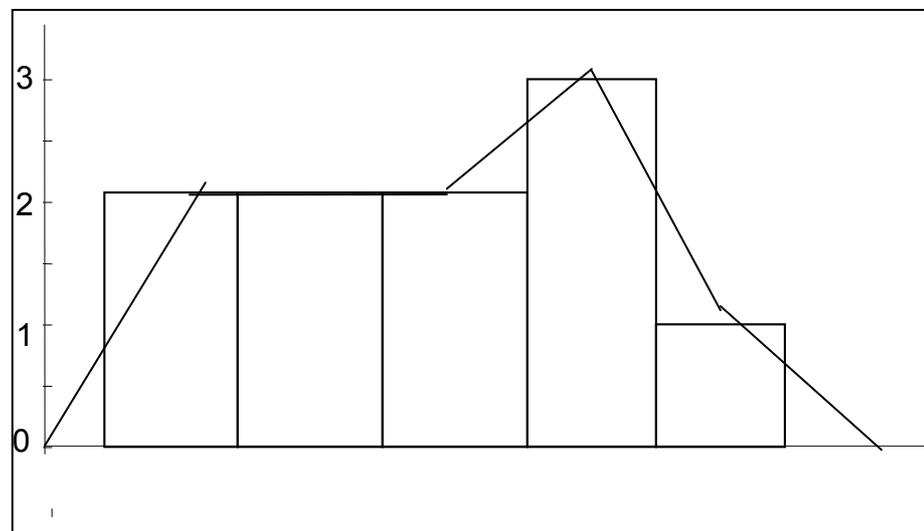
f. Tally the data

Table 8. Tally the data of A_1B_1

Class limits	Frequency
11 – 12	2
13 – 14	2
15 – 16	2
17 – 18	3
19 – 20	1

g. Histogram/polygon

Figure 4. Histogram/polygon of A_1B_1



h. Mean:

1) Individual data: $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{n} = \frac{150.5}{10} = 15.05$

2) Data in frequency distribution: $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum f_i X_i}{n} = \frac{153}{10} = 15.3$

i. Mode :

1) Individual data = 17

2) Data in frequency distribution

$$Mo = L + i \left(\frac{f_1}{f_1 + f_2} \right) = 16.5 + 2 \left(\frac{1}{1+2} \right) = 17.17$$

j. Median:

1) Individual data = 15.5

2) Data in frequency distribution:

$$Me = L + i \left(\frac{\frac{n}{2} - cfb_1}{fw} \right) = 14.5 + 2 \left(\frac{\frac{10}{2} - 4}{2} \right) = 15.5$$

k. Standard deviation:

1) Individual data $s = \sqrt{\frac{x^2}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{69.225}{9}} = 2.77$

2) Data in frequency distribution:

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum f_i X_i^2 - \frac{(\sum f_i X_i)^2}{n}}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{2408.5 - 2340.9}{9}} = 2.74$$

4. The students having high learning motivation who are taught using Think-Pair-

Share (TPS) technique ($A_1 B_2$)

a. The highest score is 19

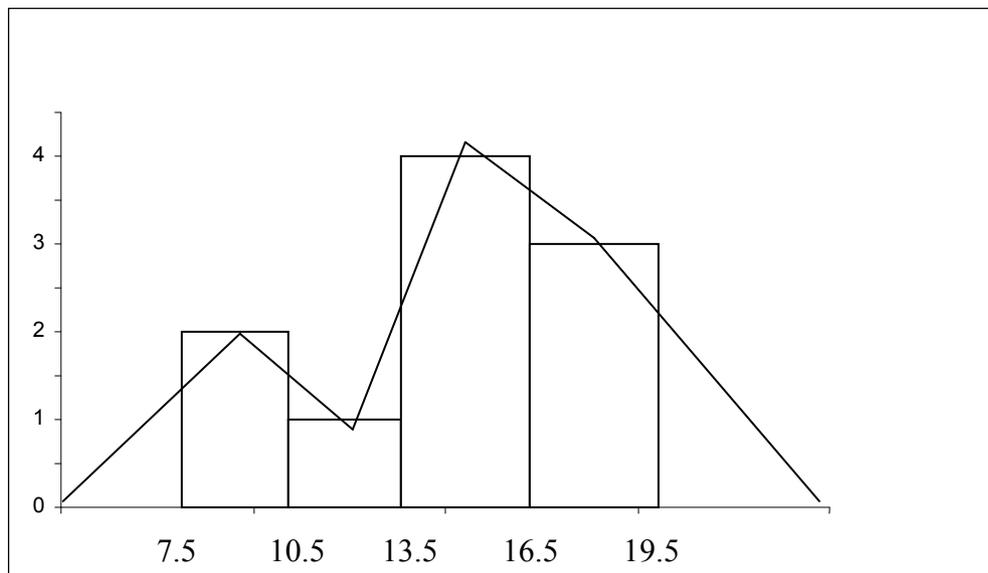
b. The lowest score is 9

- c. Range (r) is 10
- d. The number of classes is $1 + (3.3) \log n = 1 + 3.3 = 4.3$ (4 is used)
- e. Class width (interval) = $\frac{10}{4} = 2.5$ (3 is used)
- f. Tally the data

Table 9. Tally the data of A_1B_2

Class limits	Frequency
8 – 10	2
11 – 13	1
14 – 16	4
17 – 19	3

- g. Histogram/polygon

Figure 5. Histogram/polygon of A_1B_2 

- h. Mean:

1) Individual data: $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{n} = \frac{142}{10} = 14.2$

2) Data in frequency distribution: $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum f_i X_i}{n} = \frac{144}{10} = 14.4$

i. Mode

1) Individual data = 9/14/17

2) Data in frequency distribution:

$$Mo = L + i \left(\frac{f_1}{f_1 + f_2} \right) = Mo = 13.5 + 3 \left(\frac{3}{3 + 1} \right) = 14.25$$

j. Median

1) Individual data: = 14.5

2) Data frequency distribution:

$$Me = L + i \left(\frac{\frac{n}{2} - cfb_1}{fw} \right) = 13.5 + 3 \left(\frac{\frac{10}{2} - 3}{4} \right) = 15$$

k. Standard deviation:

1) Individual data: $s = \sqrt{\frac{x^2}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{101.6}{9}} = 3.36$

2) Data in frequency distribution:

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum f_i X_i^2 - \frac{(\sum f_i X_i)^2}{n}}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{2178 - 2073.6}{9}} = 3.41$$

5. The students having high motivation who are taught using parallel writing

(A_2B_1)

a. The highest score is 18

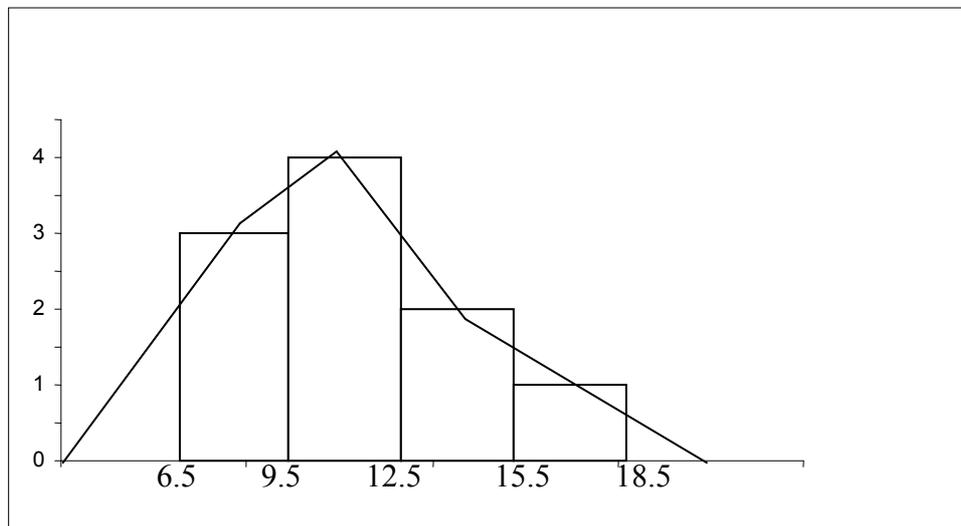
b. The lowest score is 7

- c. Range (r) is 11
- d. The number of classes is $1 + (3.3) \log n = 1 + 3.3 = 4.3$ (4 is used)
- e. Class width (interval) = $\frac{11}{4} = 2.75$ (3 is used)
- f. Tally the data

Table 10. Tally the data of A_2B_1

Class limits	Frequency
7 – 9	3
10 – 12	2
13 – 15	3
16 – 18	2

- g. Histogram/polygon

Figure 6. Histogram/polygon of A_2B_1 

- h. Mean:

1) Individual data: $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{n} = \frac{121}{10} = 12.1$

2) Data in frequency distribution: $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum f_i X_i}{n} = \frac{122}{10} = 12.2$

i. Mode

1) Individual data: = 13

2) Data in frequency distribution:

$$Mo = L + i \left(\frac{f_1}{f_1 + f_2} \right) = 12.5 + 3 \left(\frac{1}{1+1} \right) = 14$$

j. Median

1) Individual data: = 13

2) Data in frequency distribution:

$$Me = L + i \left(\frac{\frac{n}{2} - cfb_1}{fw} \right) = 12.5 + 3 \left(\frac{\frac{10}{2} - 5}{3} \right) = 12.5$$

k. Standard deviation:

1) Individual data $s = \sqrt{\frac{x^2}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{121}{9}} = 3.60$

2) Data in frequency distribution:

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum f_i X_i^2 - \frac{(\sum f_i X_i)^2}{n}}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{1600 - 1488.4}{9}} = 3.52$$

6. The students having low learning motivation who are taught using parallel writing (A_2B_2)

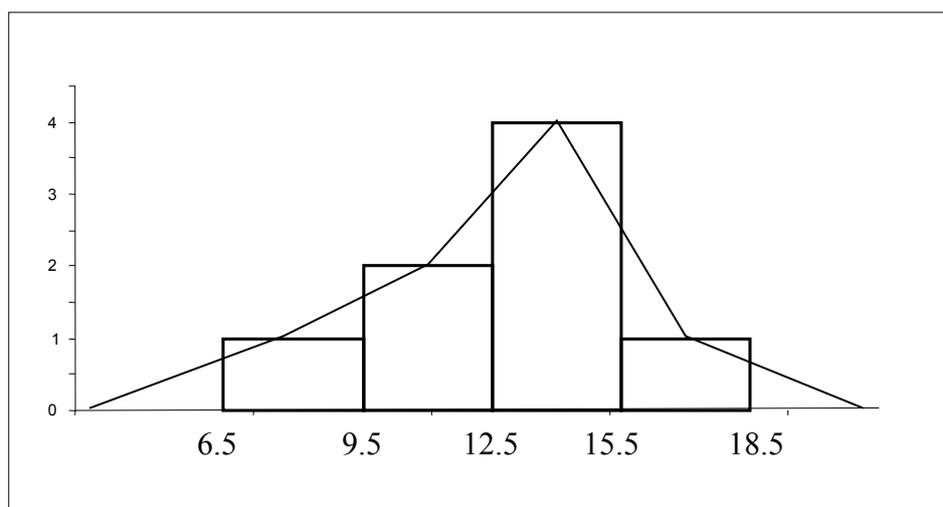
a. The highest score is 18

- b. The lowest score is 8.5
- c. Range (r) is 9.5
- d. The number of classes is $1 + (3.3) \log n = 1 + 3.3 = 4.3$ (4 is used)
- e. Class width (interval) = $\frac{9.5}{4} = 2.375$ (3 is used)
- f. Tally the data

Table 10. Tally the data of A_2B_2

Class limits	Frequency
7 – 9	1
10 – 12	1
13 – 15	3
16 – 18	5

- h. Histogram/polygon

Figure 7. Histogram/polygon of A_2B_2 

- h. Mean:

1) Individual data: $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{n} = \frac{148.5}{10} = 14.85$

2) Data in frequency distribution: $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum f_i X_i}{n} = \frac{146}{10} = 14.6$

i. Mode

1) Individual data: 17

2) Data in frequency distribution:

$$Mo = L + i \left(\frac{f_1}{f_1 + f_2} \right) = 15.5 + 3 \left(\frac{2}{2 + 5} \right) = 16.4$$

j. Median

1) Individual data: = 15.5

2) Data in frequency distribution:

$$Me = L + i \left(\frac{\frac{n}{2} - cfb_1}{fw} \right) = 15.5 + 3 \left(\frac{\frac{10}{2} - 4}{0} \right) = 15.5$$

k. Standard deviation:

1) Individual data: $s = \sqrt{\frac{x^2}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{89.025}{9}} = 3.15$

2) Data in frequency distribution:

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum f_i X_i^2 - \frac{(\sum f_i X_i)^2}{n}}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{2218 - \frac{21316}{10}}{9}} = 3.09$$

B. Data Analysis

Before testing the hypotheses, the normality and the homogeneity of the data must be tested. Therefore, after classifying the data into their groups, the researcher analysed the normality and the homogeneity of the data.

1. Data Normality

a. The students who are taught using TPS (A_1)

- $\sum X_1 = 293$
- $\sum X_1^2 = 4452$
- $\bar{X} = 14.6$

$$a. \quad s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum X^2 - \frac{(\sum X)^2}{n}}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{4452 - \frac{(293)^2}{20}}{20-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{159.155}{19}} = 2.898$$

$$b. \quad z_1 = \frac{X - \bar{X}}{s} = \frac{9 - 14.6}{2.898} = -1.93$$

$$c. \quad F(z_1) = 0.5 - (\text{Table E}) = 0.5 - 0.4732 = 0.0268$$

$$d. \quad s(z_1) = \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{10} = 0.1$$

$$e. \quad L_o = F(z_i) - s(z_i) = 0.0268 - 0.1 = -0.0732$$

The highest value of $|F(Z_1) - S(Z_1)|$ or L_o is 0.0749. L_t is 0.190. Because L_o is lower than L_t or $L_o (0.0749) < L_t (0.190)$, the sample is in normal distribution

b. The students who are taught using parallel writing having (A_2)

- $\sum X_1 = 269$
- $\sum X_1^2 = 3846$

- $\bar{X}=12.2$

$$1) \quad s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum X^2 - \frac{(\sum X)^2}{n}}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{3846 - \frac{(269)^2}{20}}{20-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{227.95}{19}} = 3.464$$

$$2) \quad z_1 = \frac{X - \bar{X}}{s} = \frac{7 - 12.2}{3.464} = -1.50$$

$$3) \quad F(z_1) = 0.5 - (\text{TableE}) = 0.5 - 0.4332 = 0.0668$$

$$4) \quad s(z_1) = \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{10} = 0.1$$

$$5) \quad L_o = F(z_i) - s(z_i) = 0.0668 - 0.1 = -0.0332$$

The highest value of $|F(Z_1) - S(Z_1)|$ or L_o is 0.1415. L_t is 0.190. Because L_o is lower than L_t or $L_o(0.1415) < L_t(0.190)$, the sample is in normal distribution

c. The students having high learning motivation who are taught using TPS (A_1B_1)

- $\sum X_1 = 151$

- $\sum X_1^2 = 2334$

- $X = 15.1$

$$1) \quad s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum X^2 - \frac{(\sum X)^2}{n}}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{2334 - \frac{(151)^2}{10}}{10-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{53.9}{9}} = 2.447$$

$$2) \quad z_1 = \frac{X - \bar{X}}{s} = \frac{11 - 15.1}{2.447} = -1.68$$

$$3) \quad F(z_1) = 0.5 - (\text{TableE}) = 0.5 - 0.4625 = 0.0375$$

$$4) \quad s(z_1) = \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{10} = 0.1$$

$$5) \quad L_o = F(z_i) - s(z_i) = 0.0375 - 0.1 = -0.0625$$

The highest value of $|F(Z_1) - S(Z_1)|$ or L_o is 0.1740. L_t is 0.258. Because L_o is lower than L_t or L_o (0.1740) < L_t (0.258), it can be concluded that the sample is in normal distribution.

d. The students having high learning motivation who are taught using parallel writing (A_1B_2)

- $\sum X_1 = 142$
- $\sum X_1^2 = 2118$
- $\bar{X} = 14.2$

$$1) s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum X^2 - \frac{(\sum X)^2}{n}}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{2118 - \frac{(142)^2}{10}}{10-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{53.9}{9}} = 3.36$$

$$2) z_1 = \frac{X - \bar{X}}{s} = \frac{9 - 14.2}{3.36} = -1.82$$

$$3) F(z_1) = 0.5 - (Table E) = 0.5 - 0.4656 = 0.0344$$

$$4) s(z_1) = \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{10} = 0.1$$

$$5) L_o = F(z_1) - s(z_1) = 0.0344 - 0.1 = -0.0656$$

The highest value of $|F(Z_1) - S(Z_1)|$ or L_o is 0.1394. L_t is 0.258. Because L_o is lower than L_t or L_o (0.1394) < L_t (0.258), it can be concluded that the sample is in normal distribution.

e. The students who have low motivation who are taught using TPS (A_2B_1)

- $\sum X_1 = 121$
- $\sum X_1^2 = 1581$

- **X=12.1**

$$1) s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum X^2 - \frac{(\sum X)^2}{n}}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{1581 - \frac{(121)^2}{10}}{10-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{53.9}{9}} = 3.604$$

$$2) z_1 = \frac{X - \bar{X}}{s} = \frac{7 - 12.1}{3.604} = -1.42$$

$$3) F(z_1) = 0.5 - (TableE) = 0.5 - 0.4222 = 0.0778$$

$$4) s(z_1) = \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{10} = 0.1$$

$$5) L_o = F(z_1) - s(z_1) = 0.0778 - 0.1 = -0.0222$$

The highest value of $|F(Z_1) - S(Z_1)|$ or L_o is 0.119. L_t is 0.258. Because L_o is lower than L_t or $L_o (0.119) < L_t (0.258)$, it can be concluded that the sample is in normal distribution.

f. The students having low learning motivation who are taught using parallel writing

(A_2B_2)

- $\sum X_1 = 149$

- $\sum X_1^2 = 2294$

- **X=14.9**

$$1) s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum X^2 - \frac{(\sum X)^2}{n}}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{2294 - \frac{(149)^2}{10}}{10-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{73.9}{9}} = 2.866$$

$$2) z_1 = \frac{X - \bar{X}}{s} = \frac{8.5 - 14.9}{2.866} = -2.233$$

$$3) F(z_1) = 0.5 - (TableE) = 0.5 - 0.4871 = 0.0129$$

$$4) s(z_1) = \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{10} = 0.1$$

$$5) L_o = F(z_i) - s(z_i) = 0.0129 - 0.1 = -0.0871$$

The highest value of $|F(Z_1) - S(Z_1)|$ or L_o is 0.1515. L_t is 0.258. Because L_o is lower than L_t or $L_o (0.1515) < L_t (0.258)$, it can be concluded that the sample is in normal distribution.

The complete computation of normality analysis is presented in appendix 12 on page 174 – 181.

2. Data Homogeneity

$$a. s_1^2 = \frac{\sum X_1^2 - \frac{(\sum X_1)^2}{n}}{n-1} = \frac{2334.25 - \frac{(150.5)^2}{10}}{10-1} = 2.031$$

$$b. s_2^2 = \frac{\sum X_2^2 - \frac{(\sum X_2)^2}{n}}{n-1} = \frac{2118 - \frac{(142)^2}{10}}{10-1} = 11.289$$

$$c. s_3^2 = \frac{\sum X_3^2 - \frac{(\sum X_3)^2}{n}}{n-1} = \frac{1581 - \frac{(121)^2}{10}}{10-1} = 13.00$$

$$d. s_4^2 = \frac{\sum X_4^2 - \frac{(\sum X_4)^2}{n}}{n-1} = \frac{2294.25 - \frac{(148)^2}{10}}{10-1} = 10.385$$

$$e. s^2 = \left\{ \frac{\sum (n_i - 1) s_i^2}{\sum (n_i - 1)} \right\} = \\ = \frac{9(2.031) + 9(11.289) + 9(13.00) + 9(10.385)}{9 + 9 + 9 + 9} = 9.16758$$

$$f. \log s^2 = \log 9.16758 = 0.962255$$

$$g. B = (\log s^2) \sum (n_i - 1) = (0.962255)(36) = 34.64118$$

Table 12. The computation of data homogeneity

Sample	Df	1/df	S_1^2	$\log s_1^2$	$(df)\log s_1^2$
1	9	0,11	2.031	0.30771	2.76939
2	9	0,11	11.289	1.052655	9.473895
3	9	0,11	13.00	1.113943	10.025487
4	9	0,11	10.385	1.016407	9.147663
Σ	36	0,4			31.41644

$$x^2 = (In10)\left\{B - \sum (n_i - 1)\log s_i^2\right\} = (2.3026)(34.64118 - 31.41644) = 7.43$$

Because $x_o^2 (7.43)$ is lower than $x_{t(.95)(5)}^2 (7.81)$, it can be concluded that the data are homogeneous (For complete data, see table 19 in appendix 13 on page 182)

3. Testing Hypotheses

The data collected in this research are analyzed using the ANOVA followed by Tukey test. (For details, see appendix 14 on page 183)

a. ANOVA

Table 13. The summary of a 2 x 2 multifactor analysis of variance

Source of variance	SS	df	MS	F_o	$F_{t(.05)}$	$F_{t(.01)}$
Between columns (Teaching Techniques)	44.1	1	44.1	11.542	4.17	7.58
Between rows (Learning Motivation)	32.4	1	32.4	8.48	4.17	7.58
Columns by rows (Interaction)	70.225	1	70.225	18.3795	4.17	7.58
Between groups	146.725	3	48.98			
Within groups	137.55	36	3.82083			
Total	284.275	39				

The summary of a 2x2 multifactor analysis above shows that:

- a. $F_{\text{observation}}$ (F_o) between columns, the comparative analysis between the effect of teaching writing using TPS technique and parallel writing, shows the value of 11.542. The F_{table} (F_t) at the level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$ ($F_{t(0.05)}$) is 4.17 and F_t at the significance level $\alpha = 0.01$ ($F_{t(0.01)}$) is 7.58. F_o (11.542) is higher than $F_{t(0.05)}$ (4.17) and $F_{t(0.01)}$ (7.58). It means there is a significant difference between the means of column 1 and that of column 2. It can be concluded that TPS differs significantly from parallel writing in its effect on the performance of the subjects in writing skill.
- b. The value of $F_{\text{observation}}$ (F_o) between rows, the comparative analysis of the learning achievement between the students having high motivation and those having low motivation, is 8.480. F_o (8.480) is higher than F_{table} at the significance level $\alpha = 0.05$ ($F_{t(0.05)}$ (4,17)) and F_{table} at the significance level $\alpha = 0.01$ ($F_{t(0.01)}$ (7.58)). It means that the difference between the means of the students' learning achievement of the students having high learning motivation is significant.
- c. The value of F_o interaction, the interaction between teaching techniques and learning motivation, is 18.378. So, F_o interaction (18.378) is higher than F_{table} at the significance level $\alpha = 0.05$ ($F_{t(0.05)}$) (4,17) and $\alpha = 0.01$ ($F_{t(0.01)}$) (7.58). It means there is an interaction effect between the two variables, teaching techniques and learning motivation. It can be concluded that the effect of

teaching techniques on the students' performance in writing depends on the degree of learning motivation.

b. Tuckey Test

Data analysis using Tukey test:

- 1) TPS compared with parallel writing

$$q = \frac{\bar{X}_{c1} - \bar{X}_{c2}}{\sqrt{ErrorVariance/n}} = \frac{14.625 - 12.525}{\sqrt{3.82083/20}} = \frac{2.1}{0.437} = 4.8055$$

- 2) TPS compared with parallel writing for students having high learning motivation

$$q = \frac{\bar{X}_{c1r1} - \bar{X}_{c2r1}}{\sqrt{ErrorVariance/n}} = \frac{15.05 - 10.3}{\sqrt{3.82083/10}} = \frac{5.02}{0.437} = 11.487$$

- 3) Parallel writing compared with TPS for students having low learning motivation

$$q = \frac{\bar{X}_{c2r2} - \bar{X}_{c1r2}}{\sqrt{ErrorVariance/n}} = \frac{14.75 - 14.2}{\sqrt{3.82083/10}} = \frac{0.53}{0.437} = 1.213$$

Referring to the result of the above Tukey test, it can be concluded that:

- 1) Because the q_o between columns (4.806) is higher than q_i (2.95), the difference of the means between columns is significant. It means that the effect of teaching writing using TPS technique to the second graders of SMA Negeri 1 Plosoklaten Kediri in 2008/2009 Academic Year differs significantly from that of teaching writing using parallel writing technique. The means score of the students taught using TPS (14.625) is higher than that of students taught using parallel writing (13.475). So, it can be concluded that TPS is more effective than parallel writing.

- 2) Because q_o (high motivation) (11.487) is higher than q_t (3.15), the difference between teaching writing using TPS and parallel writing to the students having high learning motivation is significant. The means of the score of the students having high motivation who are taught using TPS (15.05) is higher than that of the students having low motivation who are taught using TPS (14.2). It means that TPS is more effective than parallel writing for students with high learning motivation.
- 3) The value of q_o (low motivation) comparing parallel writing with TPS for students having low motivation is 1.213. Since q_o for low motivation (1.213) is lower than q_t (3.15), teaching writing to the students having low learning motivation using parallel writing does not differ significantly from Think-Pair-Share (TPS) technique.

C. The Discussion of the Findings

This research is an experimental research conducted to find out the effectiveness of Think-Pair-Share (TPS) technique as one model of cooperative learning compared with parallel writing to teach writing to the second graders of SMA Negeri 1 Plosoklaten Kediri in 2008/2009 academic year. After analyzing the data, the researcher finds out that all the three null hypotheses is rejected in the ANOVA analysis where all three $F_{observation}$ (F_o s) are higher than F_{table} (F_t s) and the alternative hypotheses are accepted. The followings are the discussion of the research findings:

- a. There is a significant difference on the effect between teaching writing using Think-Pair-Share (TPS) technique and teaching writing using parallel writing. In general, TPS is more effective than parallel writing to teach writing to the second graders of SMA Negeri 1 Plosoklaten Kediri in 2008/2009 academic year. As one model of cooperative learning, TPS gives students chance and challenge to dig their own ideas and develop their own skill in writing. According to Coffey (in <http://www.learnnc.org/lp/pages/4771>), in TPS students think on their own about a topic and then pair with another students and share their thoughts and ideas with the rest of the class. Estes and Scwab (in <http://www.adlit.org/strategies/23277>) state that TPS is a teaching strategy that provides students with “food of thought” enabling them to formulate individual ideas and share ideas with other students. TPS also offers the students the opportunity to promote team work. Joyce (2005: 8) states that one of the characteristics of cooperative learning is that it increases students’ social skill through group processing and it promotes interactions among students. The interaction promotes effective teamwork. They work cooperatively by helping each other without leaving their own responsibility of learning. TPS also increase students’ self-confidence as they get used to exchanging ideas, giving and accepting criticism, and manage their own work. Students have positive interdependence but they do not depend on their peer friends (Kagan, 2003: 12). TPS also increases students’ learning motivation as they gain their own satisfaction with their own work. Cooperative learning activity can increase students’ motivation because it encourages students to work in a small group, so

they feel comfortable in learning activity (Long and Potter in Arnold, 1999: 235)

On the other hand, parallel writing does not give enough challenge for students to develop their own creativity. In parallel writing, students are just given a sample text, asked to analyze the text. Then they are assigned to write a similar text with some changes in it (Raimes, 1983: 109). In this case students only develop their mechanical skill by changing such as the forms of the verbs and time signals or the subjects of the sentences without being given chance to create their own ideas (Byrne 1988: 26). Thus, students develop more mechanical skills than communicative ones.

- b. There is a significant difference in writing skill between students with high motivation and those with low motivation. It indicates that students with high motivation have higher writing skill than those with low motivation, and it means that motivation determines the success of learning. Highly motivated students perform better learning than students having low motivation. Winkel (1996: 150) states that learning motivation plays an important role to promote the spirit of learning so that students with high learning motivation have strong energy to perform learning.

Sardiman (1992: 75) states that learning motivation has specific roles in promoting learning enthusiasm, joy, and interest. Highly motivated students are usually active, curious, performing hard effort to gain the goal, enthusiastic, and courageous to take risk for their learning. Curiosity makes them challenged to find more learning resources to satisfy their needs. Courage makes them brave

to express ideas and to practice which means more chance for them for learning. Natawijaya and Moesa (1992: 59-61) determine the roles of learning motivation as follows: (1) motivation determines learning reinforcement; (2) motivation determines the goal of learning; (3) motivation determines the types of control toward learning stimuli; and (4) motivation determines learning seriousness.

Low motivated students do not often perform hard effort to learn more. They are not actively involved in the learning activities. They do not have enough courage to take risk to enrich their knowledge. This makes them perform low learning activities and makes them have low achievement.

- c. There is an interaction between teaching techniques and motivation. Good teaching techniques challenge students to perform better learning. They also minimize boredom and energize students to do more than usual. Good teaching techniques, in their turn, increase students' motivation. Students are more motivated to learn when they are taught using challenging and interesting teaching techniques.

TPS, as one model of cooperative learning, is suitable for students with high motivation as it increases students' motivation and in its turn increases students' learning achievement. When highly motivated students are taught using good teaching technique, the result will be better learning achievement. Harmer (1989: 5-6) suggests some factors affecting intrinsic motivation in language learning. One of them is the method. The method and technique of teaching, using which students are taught, have some effects on their motivation. If they find it deadly boring, they will probably become de-motivated, whereas if they

enjoy the situation and have confidence in the method they will find it motivating. The student's confidence in the method, the most important factor affecting intrinsic motivation, is largely in the hands of the teacher. TPS promotes learning motivation since students are given chance to explore their own learning and motivated students perform better learning.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION, IMPLICATION, AND SUGGESTION

A. Conclusion

The data analysis presented in chapter IV results in the following research findings are:

1. In general, Think – Pair – Share (TPS) as one of the models of cooperative learning is more effective than parallel writing to teach writing to the second graders of SMA Negeri 1 Plosoklaten Kediri in the 2008/2009 academic year.
2. The students who have high learning motivation have better writing skill than those who have low learning motivation in the second graders of SMA Negeri 1 Plosoklaten Kediri in 2008/2009 academic year.
3. There is an interaction between teaching technique and motivation.

Based on the research findings, it can be concluded that Think-Pair-Share (TPS) is an effective technique to teach writing.

B. Implication

Referring to the result of this research, in general, Think – Pair – Share is an effective model of cooperative learning to teach writing. Therefore, it is good to be applied in teaching writing, especially in the second graders of senior high schools. A teacher who teaches writing should apply the technique to provide challenges and opportunity to the students to develop their own ideas.

Motivation determines the success of learning. Students with high learning motivation perform better learning than those with low motivation. This is because

students with high learning motivation perform harder effort to gain the goal of learning than those with low learning motivation. Teachers, therefore, should always promote and increase students learning motivation through various activities in which they can interact and share ideas with peer students.

Viewed from students' motivation, Think – Pair – Share (TPS) is an effective technique of teaching writing for students with high learning motivation. This techniques is challenging and, therefore, it is suitable to be applied in the classroom of students with high learning motivation and teaching techniques which do not provide much challenge for students, such as parallel writing, are suitable for students with low learning motivation. Thus, good teaching techniques should be applied more often to make students learn better and to promote their learning motivation.

C. Suggestion

It is necessary to have other investigations as the follow up of the researches which have been carried out. Replication of similar study will reinforce the findings. This research is expected to be useful for teachers, students, and future researchers, therefore, some suggestions are listed as follows:

1. For the teachers

It is important for the teachers to make the class situation especially in teaching writing interesting rather than having stressful or boring atmosphere. Therefore, they should apply Think-Pair-Share (TPS) to make students enjoy learning. The more students enjoy learning the more effective the learning is. Think-Pair-Share (TPS) give students chance to develop their ideas, promote effective team

work, learn to criticize and accept criticism, exchange ideas and give peer correction, work collaboratively, and be responsible for their own learning duties and those other students. Thus, TPS do not only develop students' academic skill but also social skills.

2. For the students

It is important for the students not to be dependent on the teachers in reaching the success of learning. They need to be actively involved in the learning activities in the classroom, be creative, and perform hard effort to gain it by taking extra lessons out of the class, asking questions, or joining English clubs. They also need to find other learning resources out of the given materials in the classroom. This can be done by reading books related to the lessons or learning from electronic media such as TV, cassette, or CDs.

3. For the future researcher.

- a. A replication of this research design using Think – Pair - Share (TPS) and parallel writing in teaching writing can be done with some revision.
- b. A similar research with different population characteristics is also possible.
- c. It may be worthwhile to have another research with different attributive variables such as students' habit or interest.

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