CORRELATION BETWEEN READING SKILL AND WRITING ABILITY AT EIGHTH GRADE OF SMPN 4 TAMBUN SELATAN

REFERENCES

Submitted to The School of Foreign Language – JIA as a partial fulfillment of requirements for the undergraduate degree in the English Literature Programme

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ENGLISH LITERATURE PROGRAMME SCHOOL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES – JIA
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CHAPTER 1

1. Kusdemir and Bulut (2018)

The Relationship between Elementary School Students' Reading Comprehension and Reading Motivation

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Abstract

Reading is an important language skill whose main purpose is comprehension. In the reading process, visible symbols must be perceived and interpreted in the brain. Once the reading skill has been acquired, it can become a tool for having access to information, analyzing and interpreting it. All of these depend on the reading comprehension skill. Thus, evaluation of reading comprehension is one of the subjects to which great importance is attached. Particularly the evaluation of the level of students' reading comprehension is a subject of great interest for many researchers. In this regard, the current study aimed to investigate the relationship between the Turkish elementary school students' reading comprehension and reading motivation. At the end of the study, it was found that there is a positive, medium and significant correlation between the students' levels of reading comprehension determined with cloze tests made up of both narrative and informative texts and reading motivation. In addition, a positive, medium and significant correlation was found between the students' levels of reading comprehension determined with open-ended questions made up of both narrative and informative texts and reading motivation. Increase in the students' reading motivation affects their reading comprehension positively and significantly. Furthermore, reading motivation explains 12-13% of the total variance in their reading comprehension.
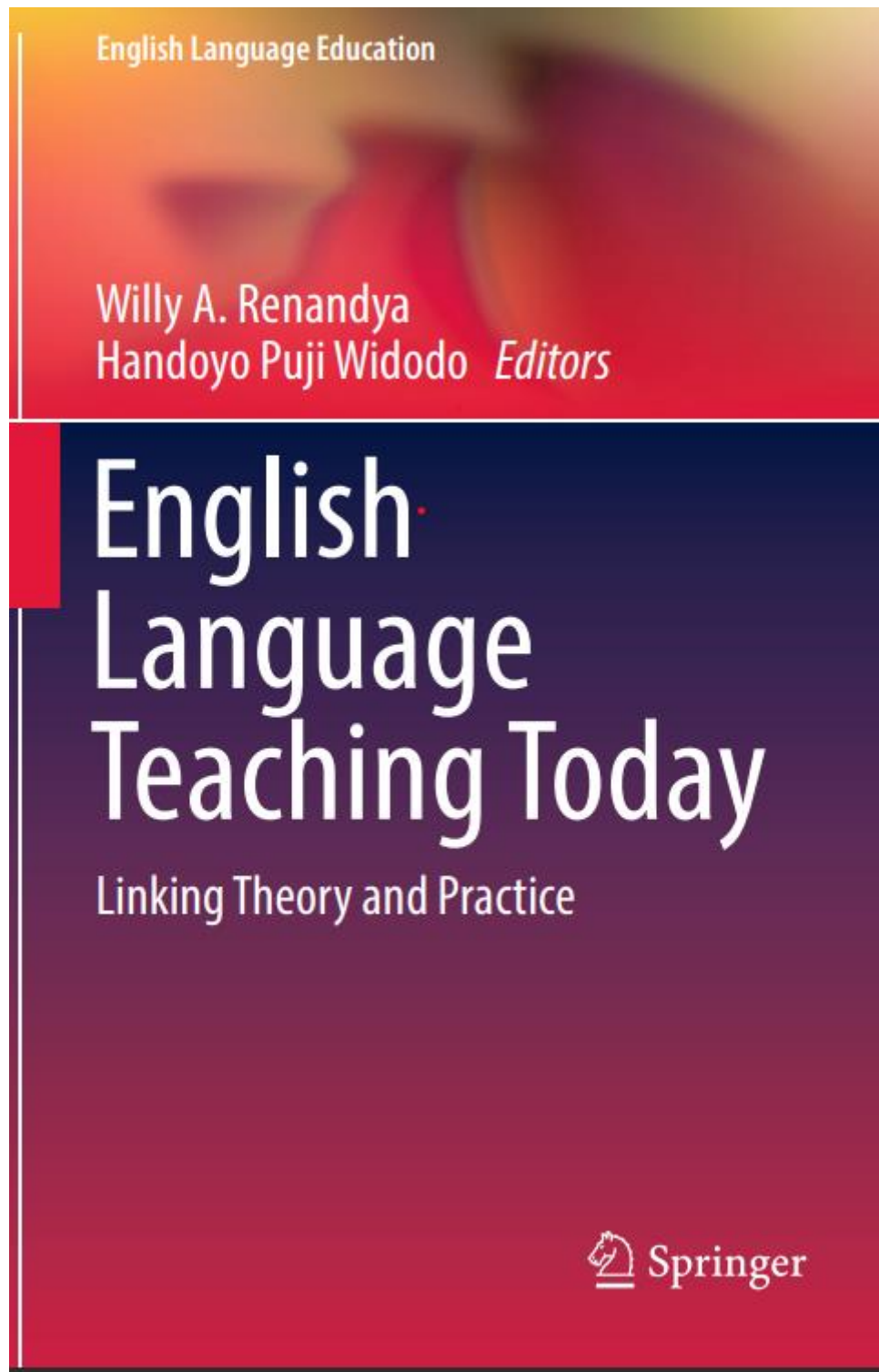
Keywords: reading comprehension, reading motivation, open-ended question, cloze test

1. Introduction

Reading is a process which starts with seeing, continues with the reception of information on the basis of attention and perception and results in comprehension in the brain. Reading is therefore a complex language skill that requires many skills to be used at the same time. When the definitions of reading are examined, it is understood that very different aspects of reading are emphasized. While Harris and Sipay (1990) put the greatest emphasis on interpretation in reading, Schunk (2014) states that the process of perception in reading refers to vocabulary recognition and argues that conception means assigning meaning to printed information, which relies on the process of disintegration into elements. Reading skill entails processing information for word recognition, finding the main idea, understanding the details, recognizing the structure of the text and predicting the idea of the author, grasping the importance of the ideas in the text and evaluating and remembering all of these. These sets of knowledge and experience are well-known schemes and they can help readers to read. Such readers first understand the meaning of the content and then associate new knowledge with previously learned materials (Susanti, Buan & Suhartono, 2013). For reading comprehension to occur, cognitive skills must have already been acquired. It is also important to determine the extent to which reading skill has been acquired as a skill activating higher order skills. In the process of evaluating reading comprehension, there are basic questions that teachers and field researchers must answer (Çiftçi and Temizyürek, 2008, p.111):

- What should be known about students in order to conduct this evaluation? (Knowing the student)
- Is theoretical knowledge sufficient for evaluation? (Questions – scoring)
- What is the purpose of determination and evaluation of reading comprehension level?
- Is one-type of question adequate to evaluate reading comprehension?
- How much will the student's having/not having information about text types and structures affect the result?

2. Renandya and Widodo (2016, P. 127)

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Teaching Reading and Viewing to L2 Learners

Lawrence Jun Zhang

Abstract Reading is a commonly offered course in many second and foreign language curricula for different age groups, yet it is not a skill easily acquired by students. Given the centrality of reading and viewing in real life and their importance in the curriculum for assisting the development of other language skills in students (e.g., speaking, listening, vocabulary, and writing), teachers' instruction is crucial to student success. More importantly, in traditional reading lessons, teachers seldom consider blending reading into viewing and viewing into reading to make the lesson dynamic and interactive. Drawing on recent research, this chapter presents a framework for teachers to develop not only students' language skills but also strategies for further skill development through reading and viewing. Such a framework takes an inclusive approach to instructional design, which brings to the fore theoretical perspectives on such instruction as well as practical strategies for teaching reading and viewing. Strategies such as activating schemata, previewing, predicting, skimming, scanning, reading and linking, viewing (e.g., viewing digital materials on the computer screen), and connecting, using packaged instructional procedures such as D-R-T-A, K-W-L, among others, which are the bases of classroom instruction, are elaborated with reference to reading and viewing activities as an organic combination of extensive and intensive reading and viewing.

Keywords Theory of reading • Teaching reading and viewing • Classroom-based pedagogy • Language-teacher education • Teaching strategies

1 Introduction

Reading is a commonly offered course in many second and foreign language curricula for different age groups, yet it is not a skill easily acquired by students (Nuttall 1996). Given the centrality of reading and viewing in real life and their importance in the curriculum for assisting the development of other language skills in students
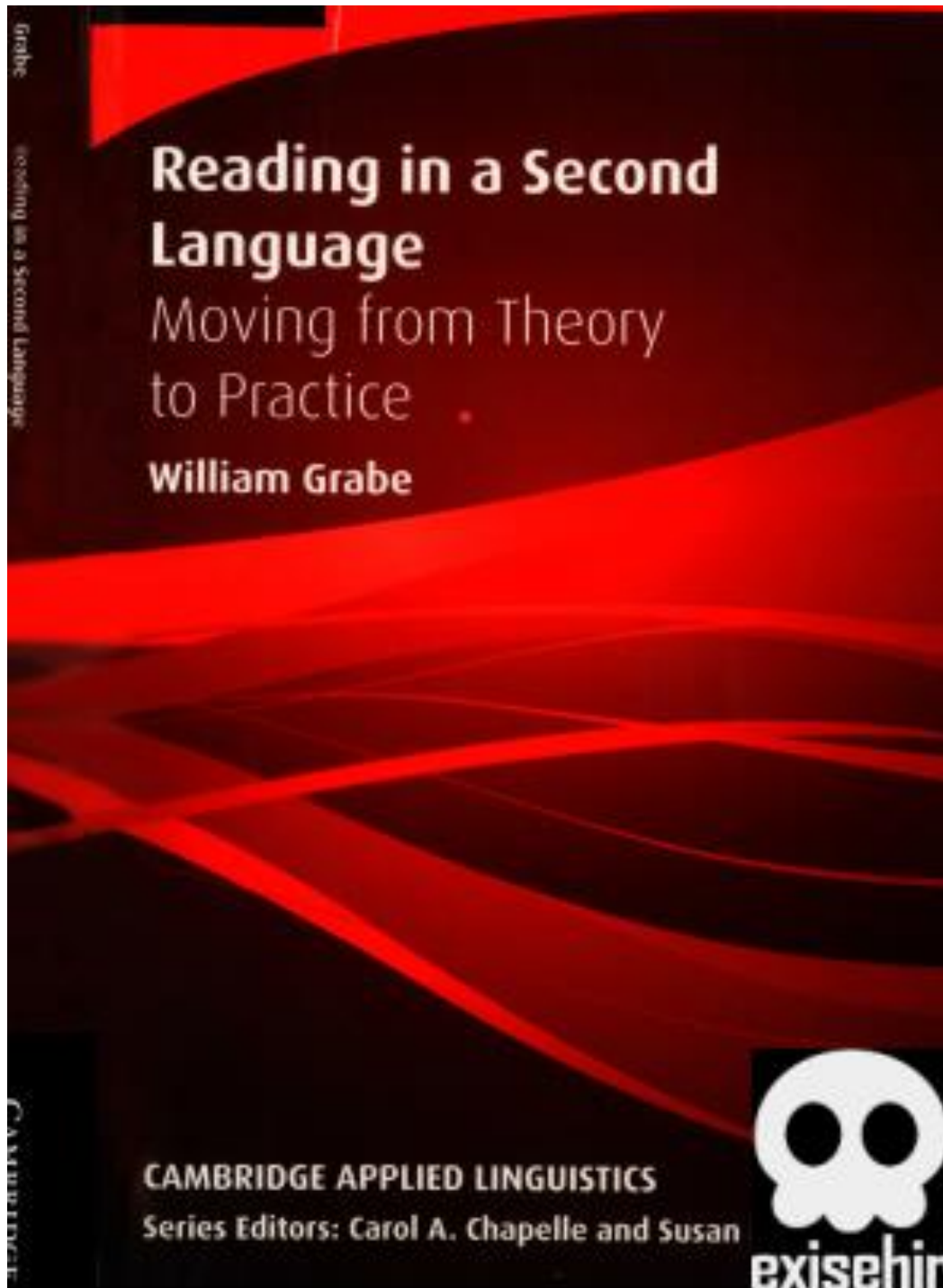
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CHAPTER 2

1. Grabe (2009, P. 5, P. 353, P. 359)

Reading in a Second Language
Moving from Theory to Practice
William Grabe

CAMBRIDGE APPLIED LINGUISTICS
Series Editors: Carol A. Chapelle and Susan

1 The nature of reading: Defining reading

We were never born to read. Human beings invented reading only a few thousand years ago. And with this invention, we rearranged the very organization of our brain, which in turn expanded the ways we were able to think, which altered the intellectual evolution of our species. (Wolf, 2007: 3)

Reading is something many of us take for granted. We read with what appears to be little effort and little planning. And it is remarkable that so much of the world's population can read – a little more than 80 percent of the world's population can read to some extent (Elley, 2001; Tucker, 2000; UNESCO, 2007). They can read basic forms, read advertisements, read newspapers, and use basic reading skills in their work and daily lives when needed. Some percentage of these people can read at a much higher level of comprehension, learning new conceptual information from texts, synthesizing new information from multiple texts, critiquing information in texts, and using their comprehension skills to reinterpret texts (Elley, 1992; Kirsch et al., 2002; NAAL, 2005; NAEP, 2007). Universal literacy is an ideal goal that is an ongoing priority among UNESCO, nation states, and many nongovernmental organizations, and efforts need to be made to reduce illiteracy levels.

It is also important to recognize that many people around the world read in more than one language. Large populations of people have learned to read in second or third languages for a variety of reasons, including interactions within and across heterogeneous multilingual countries, large-scale immigration movements, global transportation, advanced education opportunities, and the spread of languages of wider communication. As the nature of reading is explored more fully in this chapter, and the true complexity of reading emerges, the large numbers of readers who can function well in more than one language will seem remarkable. (And it is remarkable.) In almost all cases, these readers have learned to read in their first languages (L1), but they have also learned to be second-language (L2, subsuming both second and foreign language) readers, often under very different (and sometimes difficult) circumstances. In the first five chapters of this book, we focus on those who

challenges for reading assessment. The fourth section addresses a set of further issues for reading assessment.

Goals for reading assessment

Reading assessments are meant to provide feedback on the skills, processes, and knowledge resources that represent reading abilities (Chapters 1–5), though it is important to note that different assessment practices may assume different theories of reading and reading development. Assessment in general can be categorized in a number of ways, and all assessment frameworks serve important purposes. Commonly, assessment has been categorized in terms of (a) norm-reference and criterion-reference testing; (b) formative and summative assessment; (c) formal and informal (or alternative) assessment; and (d) proficiency, achievement, placement, and diagnostic assessment. For the purposes of this book, reading assessment is organized and described in terms of five basic assessment purposes listed in Table 17.1.

Table 17.1. *Five purposes for reading assessment*

1. Reading-proficiency assessment (standardized testing)
2. Assessment of classroom learning
3. Assessment *for* learning (supporting student learning is the purpose)
4. Assessment of curricular effectiveness
5. Assessment for research purposes

There is an inevitable overlap among specific test uses across these categories, but these categories, nonetheless, serve as a useful framework for organizing reading assessment.

Reading-proficiency assessment

Assessment of reading proficiency is important as a way to understand students' overall reading abilities (based on some assumed construct of reading) and to determine if students are appropriately prepared for further learning and educational advancement. Commonly, this type of assessment is referred to as *standardized testing*, although local groups and researchers also develop proficiency tests of different types. In most respects, proficiency assessment represents high-stakes testing because decisions are often made about students' future educational goals and opportunities. Alternatively, this type of assessment may lead to special education or reading-disability designations – labels that, once applied,

standardized reading assessments. The items in Table 17.3 are reviewed in Alderson (2000), Hughes (2003), and Weir and Milanovic (2003), and multiple useful examples are given.

Table 17.3. *Standardized reading assessment task formats*

1. Cloze
2. Gap-filling formats (rational cloze formats)
3. C-tests (retain initial letters of words removed)
4. Cloze elide (remove extra word)
5. Text segment ordering
6. Text gap
7. Choosing from a "heading bank" for identified paragraphs
8. Multiple-choice
9. Sentence completion
10. Matching (and multiple matching) techniques
11. Classification into groups
12. Dichotomous items (T / F / not stated, Y / N)
13. Editing
14. Short answer
15. Free recall
16. Summary (1 sentence, 2 sentences, 5–6 sentences)
17. Information transfer (graphs, tables, flow charts, outlines, maps)
18. Project performance
19. Skimming
20. Scanning

Many of these task formats are well-known and widely used in standardized tests. I will comment selectively on a number of them, and identify formats that are less common but that do appear in standardized assessments. Cloze assessments with random n-th word deletions (every sixth word, or every seventh word) are not automatically valid assessments of reading abilities, particularly when students are expected to write in the missing words. Such tests become production measures and are not appropriate for L2 reading assessment. Much more useful options are gap-filling measures (rational cloze formats) that target specific words purposefully (e.g., prepositions, verbs) rather than delete every seventh word (for example). However, even with gap-filling formats, a reading measure should not ask students to fill in words (as a production task) that they do not know or have not already seen from reading a text beforehand (unlike short-answer formats in which students have read a nonmutilated text beforehand).

C-tests are variants of cloze formats, but rather than deleting whole words, the initial letter or syllable of a targeted word remains, and students use this clue, along with the sentence context, to determine the missing word. This option is less of a production task. Cloze elide, in which "extra" words are meant to be struck out, have the advantage of

2. Oakhill et.al (2015, P. 1)

UNDERSTANDING AND TEACHING READING COMPREHENSION

A handbook

Jane Oakhill, Kate Cain and Carsten Elbro

1
WHAT IT'S ALL ABOUT

"Reading without reflecting is like eating without digesting."

Attributed to Edmund Burke, 1729–1797

The purposes of this chapter are:

- to introduce the concept of Mental Models as representations of text,
- to introduce the Simple View of Reading and the distinction between word reading and language comprehension,
- to explain the relation between word reading and reading comprehension,
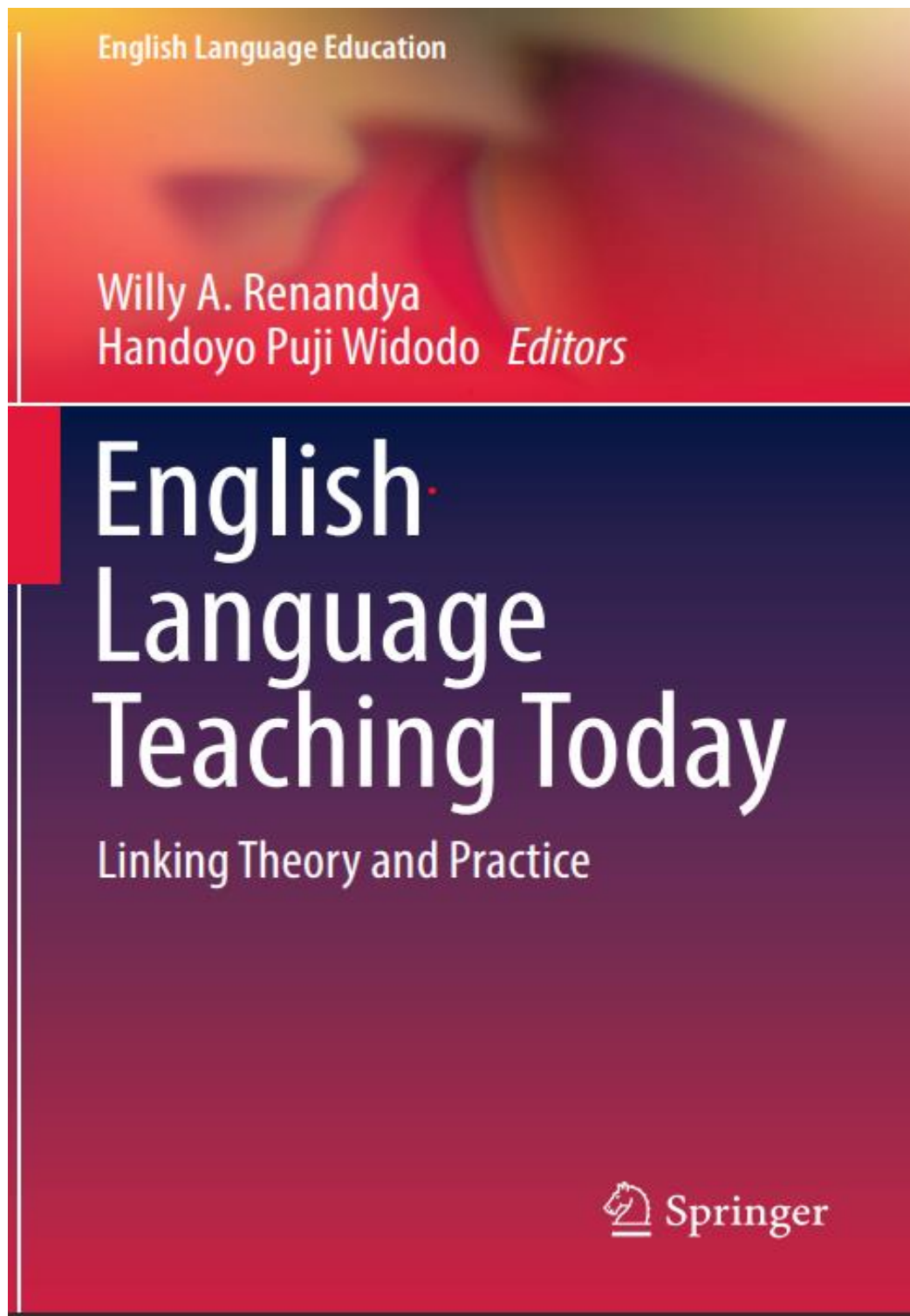- to distinguish between poor word readers and poor comprehenders.

The click of comprehension

Reading comprehension is important, not just for understanding text, but for broader learning, success in education, and employment. It is even important for our social lives, because of email, text, and social networking sites. Reading comprehension is a complex task, which requires the orchestration of many different cognitive skills and abilities.

Of course, reading comprehension is necessarily dependent on at least adequate word reading; readers cannot understand a whole text if they cannot identify (decode) the words in that text. Likewise, good reading comprehension will depend on good language understanding more generally. This requires comprehension of the individual words and the sentences that they form. However, comprehension typically requires the comprehender to integrate the sense of these words and sentences into a meaningful whole. To do so, construction of a suitable mental model is necessary. A mental model is a mental representation that is created from information in the real, or an imagined, world – i.e. a gist representation of what the comprehender has read (or heard, or seen). It might, but does not necessarily, include imagery. Try Activity 1.1 to get an idea of how important it is to be able to construct a coherent mental model to make sense of the words and sentences of the text.

You might have guessed what the text in Activity 1.1 is about, but if you are like most of the participants in Smith and Swinney's study (1992), you found it hard to make sense of. Now read the text again, but with the title "Building a snowman". Now you will find that the obscure references, to e.g. *substance*, and turns of phrase *elaborateness of the final product*, suddenly fall into place, and the whole makes perfect sense when you have the appropriate framework for a mental model. Smith and Swinney (building on much earlier work by Bransford & Johnson, 1972) showed that people who were asked to read the above text without a title took considerably longer to read it, and had worse recall of its content, than those who were given the title and were able to use the framework it provided to create an appropriate mental model.

3. Renandya and Widodo (2016, P. 127)

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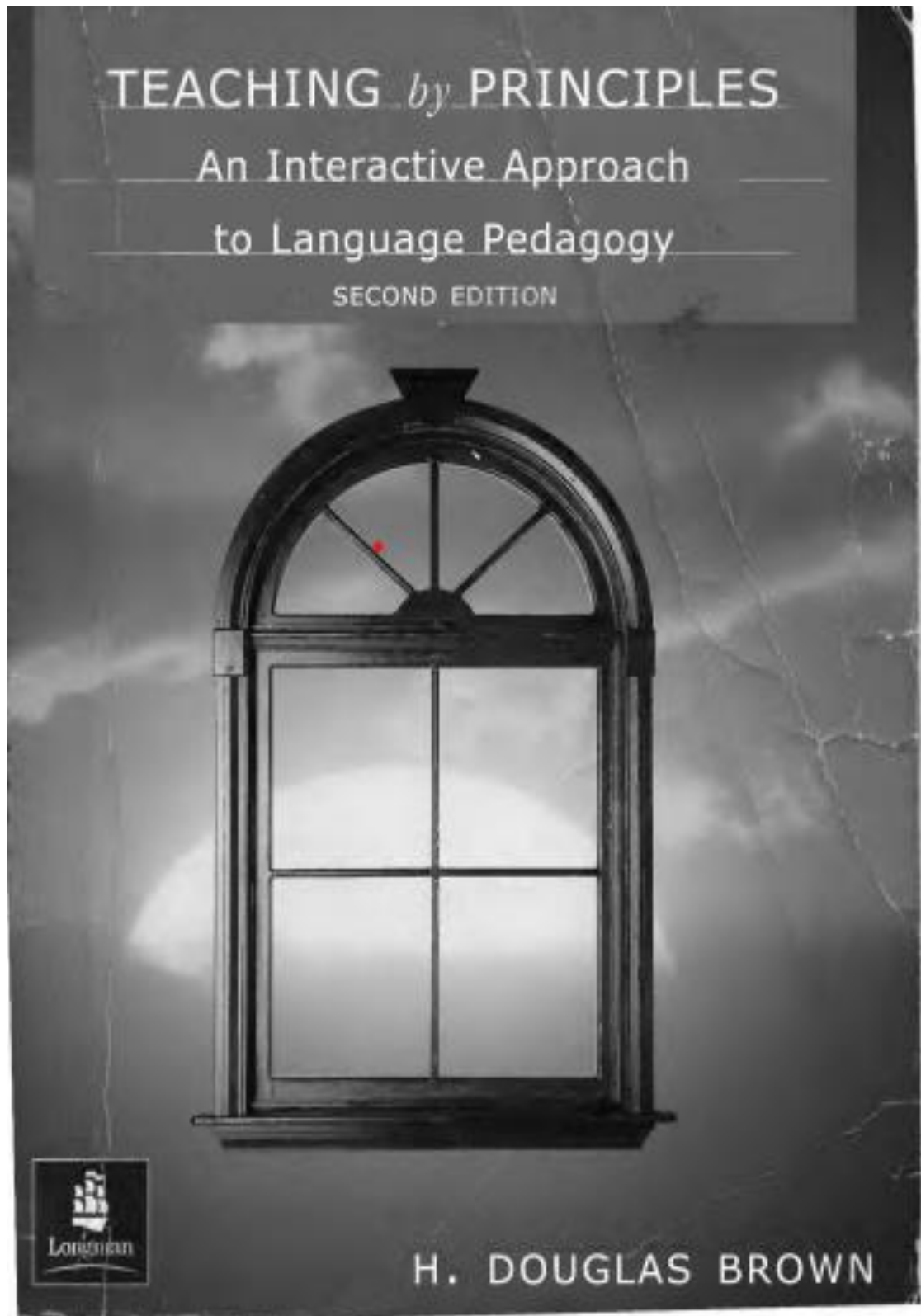
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4. Brown (2000, P. 312, P. 341, P. 343, P. 344, P. 346)

TEACHING *by* PRINCIPLES

An Interactive Approach
to Language Pedagogy

SECOND EDITION

Longman

H. DOUGLAS BROWN

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

TYPES OF CLASSROOM READING PERFORMANCE

Variety of reading performance in the language classroom is derived more from the variety of texts (refer to the list earlier in this chapter) to which you can expose students than from the variety of overt types of performance. Consider Figure 18.2.

Figure 18.2. Types of classroom reading performance
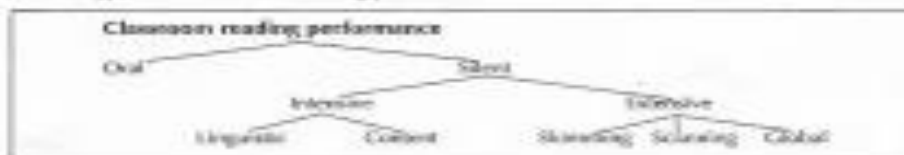
1. **Oral and silent reading**

Occasionally, you will have reason to ask a student to read orally. At the beginning and intermediate levels, oral reading can

a. serve as an evaluative check on bottom-up processing skills,
b. double as a pronunciation check, and
c. serve to add some extra student participation if you want to highlight a certain short segment of a reading passage.

For advanced levels, usually only advantage (c) can be gained by reading orally. As a rule of thumb, you want to use oral reading to serve these three purposes because the disadvantages of too much oral reading can easily come into play:

a. Oral reading is not a very authentic language activity.
b. While one student is reading, others can easily lose attention (or be silently rehearsing the next paragraph!).
c. It may have the outward appearance of student participation when in reality it is mere recitation.

2. **Intensive and extensive reading**

Silent reading may be subcategorized into intensive and extensive reading. Intensive reading, analogous to intensive listening (described in Chapter 16), is usually a classroom-oriented activity in which students focus on the linguistic or semantic details of a passage. Intensive reading calls students' attention to grammatical forms, discourse markers, and other surface structure details for the purpose of understanding literal meaning, implications, rhetorical relationships, and the like.

As a "zoom lens" strategy for taking a closer look at a text, intensive reading also may be a totally content-related reading initiated because of subject-matter difficulty.

A complex cognitive concept may be 'trapped' inside the words of a sentence or paragraph, and a good reader will then very slowly and methodically extract meaning therefrom.

Extensive reading is carried out to achieve a general understanding of a usually somewhat longer text (book, long article, or essays, etc.). Most extensive reading is performed outside of class time. Pleasure reading is often extensive. Technical, scientific, and professional reading can, under certain special circumstances, be extensive when one is simply striving for global or general meaning from longer passages.

The advantages of extensive reading were discussed in the first section of the chapter. By stimulating reading for enjoyment or reading where all concepts, names, dates, and other details need not be retained, students gain an appreciation for the affective and cognitive window of reading: an entrée into new worlds. Extensive reading can sometimes help learners get away from their tendency to overanalyze or look up words they don't know, and read for understanding.

authenticity, and the role of teacher commentary in writing, you will begin to gain an appreciation of some of the challenges of becoming an effective writing teacher.

TYPES OF WRITTEN LANGUAGE

In Chapter 18, on pages 302-3, were some thirty-odd types of written language "forms." As you consider an ESL class that you might be teaching, how many of these types of writing will your students be likely to produce themselves? Those types that they will indeed need, either for further study of English or for their ultimate academic/vocational goals, should then become the prime focus of "real" writing in your classroom.

●   ●

CHARACTERISTICS OF WRITTEN LANGUAGE: A WRITER'S VIEW

In Chapter 18, some characteristics of written language, from the perspective of a reader, were set forth. Let's revisit those from a writer's viewpoint.

1. Permanence

Once something is written down and delivered in its final form to its intended audience, the writer abdicates a certain power: the power to emend, to clarify, to withdraw. That prospect is the single most significant contributor to making writing a scary operation! Student writers often feel that the act of releasing a written work to an instructor is not unlike putting themselves in front of a firing squad. Therefore, whatever you can do as a teacher, guide, and facilitator to help your students to revise and refine their work before final submission will help give them confidence in their work.

2. Production time

The good news is that, given appropriate stretches of time, a writer can indeed become a "good" writer by developing efficient processes for achieving the final product. The bad news is that many educational contexts demand student writing within time limits, or "writing for display" as noted in the previous section (examination writing, for example). So, one of your goals, especially if you are teaching in an EAP context, would be to train your students to make the best possible use of such time limitations. This may mean sacrificing some process time, but with sufficient training in process writing, combined with practice in display writing, you can help your students deal with time limitations.

3. Distance

One of the thorniest problems writers face is anticipating their audience. That anticipation ranges from general audience characteristics to how specific words, phrases, sentences, and paragraphs will be interpreted. The distance factor requires

what might be termed "cognitive" empathy, in that good writers can "read" their own writing from the perspective of the mind of the targeted audience. Writers need to be able to predict the audience's general knowledge, cultural and literary schemata, specific subject-matter knowledge, and very important, how their choice of language will be interpreted.

4. Orthography

Everything from simple greetings to extremely complex ideas is captured through the manipulation of a few dozen letters and other written symbols. Sometimes we take for granted the mastering of the mechanics of English writing by our students. If students are non-literate in the native language, you must begin at the very beginning with fundamentals of reading and writing. For literate students, if their native language system is not alphabetic, new symbols have to be produced by hands that may have become accustomed to another system. If the native language has a different phoneme–grapheme system (most do!), then some attention is due here.

5. Complexity

In the previous chapter, the complexity of written—as opposed to spoken—language was illustrated. Writers must learn how to remove redundancy (which may not jibe with their first language rhetorical tradition), how to combine sentences, how to make references to other elements in a text, how to create syntactic and lexical variety, and much more.

6. Vocabulary

As was noted in Chapter 18, written language places a heavier demand on vocabulary use than does speaking. Good writers will learn to take advantage of the richness of English vocabulary.

7. Formality

Whether a student is filling out a questionnaire or writing a full-blown essay, the conventions of each form must be followed. For ESL students, the most difficult and complex conventions occur in academic writing where students have to learn how to describe, explain, compare, contrast, illustrate, defend, criticize, and argue.

Table 19.1. Microskills for writing

1. Produce graphemes and orthographic patterns of English.
2. Produce writing at an efficient rate of speed to suit the purpose.
3. Produce an acceptable core of words and use appropriate word order patterns.
4. Use acceptable grammatical systems (e.g., tense, agreement, pluralization), patterns, and rules.
5. Express a particular meaning in different grammatical forms.
6. Use cohesive devices in written discourse.
7. Use the rhetorical forms and conventions of written discourse.
8. Appropriately accomplish the communicative functions of written texts according to form and purpose.
9. Convey links and connections between events and communicate such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization, and exemplification.
10. Distinguish between literal and implied meanings when writing.
11. Correctly convey culturally specific references in the context of the written text.
12. Develop and use a battery of writing strategies, such as accurately assessing the audience's interpretation, using prewriting devices, writing with fluency in the first drafts, using paraphrases and synonyms, soliciting peer and instructor feedback, and using feedback for revising and editing.

TYPES OF CLASSROOM WRITING PERFORMANCE

While various genres of written texts abound, classroom writing performance is, by comparison, limited. Consider the following five major categories of classroom writing performance:

1. Imitative, or writing down

At the beginning level of learning to write, students will simply "write down" English letters, words, and possibly sentences in order to learn the conventions of the orthographic code. Some forms of **dictation** fall into this category, although dictations can serve to teach and test higher-order processing as well. Dictations typically involve the following steps:

a. Teacher reads a short paragraph once or twice at normal speed.
b. Teacher reads the paragraph in short phrase units of three or four words each, and each unit is followed by a pause.
c. During the pause, students write exactly what they hear.

    d. Teacher then reads the whole paragraph once more at normal speed so students can check their writing.

    e. Scoring of students' written work can utilize a number of rubrics for assigning points. Usually spelling and punctuation errors are not considered as severe as grammatical errors.

2. Intensive, or controlled

Writing is sometimes used as a production mode for learning, reinforcing, or testing grammatical concepts. This intensive writing typically appears in controlled, written grammar exercises. This type of writing does not allow much, if any, creativity on the part of the writer.

A common form of **controlled** writing is to present a paragraph to students in which they have to alter a given structure throughout. So, for example, they may be asked to change all present tense verbs to past tense; in such a case, students may need to alter other time references in the paragraph.

Guided writing loosens the teacher's control but still offers a series of stimulators. For example, the teacher might get students to tell a story just viewed on a videotape by asking them a series of questions: Where does the story take place? Describe the principal character. What does he say to the woman in the car?

Yet another form of controlled writing is a **dicto-comp**. Here, a paragraph is read at normal speed, usually two or three times; then the teacher asks students to rewrite the paragraph to the best of their recollection of the reading. In one of several variations of the dicto-comp technique, the teacher, after reading the passage, puts key words from the paragraph, in sequence, on the chalkboard as cues for the students.

3. Self-writing

A significant proportion of classroom writing may be devoted to self-writing, or writing with only the self in mind as an audience. The most salient instance of this category in classrooms is note-taking, where students take notes during a lecture for the purpose of later recall. Other note-taking may be done in the margins of books and on odd scraps of paper.

Diary or **journal** writing also falls into this category. However, in many circumstances a **dialogue journal**, in which a student records thoughts, feelings, and reactions and which an instructor reads and responds to, while ostensibly written for oneself, has two audiences.

Figure 19.2 is an entry from a journal written by an advanced ESL student from China, followed by the teacher's response.

4. Display writing

It was noted earlier that writing within the school curricular context is a way of life. For all language students, short answer exercises, essay examinations, and even research reports will involve an element of display. For academically bound ESL students, one of the academic skills that they need to master is a whole array of display writing techniques.

5. Real writing

While virtually every classroom writing task will have an element of display writing in it, some classroom writing aims at the genuine communication of messages to an audience in need of those messages. The two categories of real and display writing are actually two ends of a continuum, and in between the two extremes lies some combination of display and real writing. Three subcategories illustrate how reality can be injected:

a. **Academic.** The Language Experience Approach gives groups of students opportunities to convey genuine information to each other. Content-based instruction encourages the exchange of useful information, and some of this learning uses the written word. Group problem-solving tasks, especially those that relate to current issues and other personally relevant topics, may have a writing component in which information is genuinely sought and conveyed. Peer-editing work adds to what would otherwise be an audience of one (the instructor) and provides real writing opportunity. In certain ESP and EAP courses, students may exchange new information with each other and with the instructor.

b. **Vocational/technical.** Quite a variety of real writing can take place in classes of students studying English for advancement in their occupation. Real letters can be written; genuine directions for some operation or assembly might be given; and actual forms can be filled out. These possibilities are even greater in what has come to be called "English in the Workplace," where ESL is offered within companies and corporations.

c. **Personal.** In virtually any ESL class, diaries, letters, post cards, notes, personal messages, and other informal writing can take place, especially within the context of an interactive classroom. While certain tasks may be somewhat contrived, nevertheless the genuine exchange of information can happen.

PRINCIPLES FOR DESIGNING WRITING TECHNIQUES

Out of all of these characteristics of the written word, along with microskills and research issues, a number of specific principles for designing writing techniques emerge.

1. Incorporate practices of "good" writers.

This first guideline is sweeping. But as you contemplate devising a technique that has a writing goal in it, consider the various things that efficient writers do, and see if your technique includes some of these practices. For example, good writers
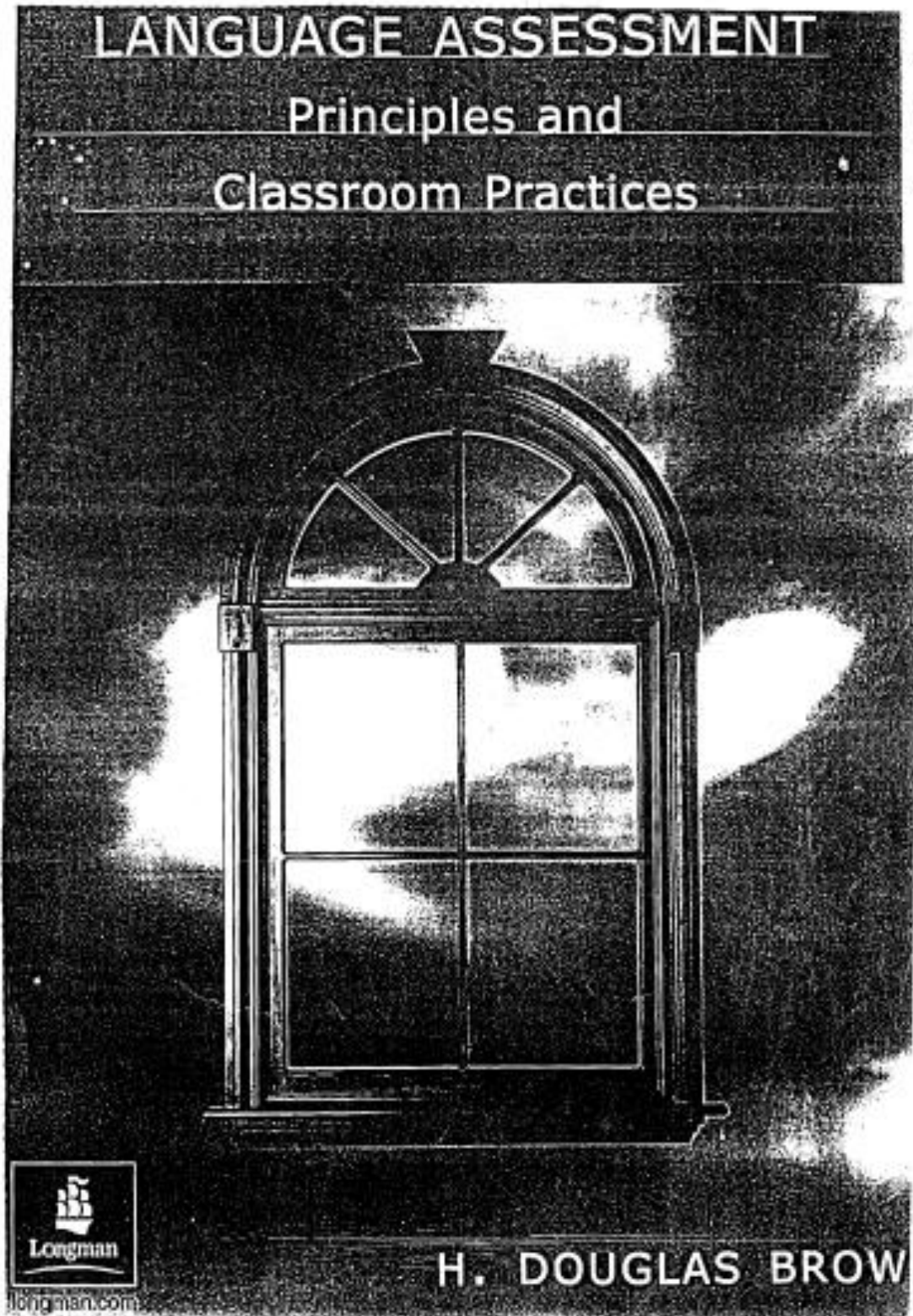
- focus on a goal or main idea in writing,
- perceptively gauge their audience,
- spend some time (but not too much!) planning to write,

- easily let their first ideas flow onto the paper,
- follow a general organizational plan as they write,
- solicit and utilize feedback on their writing,
- are not wedded to certain surface structures,
- revise their work willingly and efficiently,
- patiently make as many revisions as needed.

2. Balance process and product.

Because writing is a composing process and usually requires multiple drafts before an effective product is created, make sure that students are carefully led through appropriate stages in the process of composing. This includes careful attention to your own role as a guide and as a responder (see #8). At the same time, don't get so caught up in the stages leading up to the final product that you lose sight of the ultimate attainment: a clear, articulate, well-organized, effective piece of writing. Make sure students see that everything leading up to this final creation was worth the effort.

5. Brown (2004, P. 187, P. 188, P. 189)

LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT
Principles and
Classroom Practices

H. DOUGLAS BROW

Language Assessment: Principles and Classroom Practices

3. Personal reading

   newspapers and magazines
   letters, emails, greeting cards, invitations
   messages, notes, lists
   schedules (train, bus, plane, etc.)
   recipes, menus, maps, calendars
   advertisements (commercials, want ads)
   novels, short stories, jokes, drama, poetry
   financial documents (e.g., checks, tax forms, loan applications)
   forms, questionnaires, medical reports, immigration documents
   comic strips, cartoons

When we realize that this list is only the beginning, it is easy to see how overwhelming it is to learn to read in a foreign language! The genre of a text enables readers to apply certain schemata that will assist them in extracting appropriate meaning. If, for example, readers know that a text is a recipe, they will expect a certain arrangement of information (ingredients) and will know to search for a sequential order of directions. Efficient readers also have to know what their purpose is in reading a text, the strategies for accomplishing that purpose, and how to retain the information.

The content validity of an assessment procedure is largely established through the genre of a text. For example, if learners in a program of English for tourism have been learning how to deal with customers needing to arrange bus tours, then assessments of their ability should include guidebooks, maps, transportation schedules, calendars, and other relevant texts.

MICROSKILLS, MACROSKILLS, AND STRATEGIES FOR READING

Aside from attending to genres of text, the skills and strategies for accomplishing reading emerge as a crucial consideration in the assessment of reading ability. The micro- and macroskills below represent the spectrum of possibilities for objectives in the assessment of reading comprehension.

Micro- and macroskills for reading comprehension

Microskills

1. Discriminate among the distinctive graphemes and orthographic patterns of English.
2. Retain chunks of language of different lengths in short-term memory.
3. Process writing at an efficient rate of speed to suit the purpose.

4. Recognize a core of words, and interpret word order patterns and their significance.
5. Recognize grammatical word classes (nouns, verbs, etc.), systems (e.g., tense, agreement, pluralization), patterns, rules, and elliptical forms.
6. Recognize that a particular meaning may be expressed in different grammatical forms.
7. Recognize cohesive devices in written discourse and their role in signaling the relationship between and among clauses.

Macroskills

8. Recognize the rhetorical forms of written discourse and their significance for interpretation.
9. Recognize the communicative functions of written texts, according to form and purpose.
10. Infer context that is not explicit by using background knowledge.
11. From described events, ideas, etc., infer links and connections between events, deduce causes and effects, and detect such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization, and exemplification.
12. Distinguish between literal and implied meanings.
13. Detect culturally specific references and interpret them in a context of the appropriate cultural schemata.
14. Develop and use a battery of reading strategies, such as scanning and skimming, detecting discourse markers, guessing the meaning of words from context, and activating schemata for the interpretation of texts.

The assessment of reading can imply the assessment of a storehouse of reading strategies, as indicated in item #14. Aside from simply testing the ultimate achievement of comprehension of a written text, it may be important in some contexts to assess one or more of a storehouse of classic reading strategies. The brief taxonomy of strategies below is a list of possible assessment criteria.

Some principal strategies for reading comprehension

1. Identify your purpose in reading a text.
2. Apply spelling rules and conventions for bottom-up decoding.
3. Use lexical analysis (prefixes, roots, suffixes, etc.) to determine meaning.
4. Guess at meaning (of words, idioms, etc.) when you aren't certain.
5. Skim the text for the gist and for main ideas.
6. Scan the text for specific information (names, dates, key words).
7. Use silent reading techniques for rapid processing.

8. Use marginal notes, outlines, charts, or semantic maps for understanding and retaining information.
9. Distinguish between literal and implied meanings.
10. Capitalize on discourse markers to process relationships.

TYPES OF READING

In the previous chapters we saw that both listening and speaking could be subdivided into at least five different types of listening and speaking performance. In the case of reading, variety of performance is derived more from the multiplicity of types of texts (the genres listed above) than from the variety of overt types of performance. Nevertheless, for considering assessment procedures, several types of reading performance are typically identified, and these will serve as organizers of various assessment tasks.

1. Perceptive. In keeping with the set of categories specified for listening comprehension, similar specifications are offered here, except with some differing terminology to capture the uniqueness of reading. Perceptive reading tasks involve attending to the *components* of larger stretches of discourse: letters, words, punctuation, and other graphemic symbols. Bottom-up processing is implied.

2. Selective. This category is largely an artifact of assessment formats. In order to ascertain one's reading recognition of lexical, grammatical, or discourse features of language within a very short stretch of language, certain typical tasks are used: picture-cued tasks, matching, true/false, multiple-choice, etc. Stimuli include sentences, brief paragraphs, and simple charts and graphs. Brief responses are intended as well. A combination of bottom-up and top-down processing may be used.

3. Interactive. Included among interactive reading types are stretches of language of several paragraphs to one page or more in which the reader must, in a psycholinguistic sense, *interact* with the text. That is, reading is a process of negotiating meaning; the reader brings to the text a set of schemata for understanding it, and intake is the product of that interaction. Typical genres that lend themselves to interactive reading are anecdotes, short narratives and descriptions, excerpts from longer texts, questionnaires, memos, announcements, directions, recipes, and the like. The focus of an interactive task is to identify relevant features (lexical, symbolic, grammatical, and discourse) within texts of moderately short length with the objective of retaining the information that is processed. Top-down processing is typical of such tasks, although some instances of bottom-up performance may be necessary.

4. Extensive. Extensive reading, as discussed in this book, applies to texts of more than a page, up to and including professional articles, essays, technical reports, short stories, and books. (It should be noted that reading research commonly refers to "extensive reading" as longer stretches of discourse, such as long articles and books that are usually read outside a classroom hour. Here that definition is

massaged a little in order to encompass any text longer than a page.) The purposes of assessment usually are to tap into a learner's global understanding of a text, as opposed to asking test-takers to "zoom in" on small details. Top-down processing is assumed for most extensive tasks.

6. Pratiwi (2019)

STRATEGIES OF READING SKILLS FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASS

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Abstract

Abstract

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The researchers had found that learning reading strategies is a key element in developing student comprehension. However, many teachers lack a solid foundation for teaching these reading comprehension strategies. Therefore, teachers need to be prepared on how to design effective reading

STRATEGIES OF READING SKILLS FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASS

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Abstract: The researchers had found that learning reading strategies is a key element in developing student comprehension. However, many teachers lack a solid foundation for teaching these reading comprehension strategies. Therefore, teachers need to be prepared on how to design effective reading comprehension strategies and how to teach these strategies to their students. Therefore this study aims to study the effective reading strategies in order to improve reading skills in language classes. The study is an action research applied to a number of 15 students in an intermediate level integrated skills course. The main question of the study is "Would reading strategies help my students' reading comprehension studies?". The result of the study indicate that the students had an improvement to a great extend have been tutored about the reading strategies.

Keywords: reading strategies, predicting, visualizing, inferring, making connections, questioning, action research

INTRODUCTION

Reading is a process of interaction between the reader and the material in which all the schematic knowledge being interacted with all the reader's social and contextual factors. Reading skills is the ability of an individual to read, comprehend and interpret written words on a page of an article or any other reading material. The possession of a good reading skill will enable the individual to be able to assimilate a written work within a short period while reading. If an individual develops a reading skill, it is a lifelong activity. And while reading at any given time the individual is expected to also think critically on the particular topic or subject to understand the point of the writer. Reading skill can only be developed through constant reading. Inculcating reading culture or habit is a hobby. According to Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, reading is a basic life skill. It is a cornerstone for a child's success in school and, indeed, throughout life. Without the ability to read well, opportunities for personal fulfilment and job success inevitably will be lost (1985). Despite its importance, reading is one of the most challenging areas in the education system. The ever-increasing demand for high levels of literacy in our

technological society makes this problem even more pressing (Snow, Burns, &Griffin, 1998). Students' attitudes regarding the pruposes for reading also influence their ability to read. If students want to get the most out of the materials they are assigned, they have to learn to read critically or analytically. The idea here is that when we read something, the purpose is to try to understand what the intention is. When dealing with reading, we encounter two layers of reality: one that we can see and one that we cannot see. Therefore, the purpose of reading is to make the invisible layer, the underlying meaning, visible and clear (Kose 2006). Teele asserts that the goal of all readers should be to understand what they read (2004, p. 92). Research shows good readers are actively involved with the text, and they are aware of the processes they use to understand what they read. Teachers can help improve student comprehension through instruction of reading strategies. Predicting, making connections, visualizing, inferring, questioning, and summarizing are strategies shown by research to improve reading comprehension (Block & Israel, 2005). It is important to teach the strategies by naming the

strategy and how it should be used, modelling through the think-aloud process, group practice, partner practice, and independent use of the strategy (Duke & Pearson, 2005).

1.1. Predicting

First strategy for improving reading comprehension is predicting, which helps the reader set a purpose for their reading. Research has shown that good readers use their experiences and knowledge to make predictions and formulate ideas as they read (Block & Israel, 2005). This strategy also allows for more student interaction, which increases student interest and improves their understanding of the text (Oczkus, 2003). It is important to compare the outcome in the actual text with the prediction process as it will lead the learner to improve his understanding.

Without this aspect of the prediction process, it becomes meaningless to improving the students's comprehension (Duke & Pearson, 2005). Some of the approaches for teaching predicting are teacher modeling, predicting throughout the text;with partners, with a graphic organizer, or using post-it notes throughout the text. Using the title, table of contents, pictures, and

key words is one prediction strategy. Another key prediction strategy is to have students predict at specific points through the text, evaluate the prediction, and revise predictions if necessary (Teele, 2004).

1.2. Visualizing

Another strategy that the good readers employ when comprehending a text is visualization (Adler, 2001). Visualization requires the reader to construct an image of what is read. This image is stored in the raders's memory as are representation of the reader's interprtation of the text (National Reading Panel, 2000). Teachers can motivate students to visualize settings, characters, and actions in a story and ask them to make drawings or write about the image that come to their minds after visualizing the text.

1.3. Making Connections

Making connections is another strategy that can be used in the reading process. By making connections, the learners can activate their prior knowledge and connect the ideas in the text to their own experiences. Reading becomes meaningful when the reader connects the ideas in the text to their experiences and beliefs, and the things happening in the outer world. "Text-to-

Text, Text-to-Self, Text-to-World" is a strategy that helps students make connections. Students can make text-to-self connections through drawing, making a chart, or writing. Teachers might ask students if they have ever experienced anything like the events in the text. Students can make text-to-text connections through drawing, making a chart, writing, and graphic organizers. These text-to-text connections could be based upon how characters in the story relate to each other, or how story elements relate between stories. Students can make text-to-world connections through drawing, making a chart, writing, or graphic organizers. Text-to- world connections could be done by comparing characters in a story to characters today or comparing the content of the text to the world today (Teele, 2004). Giving a purpose to students, reading by asking thm to find connections would help them comprehend the ideas better in the text.

1.4. Summarizing

The process of summarization requires the reader to determine what is important when reading and to condense the information in the readers own words (Adler, 2001). During the summarizing process, the

students will be able to distinguish the main ideas from the supporting ideas. Distinguishing the related knowledge from the unrelated ones is another point in the summarizing process which will help the students' capacity to improve text comprehension. Summarizing is a strategy which helps the students to organize the ideas even in the long reading passages which are usually perceived as threat for the students.

1.5. Questioning

Jaya (2017) Readers can use the questioning before, during, and after reading. The questioning process requires readers to ask questions of themselves to construct meaning, enhance understanding, find answers, solve problems, find information, and discover new information (Harvey &Goudvis, 2000). In this strategy, the students return to the text throughout the reading process to find the answers to the questions asked by the teacher before, during and after the reading.By this strategy, students practice to distinguish between questions that are factual inferred or based on the reader's prior knowledge. By using the student generated questioning strategy; text segments are integrated and thereby improve reading

comprehension (NRP, 2000).

1.6. Inferring

Inferring refers to reading between the lines. Students need to use their own knowledge along with information from the text to draw their own conclusions (Serafini, 2004). Through inferring students will be able to draw conclusions, make predictions, identify underlying themes, use information to create meaning from text, and use pictures to create meaning (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000). Students can be given techniques to use illustrations, graphs, pictures, dates, related vocabulary and titles from the text to make inferences.

ACTION RESEARCH QUESTION

This research is to improve reading comprehension through the use of reading strategies. The teacher researcher believes that without a solid foundation of reading strategies the students will struggle throughout their academic and adult life. The researcher hopes to provide reading awareness to her students by teaching reading comprehension strategies and by this way the students will develop a more meaningful

reading experience. The research question is, "Would reading strategies

7. Marliasari (2017)

TEACHING READING COMPREHENSION BY USING SKIMMING AND SCANNING TECHNIQUES TO THE TENTH GRADE STUDENTS OF SMAN 1 GELUMBANG

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Abstract
The objective of this research was to find out whether or not it was effective to teach skimming and scanning techniques in reading a narrative text by the tenth grade students of SMAN 1 Gelumbang. The method used experimental. The population of this study was all tenth grade students of SMAN 1 Gelumbang. The sample of this study was 60 students. It indicated that the null hypothesis (Ho) was rejected and alternative hypothesis (Ha) was accepted. It could be concluded that it was effective to teach reading comprehension by using skimming and scanning techniques to the tenth grade students of SMAN 1 Gelumbang.

Keywords: *teaching, reading, skimming and scanning*

Introduction

In Indonesia, the teaching of English has become central for at least two reasons. First, English is now the only foreign language which should be taught as a compulsory school subject at high schools and universities. Other foreign languages, if any, are only offered for certain fields of study. Second, as the first foreign language, English is one out of three school subjects being tested at the National Examination. The latest shows that this language is very important in this country (Ermita, 2007, p.21-25).

Mikulecky (2004, p.240) state that the teaching of English in Indonesia is focused on reading skill. In other words, reading is one important way to improve students general language skills in English. So, there are some advantages for the students as the importance of reading:

a. Reading helps you learn to think in English.
b. Reading can enlarge your English vocabulary.
c. Reading can help you improve your writing.
d. Reading may be a good way to practice your English if you life in non English-speaking country.
e. Reading can help you prepare for study in an English-speaking country.
f. Reading is a good way to find out about new ideas, facts, and experiences.

Based on the explanation above, it is important for the students to develop their reading comprehension ability, because reading is a skill to be developed much as learning to think and to write effectively.

Gebhard (1996, p.202) states that skimming and scanning techniques are hoped to help students to comprehend the reading, because skimming is a technique to get general information of a paragraph text quickly, and scanning is a technique to get specific information quickly without reading the whole text.

Based on the explanation above skimming and scanning techniques are important in reading. It is important to know the effectiveness of skimming and scanning techniques. So, the writer would like to do research on those two techniques applied to the tenth grade students of SMAN 1 Gelumbang.

Literature Review

Definition of Reading

Reading is a process employed by an individual in order to understand what an author says (Brown, 1994, p.271). Reading is an important skill to help people learn from human knowledge and experience. Through reading, knowledge has greatly contributed to the growth of mankind. Reading is a process of how the information is processed from the text into meanings, starting with the information from the text and the ending with what the reader gains. So, it can be inferred that reading is a process between the reader and the text which associated with meaning and the reader use strategy to determine what that meaning it. Meaning is expressed not only by single of word but by units of phrase and sentence. So, reading is very important to daily activity.

The Concept of Teaching Reading

Teaching is controlling, guiding, and facilitating learning, enabling the learner to learn, setting the condition for learning (Brown, 1994, p.161). Based on explanation above, teaching is not a simple task. It is a profession that needs to great mastery of the field and it should be educational.

The concept of teaching reading, in this study using skimming and scanning techniques. It has two techniques that can help readers quickly gain information from a book, magazine, newspaper or website without having to read every word.

Skimming

Readers skim a text when they look it over quickly to get a general idea of the subject matter. The reader is not interested in all the detail, getting the gist is enough. Skimmers run their eye down the page or screen looking for pointers that sum up the contents. Subheadings or bullet points attract their attention, as do the introductory phrases of paragraphs and the concluding ones. In longer texts, skimmers check the contents lists, the opening and closing paragraphs of chapters, and any introductions, conclusions or summaries.

Scanning

Readers scan a piece of writing when they quickly search it for specific information. For example, a reader might scan a biography of Abraham Lincoln, looking out only for significant dates. The reader would skip over descriptions of Lincoln's upbringing, his struggles and his achievements, stopping only to note the years. Scanners will make use of a book's index and contents page. When running their eye over the text, they will look out for keywords relevant to their search.

The Concept of Comprehension

Mikulecky (2004, p.16) state that comprehension is part of life. As you read, you make connections between what you are reading and what you already know. Sometimes the connection seems to happen by itself. Especialy when the information is important or interesting to you. But at other times, it is not so simple. The text may seem a mass of information with no meaning that will stick. So how to make sense of everything you read and how to remember it.

Gebhard (1996, p.205) stated that reading comprehension can be understood as the recognizing words. Unlike skimming and scanning, activities that aim at having students read for thorough comprehension require students to read meticulously. The goal is for the students to understand the total meaning of a reading selection. According to Ernita (2007, p.23) there are four levels of comprehension:

1) Literal Comprehension

In literal comprehension consists of using two types of tasks. Recognition tasks require students to identify the main points in the reading selection or exercises that uses the explicit content of reading slection. Recall tasks, on the other hand, demand that students produce from memory explicit statementsfrom selection.

2) Inferential Comprehension

The second level is often called inferential comprehension, reading to infer what the authous imply or state directly in their text. Information need for comprehension is present in the

text, but readers must read between line to get the authors really means or think about the content, inferrential question ask the readers to "think and search" what is the author think and search through the actual text to find the answer.

3) Evaluative Comprehension

The third level, evaluative comprehension also requires extensive thinking about what one read. Readers judge what they read against external criteria such as information provided by teachers or additional reading sources or against internal criteria such as their own experiences with the topic.

4) Appreciative Comprehension

The final level, apprecitive comprehension are includes "On My Own" reading tasks. When readers decide if they liked what they have characters and setting and advance plot, they exercise apprecitive comprehension. When young story book listeners or readers become angry at a character in a story or cry over a sad turn of plot, they have shown appreciative comprehension.

The Concept of Skimming Technique

Gebhard (1996, p.203) states that skimming is quickly reading to find the general ideas of a text. When you read the newspaper, you're probably not reading it word-by-word, instead you're scanning the text. Skimming is done at a speed three to four times faster than normal reading. People often skim when they have lots of material to read in a limited amount of time. Use skimming when you want to see if an article may be of interest in your research. There are many strategies that can be used when skimming.

The Concept of Scanning Technique

Gebhard (1996, p.203) states that scanning is a technique quick reading to locate specific information. For examples, we scan telephone books, catalogs, dictionaries, basically any source in which we need to locate specific information. You search for key words or ideas. In most cases, you know what you're looking for, so you're concentrating on finding a particular answer. Scanning involves moving your eyes quickly down the page seeking specific words and phrases. Scanning is also used when you first find a resource to determine whether it will answer your questions. Once you've scanned the document, you might go back and skim it.

Procedure of Teaching Reading Comprehension by Using Skimming and Scanning Techniques

In this procedure of teaching reading comprehension by using skimming and scanning techniques, the writer of the research used three phase techniques. The three phases of teaching reading comprehension of three steps.(1) pre-reading activities, (2) whilst-activities, (3) post-activities.

Pre-reading activities was conducted: Greeting the students, checking the attendance list, giving the motivation students, and asking the students make some questions related to the sub theme.

Whilst-activities was conducted: Presenting some unfamiliar words, distributing the copy of the text to each students, asking the students to read quickly each paragraph, asking the students to comprehend and to find the general information in the text. Such as read the title and the illustrations, asking the students to find the specific information quickly without read whole of the text. Such as setting, date, symbol and number, asking the students to find the key points in the summaries, asking the students to get the social message from the author of the text and a sking the students to answer the questions from of the text

Post-reading activities was conducted: Summing up the lesson, evaluating each student by asking question and giving them quiz to asses each student in comprehension the reading text and closing.

Previous Related Study

In related previous study, there were two thesis related to this study. The

8. Yule (2010, P. 212)

The Study of Language

Fourth Edition

George Yule

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Writing

We can define writing as the symbolic representation of language through the use of graphic signs. Unlike speech, it is a system that is not simply acquired, but has to be learned through sustained conscious effort. Not all languages have a written form and, even among people whose language has a well-established writing system, there are large numbers of individuals who cannot use the system.

In terms of human development, writing is a relatively recent phenomenon. We may be able to trace human attempts to represent information visually back to cave drawings made at least 20,000 years ago, or to clay tokens from about 10,000 years ago, which appear to have been an early attempt at bookkeeping, but these artifacts are best described as ancient precursors of writing. The earliest writing for which we have clear evidence is known as "cuneiform," marked on clay tablets about 5,000 years ago. An ancient script that has a more obvious connection to writing systems in use today can be identified in inscriptions dated around 3,000 years ago.

Much of the evidence used in the reconstruction of ancient writing systems comes from inscriptions on stone or tablets. If those ancients were using other elaborate scripts on wood, leather or other perishable materials, we have lost them. But working from the inscriptions we do have, we can trace the development of one writing tradition, lasting a few thousand years, with which humans have sought to create a more permanent record of what was going on.

Pictograms and ideograms

Cave drawings may serve to record some event (e.g. Humans 3, Buffaloes 1), but they are not usually thought of as any type of specifically linguistic message. They are usually treated as part of a tradition of pictorial art. When some of the "pictures" came to represent particular images in a consistent way, we can begin to describe the product as a form of picture-writing, or pictograms. In this way, a form such as ☀ might come to be used for the sun. An essential part of this use of a representative symbol is that everyone should use a similar form to convey a roughly similar meaning. That is, a conventional relationship must exist between the symbol and its interpretation.

In time, this picture might develop into a more fixed symbolic form, such as ⊙, and come to be used for "heat" and "daytime," as well as for "sun." Note that as the symbol extends from "sun" to "heat," it is moving from something visible to something conceptual (and no longer a picture). This type of symbol is then considered to be

9. Harmer (2004, P. 4)
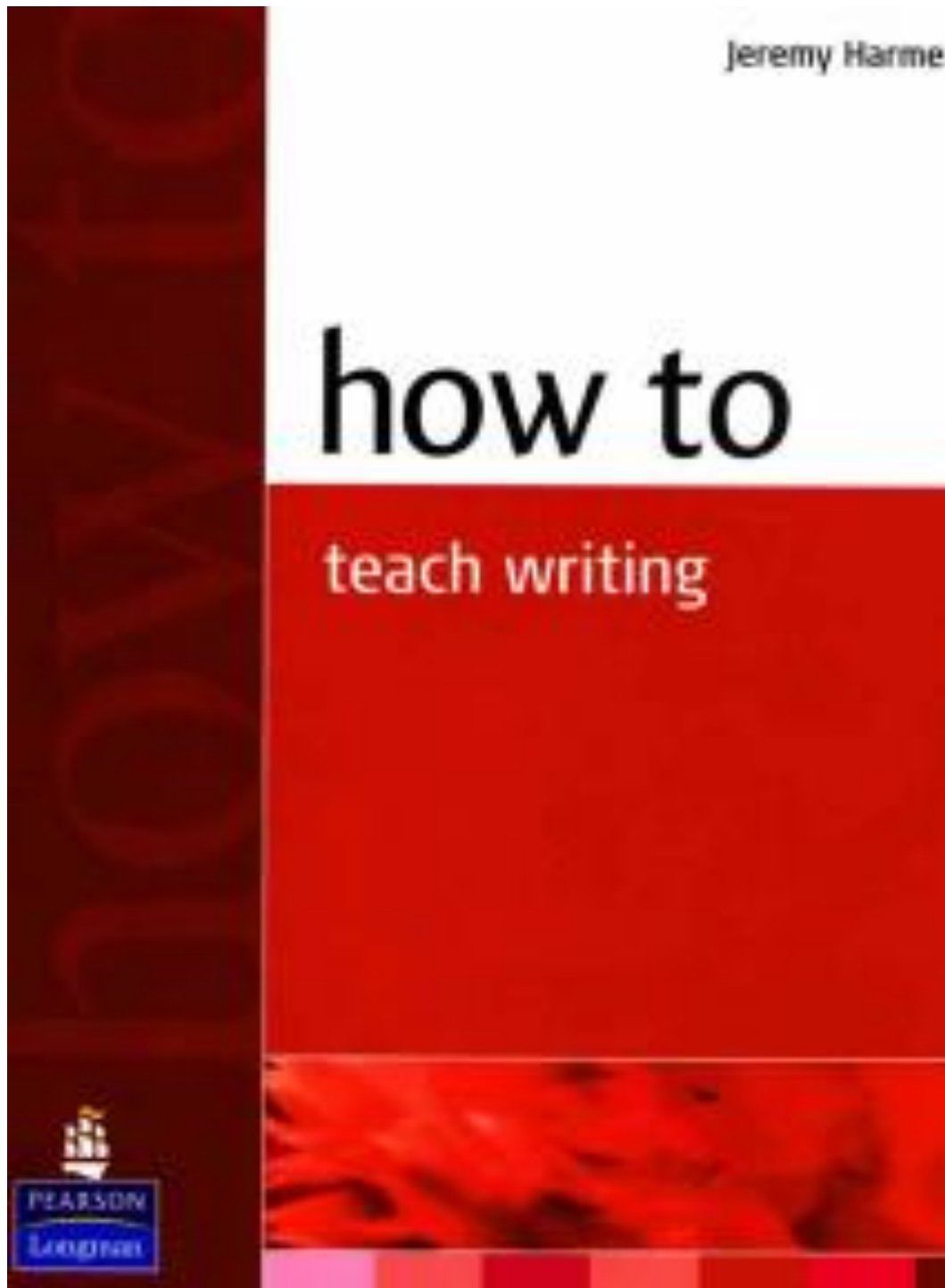
Jeremy Harme

how to

teach writing

PEARSON
Longman

Acknowledgements

Planning

Experienced writers plan what they are going to write. Before starting to write or type, they try and decide what it is they are going to say. For some writers this may involve making detailed notes. For others a few jotted words may be enough. Still others may not actually write down any preliminary notes at all since they may do all their planning in their heads. But they will have planned, nevertheless, just as the shopping list writer has thought – at some level of consciousness – about what food is needed before writing it on the piece of paper.

When planning, writers have to think about three main issues. In the first place they have to consider the **purpose** of their writing since this will

influence (amongst other things) not only the type of text they wish to produce, but also the language they use, and the information they choose to include. Secondly, experienced writers think of the **audience** they are writing for, since this will influence not only the shape of the writing (how it is laid out, how the paragraphs are structured, etc.), but also the choice of language – whether, for example, it is formal or informal in tone. Thirdly, writers have to consider the **content structure** of the piece – that is, how best to sequence the facts, ideas, or arguments which they have decided to include.

Drafting

We can refer to the first version of a piece of writing as a **draft**. This first 'go' at a text is often done on the assumption that it will be amended later. As the writing process proceeds into editing, a number of drafts may be produced on the way to the final version.

Editing (reflecting and revising)

Once writers have produced a draft they then, usually, read through what they have written to see where it works and where it doesn't. Perhaps the order of the information is not clear. Perhaps the way something is written is ambiguous or confusing. They may then move paragraphs around or write a new introduction. They may use a different form of words for a particular sentence. More skilled writers tend to look at issues of general meaning and overall structure before concentrating on detailed features such as individual words and grammatical accuracy. The latter two are, of course, important and are often dealt with later in the process.

Reflecting and revising are often helped by other readers (or editors) who comment and make suggestions. Another reader's reaction to a piece of writing will help the author to make appropriate revisions.
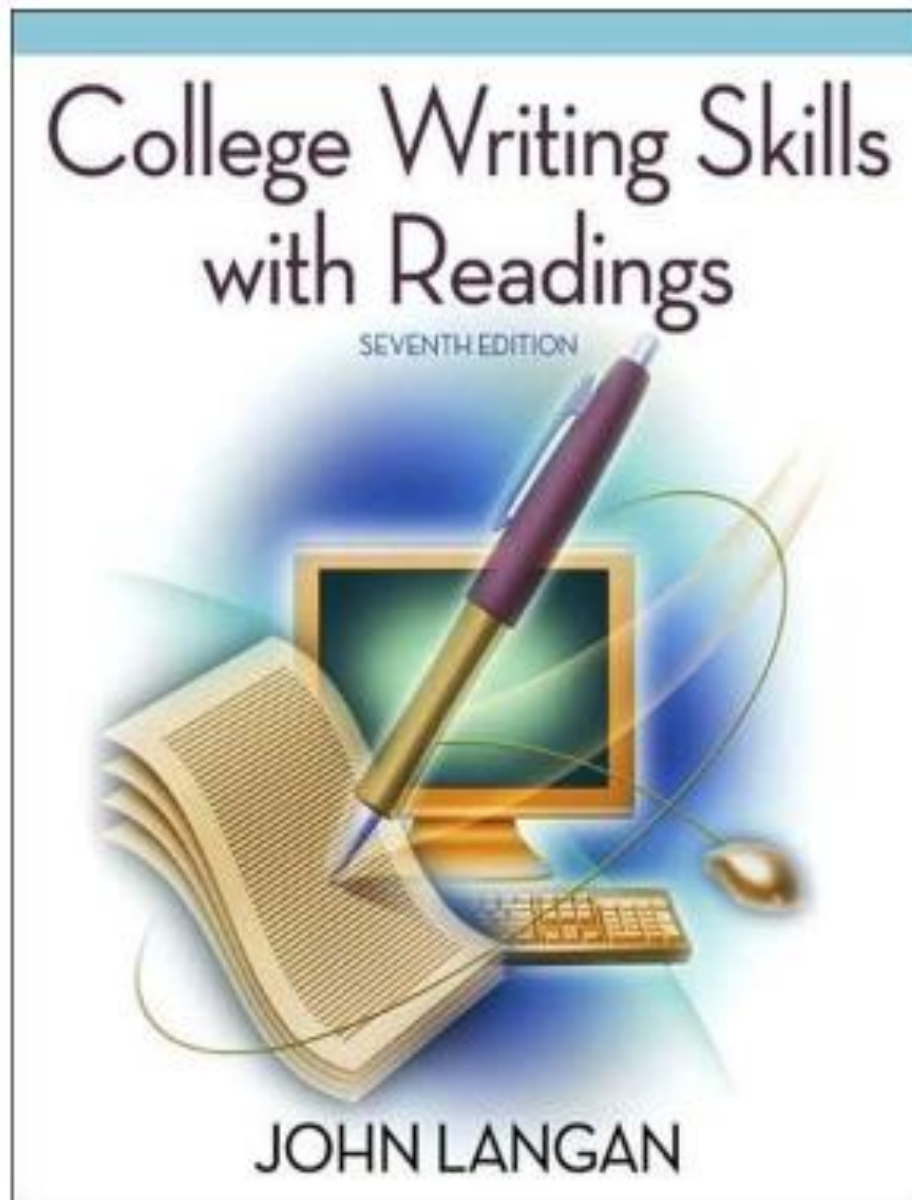
Final version

Once writers have edited their draft, making the changes they consider to be necessary, they produce their final version. This may look considerably different from both the original plan and the first draft, because things have changed in the editing process. But the writer is now ready to send the written text to its intended audience.

We might decide to represent these stages in the following way:

planning ➡ drafting ➡ editing ➡ final draft

10. Langan (2008. P. 17)

The McGraw-Hill Companies

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Using a Computer at Each Stage of the Writing Process

Following are some ways to make word processing a part of your writing. Note that this section may be more meaningful *after* you have worked through Chapter 2 of this book.

Prewriting

If you're a fast typist, many kinds of prewriting will work well on a computer. With freewriting in particular, you can get ideas onto the screen almost as quickly as they occur to you. A passing thought that could be productive is not likely to get lost. You may even find it helpful, when freewriting, to dim the monitor screen so

that you can't see what you're typing. If you temporarily can't see the screen, you won't have to worry about grammar or spelling or typing errors (all of which do not matter in prewriting); instead, you can concentrate on getting down as many ideas and details as possible about your subject.

After any initial freewriting, questioning, and list-making on a computer, it's often very helpful to print out a hard copy of what you've done. With a clean printout in front of you, you'll be able to see everything at once and revise and expand your work with handwritten comments in the margins of the paper.

If you have prepared a list of items, you may be able to turn that list into an outline right on the screen. Delete the ideas you feel should not be in your paper (saving them at the end of the file in case you change your mind), and add any new ideas that occur to you. Then use the cut and paste functions to shuffle the supporting ideas around until you find the best order for your paper.

Word processing also makes it easy for you to experiment with the wording of the point of your paper. You can try a number of versions in a short time. After you have decided on the version that works best, you can easily delete the other versions—or simply move them to a temporary "leftover" section at the end of the paper.

Writing Your First Draft

Like many writers, you may want to write out your first draft by hand and then type it into the computer for revision. Even as you type your handwritten draft, you may find yourself making some changes and improvements. And once you have a draft on the screen, or printed out, you will find it much easier to revise than a handwritten one.

Teaching Tip

Show students how to use the copy and paste functions. Some students may not know the shortcuts Ctrl+C and Ctrl+V.

If you feel comfortable composing directly on a computer, you can benefit from its special features. For example, if you have written an anecdote in your freewriting that you plan to use in your paper, simply copy the story from your freewriting file and insert it where it fits in your paper. You can refine it then or later. Or if you discover while typing that a sentence is out of place, cut it out from where it is and paste it wherever you wish. And if while writing you realize that an earlier sentence can be expanded, just move your cursor back to that point and type in the additional material.

Revising

It is during revision that the virtues of word processing really shine. All substituting, adding, deleting, and rearranging can be done easily within an existing file. All changes instantly take their proper places within the paper, not scribbled above the line or squeezed into the margin. You can concentrate on each change you want to make, because you never have to type from scratch or work on a messy draft. You can carefully go through your paper to check that all your supporting evidence is relevant and to add new support as needed here and there. Anything you decide to eliminate can be deleted in a keystroke. Anything you add can be inserted precisely

where you choose. If you change your mind, all you have to do is delete or cut and paste. Then you can sweep through the paper, focusing on other changes, such as improving word choice, increasing sentence variety, and eliminating wordiness.

TIP

If you are like many students, you might find it convenient to print out a hard copy of your file at various points throughout the revision. You can then revise in longhand—adding, crossing out, and indicating changes—and later quickly make these changes in the document.
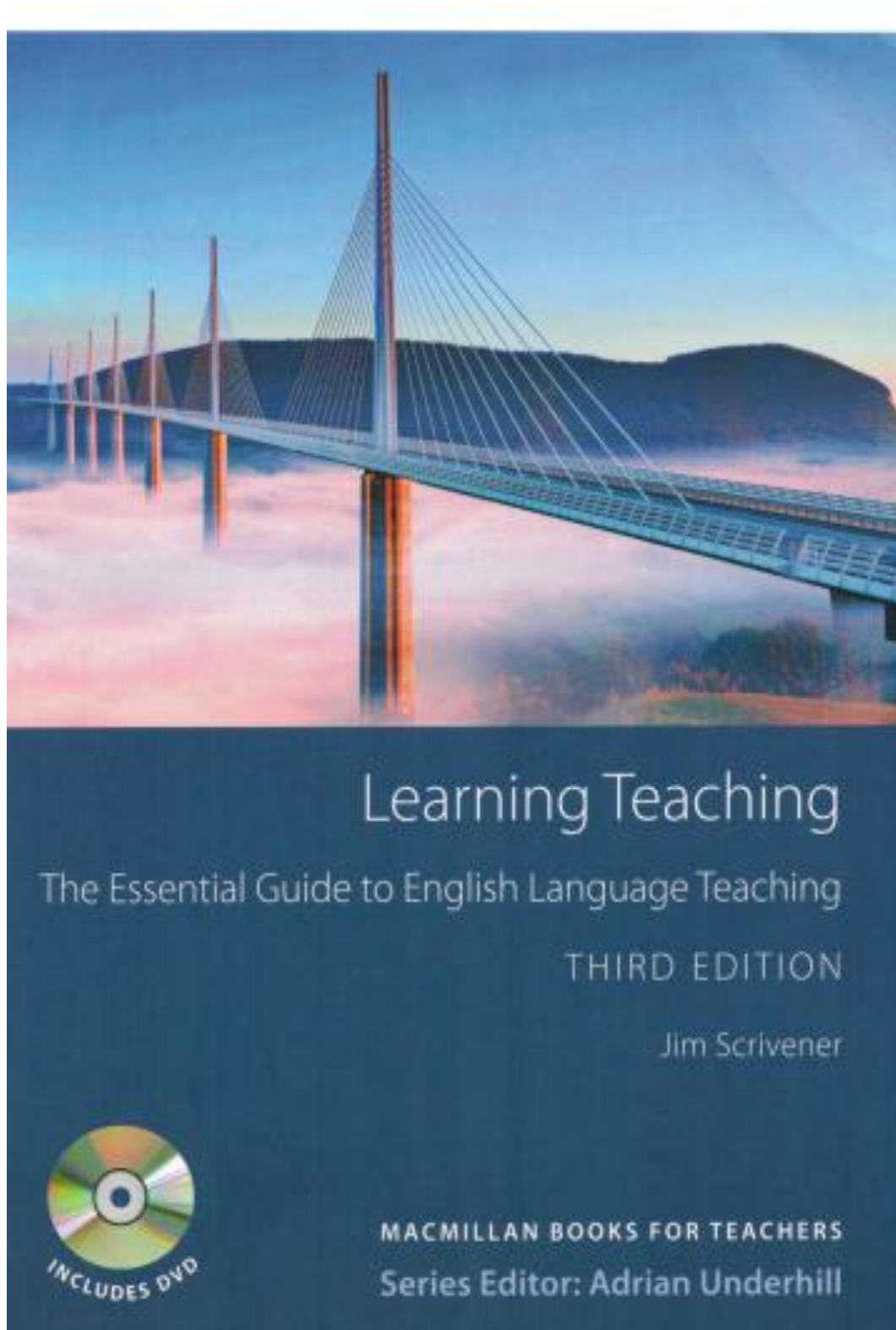
Editing and Proofreading

Editing and proofreading also benefit richly from word processing. Instead of crossing out mistakes, using correction fluid, or rewriting an entire paper to correct numerous errors, you can make all necessary changes within the most recent draft. If you find editing or proofreading on the screen hard on your eyes, print out a copy. Mark any corrections on that copy, and then transfer them to the final draft.

If the word-processing program you're using includes spelling and grammar checks, by all means use them. The spell-checker function tells you when a word is not in the program's dictionary. Keep in mind, however, that the spell-checker cannot tell you how to spell a name correctly or when you have mistakenly used, for example, *their* instead of *there*. To a spell-checker, *Thank ewe four the complement* is as correct as *Thank you for the compliment*. Also, use the grammar-checker with caution. Any errors it doesn't uncover are still your responsibility.

A word-processed paper, with its clean appearance and handsome formatting, looks so good that you may feel it is in better shape than it really is. Do not be fooled. Take sufficient time to review your grammar, punctuation, and spelling carefully.

Even after you hand in your paper, save the computer file. Your teacher may ask you to do some revising, and then the file will save you from having to type the paper from scratch.

11. Scrivener (2011, P. 239, P. 267)

Learning Teaching

The Essential Guide to English Language Teaching

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Jim Scrivener

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7 Writing in class

In this section, we will look in more detail at some classroom activities and strategies mentioned in the previous section.

Ideas for generating ideas

Brainstorming

It can be hard to get enough good ideas to write about. Brainstorming is a way to get the 'ideas creation engine' running. It means 'opening your mind and letting ideas pour out'. It also means not engaging that 'checking' part of your brain that too quickly dismisses things as stupid or useless (because we lose out on a lot of potentially good ideas because we reject them too soon). For this reason, it seems helpful to separate the ideas collection and the (later) critical review of those ideas.

Here's a way to brainstorm in class:

- Write the topic or title in a circle in the middle of the board.
- Tell students to call out anything that comes to mind connected with the topic.
- Write up everything on the board.
- There should be no discussion or comments (especially derogatory ones!) – just ideas.

So what will happen? People will call out ideas. You'll write them up. It may take a while to get going, but after a bit, the ideas will probably start flowing. After a reasonable period of time (ie however long it takes to fill the board with thoughts), you can stop. Now there is a lot to look back over. Invite students to select ideas they like and can use, or maybe allow some discussion time in groups to continue the sifting process. Everyone should have something they can make use of.

Text-starts

A lot of real-life writing involves looking at other texts and summarising, reporting, responding to them, selecting ideas from them, commenting on them, etc. Supplying 'text-starts' can be a good way to provide useful writing work for students and practise reading / writing skills that are useful in professional life and academic research. The actual content of the texts provides a lot of 'support' for the writer (especially the one who worries that she must be 'imaginative' to write) in that there is something concrete to deal with and many ideas are already formulated and mainly need a response or opinion, rather than original thought.

Resource material	Writing task
Information about a holiday location (pictures, description, list of attractions, etc).	You are the copy-writer for the local tourist board. Write a two-paragraph advertisement for the place to encourage more visitors to come.
Full data and illustrations of three different up-to-date household products or gadgets. Possible extra information about consumer trends, the economy, etc.	You are a senior manager and will attend a meeting to decide on one new product to produce. Write a brief report on each product, then outline your recommendations as to which one to choose, with reasons.
A map of a town. Short descriptions of 'ghosts' that are said to haunt specific buildings and locations.	You are a local tour guide who has decided to start a 'Ghost walk' for tourists around town. Plan a route for the walk. Write a short article for the local paper to publicise it.
Seven emails to your company pointing out problems with the delivery service.	You are head of the delivery department. Write an email to the director summarising the problems and making recommendations.
A number of articles from different sources on the same news item; a letter from your friend asking if you've heard about the item and what you think about it.	Write a letter to your friend.
History articles, encyclopaedias, websites, etc.	Prepare a wall poster to interest and inform your friends about a historical topic.

Fast-writing

For many writers, the single most difficult thing is simply to start writing. The blank page sits in front of you, and it can become very hard even to put down the first word. The longer you fail to write, the harder that first sentence becomes.

Instead, imagine that your students could have a whole page of their own writing to start from; not a final version, but something on which to base their new writing. This is what fast-writing aims to achieve. Even if only a word or a line from this first attempt makes it into the final text, it has served its purpose, like the ignition key on a car, getting the writing started.

Tell students that they need a few pieces of blank paper. The rules are that when you say 'start', they should:

- start writing about the topic;
- not stop writing;
- not put their pen down at all;
- not worry about spelling, grammar, etc;
- write 'um, um, um' or 'rubbish' or something else if they can't think of what to write;
- not stop to go back and read what they have written;
- keep writing till you say 'stop' (which will be after five / eight / ten minutes or however long you think is appropriate for your group).

At the end, they will have a page or more of writing. A lot of it will be rubbish! But there will also often be ideas and ways of saying things that are worth retrieving. Give the learners enough time to look back over what they have written. Tell them to be ruthless and cross out a lot of the writing, but also to retrieve some good pieces. They can then use these as starting points for the new writing.

It's a surprisingly useful task. Often we don't know what on earth we are going to write until we start writing it. Fast-writing is one way to start that finding-out process.

Ideas for helping writing

Structuring and organising

Some simple strategies may help learners find an order for their ideas. 'Card planning' involves learners writing down the main themes of their text as notes onto separate cards. They then arrange the cards in various orders until they get a sequence that seems to work. Similarly, learners could draw a sketch diagram showing how their text will be put together, using lines and arrows to link separate items.

Looking at sample texts

It is often helpful if students see samples of the kind of texts they are working on. If you offer this as an activity early on in the lesson sequence, it is likely that this sample will be viewed as a kind of model on which to base their own work. The final product may then be substantially similar to the original, especially in layout and organisation, but with substitutions of content. If you offer samples later on in the writing work, learners will probably see the text as something to give them extra support and ideas, but may not significantly alter their own overall structure and content.

What can you study in a sample text?

- The layout
- The overall message
- How the items are organised
- Specific phrases and sentences used
- Distinctive grammatical features
- The style and tone
- The effect on the reader

Getting feedback on drafts

Feedback on writing isn't something to save up until the entire text is fully completed. In fact, it is of very little use then, as the thing is over, and students will probably just want a complimentary comment and then to forget it. The most useful comments are those that will have an impact as the writing is evolving; these will be useful from as many different readers as possible, from fellow students just as much as from you.

Organise pairs of students to read each other's work, or groups to give comments. Feedback could be done in answer to specific questions or according to a feedback form of some kind or more freely as general response and comments. As a result of feedback, students can write a new draft of their work, which can then be submitted again to readers for comments. This cycle of feedback and comments can lead to excellent results and really helps writers get a clearer idea of what a reader finds in their work.

Using computers

If you like the idea of redrafting and feedback, you may want to give thought to whether the writing is on computer. Using a computer has significant advantages for student writing over pen and paper:

- It is readable (no handwriting jungles)!
- Multiple copies can be printed out for as many readers as needed.
- Suggestions and edits can be written on to hard copies and then editing can be done on the computer – no need to rewrite from scratch.
- It can be emailed directly to other students or to you.

Some specific features of word-processing software may be useful. If your students are relatively unfamiliar with computers, you may want to teach them how to:

- select text; change font and font size; apply underline, bold, italic, etc;
- use basic editing features 'cut', 'copy', 'paste';
- set the spell-check language and options for 'check spelling as you type';
- regularly save back-up copies so that six hours of vital work is not lost after one mistake;
- use (and be wary of) any grammar-checking facilities;
- use a 'comment' feature, allowing different readers to leave notes in the body of the text that the writer can then review and use later on;
- program simple **macros** (mini-programs that can do frequently repeated actions at the press of a button). For example, I have found that having a word-count macro is very handy on the main toolbar.

Top-down reading

As with listening lessons, many reading lessons move from 'big' to 'small', ie 'top-down' – from overview to details. Using the task–feedback circle as a starting point, we can plan a route map for a basic reading lesson (Figure 10.5).

Pre-text	1	Introduction and lead-in, eg get the learners interested in the topic, initial discussion of key themes, make an explicit link between the topic of the text and students' own lives and experiences, focus on important language that will come in the text
	2	First task (pre-reading), eg predict from some extracted information (illustration, key words, headlines), read questions about the text, students compose their own questions
Text	3	Tasks to focus on fast reading for gist (skimming), eg check text against predictions made beforehand, guess the title from a choice of three options, put events (or illustrations) in the correct order
	4	Tasks to focus on fast reading to locate specific information (scanning)
	5	Tasks to focus on meaning (general points), eg answer questions about meaning, make use of information in the text to do something (make a sketch, fill out a form, find out which picture is being described, etc), discuss issues, summarise arguments, compare viewpoints
	6	Tasks to focus on meaning (finer points of detail, more intensive comprehensive understanding)
	7	Tasks to focus on individual language items, eg vocabulary or grammar exercises, use of dictionaries, work out meaning of words from context
Post-text	8	Follow-on task, eg role play, debate, writing task (eg write a letter in reply), personalisation (eg 'Have you ever had an experience like this one?')
	9	Closing, eg draw the lesson to a conclusion, tie up loose ends, review what has been studied and what has been learned

Figure 10.5 Possible route map for a reading lesson

Here are some specific ideas for reading tasks:

- Put these illustrations of the text in the correct order.
- Put these cut-up paragraphs in the correct order.
- Find words in the text that mean the same as the words in this list.
- Read the text and find the mistakes in this illustration (or draw your own).
- Read the text and make a list of particular items (eg jobs that need doing, the author's proposals, advantages and disadvantages, etc).
- Give a headline to each section of the article (or match given headlines with the sections).
- Find appropriate places in the text to reinsert some sentences that have previously been separated from the text.

12. Weigle (2002, P. 14, P. 116)

Assessing Writing

Sara Cushing Weigle

Cambridge Language Assessment Series

Series Editors J. Charles Alderson & Lyle F. Bachman

CAMBRIDGE
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The nature of writing ability

Introduction

In Chapter 1, the role of writing in second-language learning was explored. In this chapter, we turn to a consideration of the nature of writing ability. Defining the skill that we want to test is a critical starting point in designing a test, and, as we shall see, the definition of writing ability for a particular context will depend in large measure on the considerations discussed in Chapter 1: that is, the specific group of second-language writers and the type of writing that these writers are likely to engage in.

This chapter looks at the nature of writing ability from several perspectives: first, in comparison with the other so-called productive skill of speaking, next as a social and cultural phenomenon, then as a cognitive activity. Finally, the relationship between writing and second-language proficiency is discussed.

The relationship between writing and speaking

It is traditional in language teaching and testing to categorize instances of language use into four skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking, using channel (aural versus visual) and mode (productive versus receptive). The extent to which these different skills actually involve different cognitive mechanisms or are simply various socio-culturally mediated manifestations of a more general language ability

ESL COMPOSITION PROFILE

STUDENT	DATE	TOPIC

SCORE	LEVEL	CRITERIA	COMMENTS

CONTENT

30-27 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: knowledgeable ● substantive ● thorough development of thesis ● relevant to assigned topic

26-22 GOOD TO AVERAGE: some knowledge of subject ● adequate range ● limited development of thesis ● mostly relevant to topic, but lacks detail

21-17 FAIR TO POOR: limited knowledge of subject ● little substance ● inadequate development of topic

16-13 VERY POOR: does not show knowledge of subject ● non-substantive ● not pertinent ● OR not enough to evaluate

ORGANIZATION

20-18 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: fluent expression ● ideas clearly stated/ supported ● succinct ● well-organized ● logical sequencing ● cohesive

17-14 GOOD TO AVERAGE: somewhat choppy ● loosely organized but main ideas stand out ● limited support ● logical but incomplete sequencing

13-10 FAIR TO POOR: non-fluent ● ideas confused or disconnected ● lacks logical sequencing and development

9-7 VERY POOR: does not communicate ● no organization ● OR not enough to evaluate

VOCABULARY

20-18 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: sophisticated range ● effective word/ idiom choice and usage ● word form mastery ● appropriate register

17-14 GOOD TO AVERAGE: adequate range ● occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage but *meaning not obscured*

13-10 FAIR TO POOR: limited range ● frequent errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage ● *meaning confused or obscured*

9-7 VERY POOR: essentially translation ● little knowledge of English vocabulary, idioms, word form ● OR not enough to evaluate

LANGUAGE USE

25-22 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: effective complex constructions ● few errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions

21-18 GOOD TO AVERAGE: effective but simple constructions ● minor problems in complex constructions ● several errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions but *meaning seldom obscured*

17-11 FAIR TO POOR: major problems in simple/complex constructions ● frequent errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order/ function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/or fragments, run-ons, deletions ● *meaning confused or obscured*

10-5 VERY POOR: virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules ● dominated by errors ● does not communicate ● OR not enough to evaluate

MECHANICS

5 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: demonstrates mastery of conventions ● few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing

4 GOOD TO AVERAGE: occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing but *meaning not obscured*

3 FAIR TO POOR: frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing ● poor handwriting ● *meaning confused or obscured*

2 VERY POOR: no mastery of conventions ● dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing ● handwriting illegible ● OR not enough to evaluate

TOTAL SCORE	READER	COMMENTS

Figure 6.3 Jacobs *et al.*'s (1981) scoring profile

13. Khalisa (2018)

**THE CORRELATION BETWEEN STUDENTS' READING HABIT AND
THEIR WRITING ABILITY**

THESIS

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2018 M/1440 H**

ABSTRACT

The present study was carried out to explore the students' English reading habit and to examine whether there is a correlation between students' reading habit and their writing ability. The research was conducted to second year students at SMAN 4 Kota Banda Aceh. 40 students out of 271 were randomly taken as the sample of this study. The quantitative research was used to collect the data by using questionnaires and test in order to find out students' English reading habit and their writing ability respectively. Twenty (20) items of questionnaire and writing test were given to the participant at SMAN 4 Kota Banda Aceh. The data were analysed by using Likert scale and the correlation coefficient by Pearson. The result of questionnaires show that students have a high reading habit. The majority of them enjoyed reading English very much using online sources; however only few agree to spent 15-30 minutes each day to read English although they spend their time periodically to read English every week. In addition, most of them also affirmed that reading English is purposed to improve their writing skill as they think that reading English is supported their intentions. This fact is highly correlated to the result of correlation coefficient which shows that the correlation between students" reading habit and their writing ability is 0.899 (high correlation). Therefore, it can be concluded that the students have high reading habit even though only few agree to spent 15-30 minutes of their time to read English each day while they know that reading highly impacts their writing ability. Hence, it implies that students should provide more time to read voluntarily because it gives significant effect to their writing ability.

Keywords: *Reading habit, writing ability, senior high school student, English writing*

14. Rahmawati (2015)

A CORRELATIVE STUDY OF STUDENTS' READING INTEREST

TOWARD THEIR WRITING ABILITY OF THE THIRD SEMESTER

OF INTERNATIONAL CLASS PROGRAM STUDENTS OF IAIN

SALATIGA IN THE ACADEMIC YEAR OF 2015/2016

A GRADUATING PAPER

Submitted to the Board of Examiners as a partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of *Sarjana Pendidikan Islam (S.Pd.I)* English
Education Department of Teacher Training and Education Faculty
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STATE INSTITUTE FOR ISLAMIC STUDIES (IAIN) OF SALATIGA
2015

ABSTRACT

Nanik Rahmawati. 113 11 083. 2011. *A Correlative Study of Students' Reading Interest Toward Their Writing Ability of The Third Semester of International Class Program Students of Iain Salatiga in The Academic Year of 2015/2016.* A Thesis. Salatiga: English Education Department of Teacher Training and Eduation Faculty State Institute for Islamic studies (IAIN) Salatiga. 2015.

One of important factors which may affect students' low writing ability is because students are lack of vocabulary knowledge. The limited vocabulary knowledge that the students have is actually related with their frequency in reading. As the more they read the more vocabulary and new words they can encounter. But how can they encounter many vocabularies if they have no interest in reading. Therefore, it is necessary for the students to be interested in reading in order to improve their writing ability.

This research is purposed to find out wheather there is any correlation of students' reading interest toward their writing ability of the third semester of International Class Program majoring English Education Department of IAIN Salatiga in the academic year of 2015/2016 or not and to find out the profile of students' reading interest and writing ability of the third semester of International Class Program majoring English Education Department of IAIN Salatiga in the academic year of 2015/2016. This research is a corelational research. The research was conducted in August 2015.

As a quantitative research, the data collection method that was used by the researcher was questionnaire and test. Documentation was used to get additional information. The result of this research shows that he score of reading interest of the respondents showed a good result because the average of their score for reading interest was 66 from the scale 0-100. 70% of students are highly interested in reading and the rest 30% are interested enough in reading. The score of writing ability of the respondents showed a positive result. It is proven by the result of writing test that highest score is 87 and the lowest score was 53 from total score 100. 20% of the students categorized as excellent in writing ability and the rest two categorized as 40% good and 40% fair in writing ability. At the level of significance 1% (0.01), the r-calculation is higher than r-table because r-calculation is 0.855 while r-table is 0.708. Thus, it can be said that the correlation between reading interest and writing ability were very significant.

Keywords: Correlative Study, reading interest, writing ability.

THE CORRELATION BETWEEN STUDENTS' READING HABIT
AND THEIR ABILITY OF WRITING NARRATIVE TEXT

(A Correlational Study on the Eleventh Graders of SMAN 1 Kajen Pekalongan
in the Academic Year of 2014/2015)

a final project
submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for degree of *Sarjana Pendidikan*
in English

by
INAYATUL MAULA

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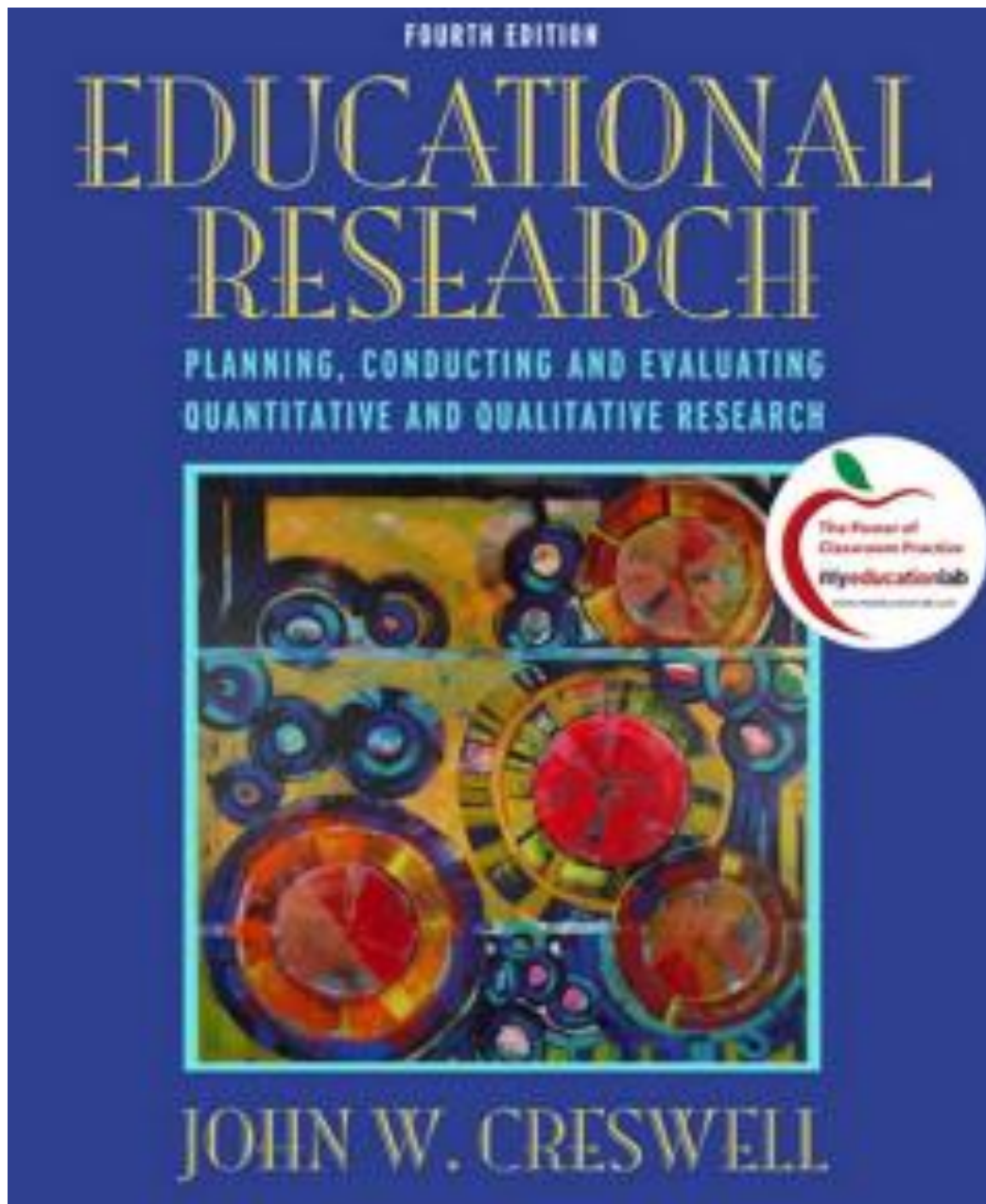**STATE UNIVERSITY OF SEMARANG**
2015

ABSTRACT

This final project discussed the correlation between the students' reading habit and students' ability of writing narrative text. The basic problem the writer wanted to discuss in this final project was the importance of reading habit which impacts the ability of writing narrative text of the eleventh graders of SMAN 1 Kajen Pekalongan. The research was aimed at finding out the level of reading habit of the eleventh graders of SMAN 1 Kajen in the academic year of 2014/2015, examining their writing ability, and finding out whether there is a correlation between students' reading habit and their ability of writing narrative text.

The population of this final project was the eleventh graders of SMAN 1 Kajen in the academic year of 2014/2015 and it was 309 students. 34 students were taken as the samples in this research through random sampling technique. A questionnaire was used to measure how good the students' reading habit and guided writing test to measure students' ability of writing narrative text. After conducting the research, it was found that the average score of the students' reading habit was 61.1%, that was in good level and the average score of the ability of writing narrative text was 72.4 that was categorized good as well. Moreover, the result of data analysis using SPSS shows that the correlation coefficient between the two variables (reading habit and writing ability) is 0.629, while the critical value for 34 students with 95% confidence is 0.339. Since the correlation coefficient obtained (0.629) is higher than the table value (0.339). It was concluded that there was a positive correlation between students' reading habit and their ability of writing narrative text.

Based on the research findings, it is suggested that the teachers should find a new way of teaching writing because writing style does not come from actual writing experience, but from reading. Many researches strongly suggest that learning to write is by reading, to be more precise in acquiring writing style, the special language of writing, by reading.

CHAPTER 3

1. Cresswell (2012, P. 142, P. 146, P. 175)

Between the time website information is gathered and then published, it is not unusual for some sites to have closed. Also, the transcription of URLs can result in typographical errors. The publisher would appreciate notification where these errors occur so that they may be corrected in subsequent editions.

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are typical of the population under study, enabling you to draw conclusions from the sample about the population as a whole. This definition is loaded with terms, and we will sort them so that you can see alternative procedures for deciding what individuals or organizations to study.

A **population** is a group of individuals who have the same characteristic. For example, all teachers would make up the population of teachers, and all high school administrators in a school district would comprise the population of administrators. As these examples illustrate, populations can be small or large. You need to decide what group you would like to study.

In practice, quantitative researchers sample from lists and people available. A **target population** (or the *sampling frame*) is a group of individuals (or a group of organizations) with some common defining characteristic that the researcher can identify and study.

Within this target population, researchers then select a sample for study. A **sample** is a subgroup of the target population that the researcher plans to study for generalizing about the target population. In an ideal situation, you can select a sample of individuals who are representative of the entire population. For instance, as shown in Figure 5.1, you might select a sample of high school teachers (the sample) from the population of all teachers in high schools in one city (the population). Alternatively, you might be able to study only biology teachers in two schools in the city. The first scenario represents rigorous, systematic sampling called *probability sampling* and the second, unsystematic *nonprobability sampling*.

Probabilistic and Nonprobabilistic Sampling

Researchers employ either probability or nonprobability sampling approaches. As shown in Figure 5.2, several types of both approaches are available. Researchers decide which type of sampling to use in their study based on such factors as the amount of rigor they seek for their studies, the characteristics of the target population, and the availability of participants.

In **probability sampling**, the researcher selects individuals from the population who are representative of that population. This is the most rigorous form of sampling in quantitative research because the investigator can claim that the sample is representative of the population and, as such, can make generalizations to the population.

FIGURE 5.1

Populations and Samples

Population	Sample
All teachers in high schools in one city	A sample of high school teachers
College students in all community colleges	Students in one community college
Adult educators in all schools of education	Adult educators in five schools of education in the Midwest
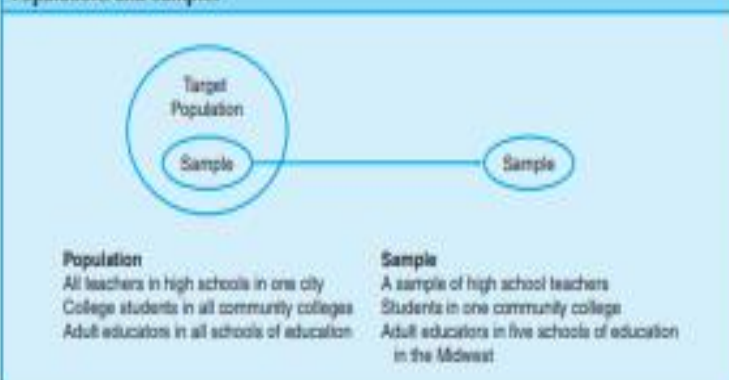
the sample can provide useful information for answering questions and hypotheses. Let's look at an example of convenience sampling.

A researcher conducting a study involving Native American students finds that a large percentage of students in one school are Native Americans. The researcher decides to study this group at this one school because they are available and because the researcher has the permission of the principal and can gain consent from the Native American students to participate in the study. This is a convenience sample because the participants are convenient to the researcher and are available for the study.

Snowball Sampling An alternative to convenience sampling is snowball sampling. In **snowball sampling**, the researcher asks participants to identify others to become members of the sample. For example, you might send surveys to a school superintendent and ask that the superintendent forward copies to the principals of schools in that school district. These principals then become members of the sample. This form of sampling has the advantage of recruiting large numbers of participants for the study. By using this process, however, you give up knowing exactly what individuals will be in your sample. It also eliminates the possibility of identifying individuals who did not return the survey, and those responding may not be representative of the population you seek to study. For example, participants who received the survey (e.g., principals who attended the Monday morning meeting with the superintendent) may not be representative of all individuals in the population (in this case, all principals in the school district).

Sample Size

When selecting participants for a study, it is important to determine the size of the sample you will need. A general rule of thumb is to select as large a sample as possible from the population. The larger the sample, the less the potential error is that the sample will be different from the population. This difference between the sample estimate and the true population score is called **sampling error**. If you were to select one sample after another, the average score of each sample would likely differ from the true average score for the entire population. For example, if we could obtain scores from sixth graders across the country about the importance of student–parent relationships, the average score might be a 30 on a 50-point scale. Of course, we cannot study every sixth grader, so instead we obtain a sample from one school district and get an average score of 35 on the scale. The next time we might obtain a score of 33, and the next time a 36, because our sample will change from one school district to another. This means that our average score is five points, three points, and one point, respectively, away from the "true" population average. This difference between the sample estimate and the true population score is sampling error. Therefore, since you usually cannot know the true population score, it is important to select as large a sample as possible from the population to minimize sampling error.

In some studies, you may have a limited number of participants who are conveniently available to study. In other cases, factors such as access, funding, the overall size of the population, and the number of variables will also influence the size of the samples.

One way to determine the sample size is to select a sufficient number of participants for the statistical procedures you plan to use. This presumes that you have identified the statistic to use in analysis. As a rough estimate, an educational researcher needs:

- Approximately 15 participants in each group in an experiment
- Approximately 30 participants for a correlational study that relates variables
- Approximately 350 individuals for a survey study, but this size will vary depending on several factors

WHAT ARE THE STEPS IN THE PROCESS OF QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS?

There are several interrelated steps used in the process of analyzing quantitative data. The first step is to prepare the data for analysis. This involves determining how to assign numeric scores to the data, assessing the types of scores to use, selecting a statistical program, and inputting the data into a program, and then cleaning up the database for analysis. The second step begins the data analysis. Typically you conduct a descriptive analysis of the data reporting measures of central tendency and variation. Then you conduct more sophisticated inferential analysis to test hypotheses and you examine confidence intervals and effect sizes. The next step is to report the results that are found using tables, figures, and a discussion of the key results. Finally, you interpret the results from the data analysis. This consists of summarizing the results, comparing the results with past literature and theories, advancing the limitations of the study, and ending with suggestions for future research.

HOW DO YOU PREPARE THE DATA FOR ANALYSIS?

The first step for you will be to organize data for analysis. **Preparing and organizing data for analysis** in quantitative research consists of scoring the data and creating a codebook, determining the types of scores to use, selecting a computer program, inputting the data into the program for analysis, and clearing the data.

Score the Data

When you collect data on an instrument or a checklist, you will need some system for scoring the data. **Scoring data** means that the researcher assigns a numeric score (or value) to each response category for each question on the instruments used to collect data.

For instance, assume that parents respond to a survey asking them to indicate their attitudes about choice of a school for children in the school district. One question might be:

Please check the appropriate response to this statement:

"Students should be given an opportunity to select a school of their choice."

_____ Strongly agree
_____ Agree
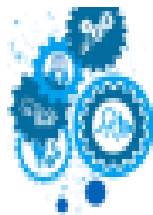_____ Undecided
_____ Disagree
_____ Strongly disagree

Assume that a parent checks "Agree." What numeric score would you assign to the response so that you will assign the same score to each person who checks "Agree"? To analyze the data, you will need to assign scores to responses such as 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = undecided, 2 = disagree, and 1 = strongly disagree. Based on these assigned numbers, the parent who checks "Agree" would receive a score of 4.

Several guidelines can help in assigning numbers to response options:

♦ For continuous scales (such as interval scales), you should consistently score each question in this scale using the same numbering system. In the above example, you should consistently score a scale such as "Strongly agree" to "Strongly disagree" as a "5" to a "1."

2. Hardani et.al (2020, P. 116, P. 303)

Dilengkapi dengan cara Citasi menggunakan Mendeley

MENDELEY

METODE PENELITIAN

Kualitatif & Kuantitatif

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A. Instrumen Penelitian

Terdapat dua hal utama yang mempengaruhi kualitas data hasil penelitian, yaitu, kualitas instrumen penelitian dan kualitas pengumpulan data. Dalam penelitian kuantitatif, kualitas instrumen penelitian berkenaan dengan validitas dan reliabilitas instrumen dan kualitas pengumpulan data berkenaan ketepatan cara-cara yang digunakan untuk mengumpulkan data. Oleh karena itu instrumen yang telah teruji validitas dan reliabilitasnya, belum tentu dapat menghasilkan data yang valid dan reliabel, apabila instrumen tersebut tidak digunakan secara tepat dalam pengumpulan datanya. Instrumen dalam penelitian kuantitatif dapat berupa test, pedoman wawancara, pedoman observasi, dan kuesioner.

Dalam penelitian kualitatif, yang menjadi instrumen atau alat penelitian adalah peneliti itu sendiri. Oleh karena itu peneliti sebagai instrumen juga harus "divalidasi" seberapa jauh peneliti kualitatif siap melakukan penelitian yang selanjutnya terjun kelapangan. Validasi terhadap peneliti sebagai instrumen meliputi validasi terhadap pemahaman metode penelitian kualitatif, penguasaan wawasan terhadap bidang yang diteliti, kesiapan peneliti untuk memasuki obyek penelitian, baik secara akademik maupun logistiknya. Yang melakukan validasi adalah peneliti sendiri, melalui evaluasi diri seberapa jauh pemahaman terhadap metode kualitatif,

C. Variabel Penelitian

Dalam melakukan penelitian tentunya harus ada objek yang diteliti. Objek penelitian dapat berupa orang, benda, transaksi, atau kejadian. Selanjutnya, sekumpulan objek yang dipelajari tadi dinamakan *populasi*. Dalam mempelajari populasi, peneliti berfokus pada satu atau lebih *karakteristik* atau *sifat* dari objek. Karakteristik semacam itu disebut sebagai *variabel*. Nama variabel sesungguhnya

berasal dari fakta bahwa karakteristik tertentu bisa bervariasi di antara objek dalam suatu populasi. Misalnya berat badan dapat dikatakan variabel, karena berat badan merupakan karakteristik dari orang yang menjadi objek penelitian. Nilai atau ukuran berat badan sekelompok orang bervariasi antara satu orang dengan yang lainnya. Demikian juga motivasi, persepsi dapat juga dikatakan sebagai variabel karena persepsi dari sekelompok orang tertentu bervariasi. Jadi kalau peneliti akan memilih variabel penelitian, baik yang dimiliki orang, maupun bidang kegiatan dan keilmuan tertentu, maka harus ada variasinya.

Pentingnya mengenali variabel dalam penelitian adalah, untuk:

a. Menemukan fokus kajian agar peneliti tetap konsisten pada tujuan dan fokus penelitian,

b. Untuk menemukan keterkaitan logis dengan variabel lain berdasarkan teori dan paradigma ilmu yang mendasarinya, dan

c. Merumuskan indikator, dimensi, dan pilihan instrumen keilmuan yang akan digunakan dala penelitian beserta turunannya.

Berkaitan dengan hal terakhir, variabel perlu diidentifikasikan, diklasifikasikan dan didefinisikan secara operasional dengan jelas dan tegas oleh peneliti. Bisa jadi pengoperasionalannya berbeda antara peneliti satu dengan lainnya, karena selain tujuan penelitian

berbeda, karakteristik data yang dihadapi juga berlainan. Dari hal itu maka dapat disimpulkan bahwa satu variabel yang digunakan oleh beberapa peneliti, bisa memiliki pemahaman operasional yang berbeda tergantung maksud dan tujuan yang ingin dicapainya.

Variabel berdasarkan hubungan antaravariabel penelitian, dibedakan ke dalam beberapa jenis yaitu:

1. Variabel bebas (*independent variable*), adalah variabel yang menjadi penyebab atau memiliki kemungkinan teoritis berdampak pada variabel lain. Variabel bebas umumnya dilambangkan dengan huruf X.

Misal:
- Pengaruh pendidikan (X) terhadap kinerja petugas pelayanan kesehatan (Y).
- Pemberian tablet Fe (X) mempengaruhi prestasi siswa (Y).

2. Variabel tak bebas (*dependent variable*) adalah variabel yang secara struktur berpikir keilmuan menjadi variabel yang

disebabkan oleh adanya perubahan variabel lainnya. Variabel tak bebas ini menjadi "...*primaryinterest to the researcher*" atau persoalan pokok bagi si peneliti, yang selanjutnya menjadi objek penelitian.

Misal:
- Model pembelajaran (X) mempengaruhi kreativitas siswa (Y).
- Pendidikan dan pelatihan (X) mempengaruhi kompetensi (Y).

3. Priadana and Sunarsi (2021, P. 51, P. 159, P. 189, P. 195)
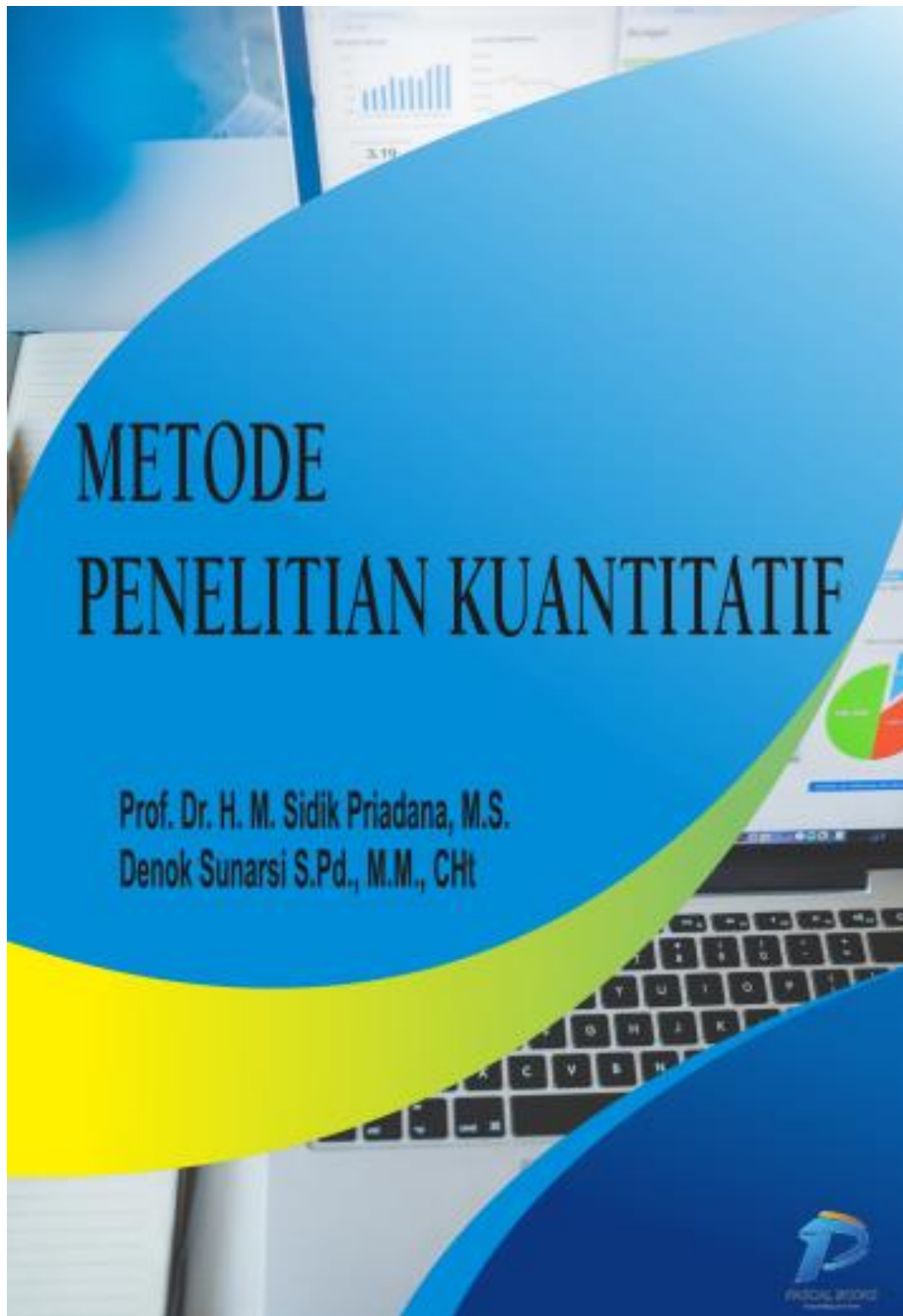
METODE PENELITIAN KUANTITATIF

2. argumen intensionalitas (maksud) yang menunjukan perlunya pengecekkan maksud-maksud yang ada pada subjek yang diteliti dengan interpretasi yang dibuat oleh peneliti,
3. argumen bahasa menunjukan peneliti harus sama dengan bahasa dari yang diteliti,
4. argument episimologi yang diperluas menunjukkan proses penyelidikan ilmiah melibatkan tidak hanya pengetahuan proposional, tetapi juga pengetahuan praktis dan pengetahuan pengalaman, (5) argument aksiologi menunjukkan kebenaran sebuah proposisi tergantung pada nilai yang disepakati bersama dan argumen moral dan politik.

Perbedaan paradigma penelitian kuantitatif dengan kualitatif menyebabkan perbedaan proses penelitian yang dilaksanakan dari kedua pendekatan tersebut.

4.5. Pengertian Metode Penelitian Kuantitatif dan Kualitatif

Penelitian kuantitatif adalah penelitian yang dimaksud untuk mengungkapkan gejala secara holistik-konstektual melalui pengumpulan data dari latar alami dengan memanfaatkan diri peneliti sebagai instrumen kunci. Penelitian kuantitatif bersifat deskriptif dan cenderung menggunakan analisis pendekatan induktif. Proses dan makna (perspektif subyek) lebih ditonjolkan dalam penelitian kualitatif. Penelitian kuantitatif lebih menonjol disusun dalam bentuk narasi yang bersifat kreatif dan mendalam serta menunjukkan ciri-ciri naturalistic yang penuh dengan nilai-nilai otentik. Penelitian kuantitatif adalah penelitian yang menitikberatkan pada pengukuran dan analisis hubungansebab-akibat antara bermacam macam variabel, bukan prosesnya, penyelidikan dipandang berada dalam kerangka bebas nilai.

Penelitian kualitatif adalah suatu penelitian yang pada dasarnya menggunakan pendekatan deduktif-induktif. Pendekatan ini berangkat dari suatu kerangka teori, gagasan para ahli, maupun pemahaman peneliti berdasarkan pengalamannya yang kemudian dikembangkan menjadi permasalahan-permasalahan beserta pemecahannya yang

BAB SEPULUH
Populasi Dan Sampel

P opulasi dan sampel merupakan salah satu bagian penting dalam penelitian yang harus ditentukan sejak awal. Dengan penentuan jenis objek penelitian ini, peneliti bisa menentukan metode penelitian yang lebih sesuai dengan kondisi dan kebutuhan.

10.1. Pengertian Populasi dan Sampel

Populasi adalah keseluruhan dari subjek penelitian, sedangkan sampel adalah sebagian dari populasi tersebut. Nilai yang dihitung dan diperoleh dari populasi ini disebut dengan parameter. Populasi merupakan seluruh jumlah dari subjek yang akan diteliti oleh seorang peneliti. Misalnya 1000 orang dikatakan sebagai populasi karena terkait dalam suatu penelitian. Kemudian pada pendapat lain mengatakan bahwa secara harfiah pengertian populasi adalah seluruh variabel yang terkait dengan topik pada penelitian.

Sampel adalah bagian dari populasi yang memiliki karakteristik mirip dengan populasi itu sendiri. Sampel disebut juga contoh. Nilai hitungan yang diperoleh dari sampel inilah yang disebut dengan statistik.

Menurut Sugiyono (2007: 115), Populasi adalah wilayah generalisasi yang terdiri atas objek/subjek yang memiliki kuantitas dan karakteristik

19.2. Instrumen Pengumpulan Data

Teknik pengumpulan data sangat ditentukan oleh metodologi penelitian, apakah kuantitatif atau kualitatif. Dalam penelitian kualitatif dikenal teknik pengumpulan data: observasi, focus group discussion (FGD), wawancara mendalam (indent interview), dan studi kasus (case study). Sedangkan dalam penelitian kuantitatif dikenal teknik pengumpulan data: angket (questionnaire), wawancara, dan dokumentasi. Beberapa teknik pengumpulan data secara umum adalah sebagai berikut :

1. Observasi (pengamatan)

   Observasi adalah dasar semua ilmu pengetahuan.Para ilmuwan hanya dapat bekerja berdasarkan data, yaitu fakta mengenai dunia kenyataan yang diperoleh melalui observasi. Melalui observasi, peneliti belajar tentang perilaku, dan makna dari perilaku tersebut. Observasi dibedakan menjadi observasi berpartisifasi (participant observastion), Observasi secara terang-terangan dan tersamar (overt observastion and covert observastion), observasi yang tak berstruktur (unstructured observation), masing-masing tipe dan jenis observasi tersebut digunakan sesuai dengan karakteristik objek material sumber data penelitian.

   a) Observasi Partisipatif (participant observastion)Observasi partisipatif merupakan seperangkat strategi dalam penelitian yang tujuannya adalah untuk mendapatkan data yang lengkap.Hal ini dilakukan dengan mengembangkan keakraban yang dekat dan mendalam dengan satu kelompok orang dilingkungan alamiah mereka.Dalam penelitian ini peneliti menetapkan sejumlah tujuan dan menempatkan dirinya sebagai bagian dari objek yang sedang di telitinya. Dalam observasi partisipatif, peneliti mengamati apa yang dikerjakan orang, mendengarkan apa yang mereka ucapkan, dan berpartisipasi dalam aktivitas mereka. Dalam observasi partisipatif terdapat beberapa kategori peran partisipan yang terjadi di

apa yang dikerjakan responden di masa lampau, sekarang dan akan datang. Dan pada intinya pertanyaan-pertanyaan yang dirumuskan harus berpedoman pada arah penelitian atau harus sesuai dengan tujuan penelitian.
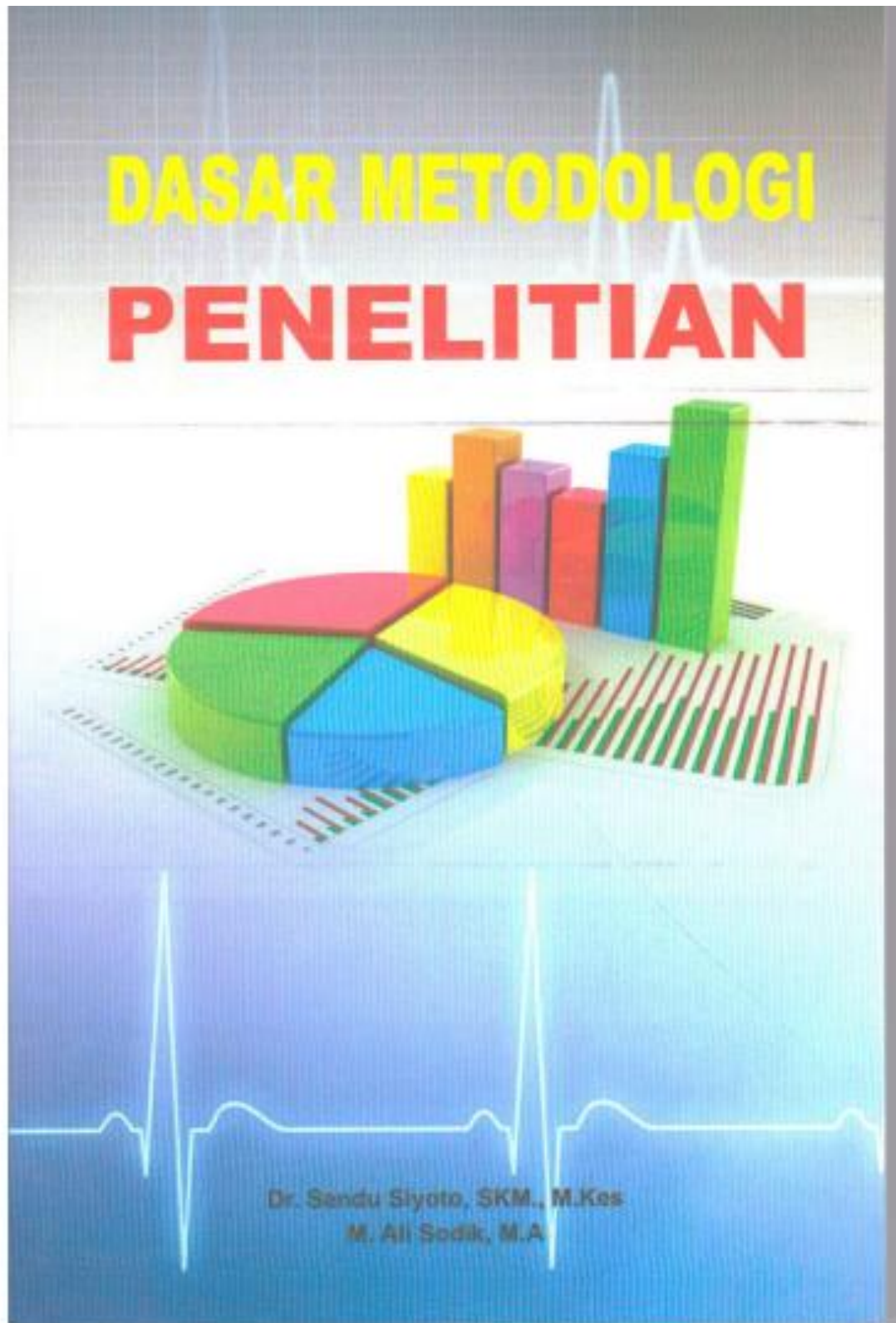
Alat-alat wawancara dapat dibedakan sebagai berikut :

a) Buku catatan: berfungsi untuk mencatat semua pembicaraan atau percakapan dengan sumber data, sekarang sudah banyak komputer-komputer kecil, notebook yang dapat digunakan untuk mencatat hasil pembicaraan

b) Tape recorder: berfungsi untuk merekam semua percakapan atau pembicaraan. Penggunaan tape recorder dalam wawancara perlu memberi tahu kepada informan boleh atau tidak.

c) Kamera: untuk memotret kalau peneliti sedang melakukan pembicaraan dengan informan/sumber data. Dengan adanya foto-foto ini dapat meningkatkan keabsahan dan penelitian akan lebih terjamin, karena peneliti betul-betul melakukan pengumpulan data.

4. Document (Dokumen)

Dokumen adalah merupakan catatan peristiwa yang telah lalu. Dokumen dapat berbentuk tulisan, gambar, atau karya menumental dari seseorang lainnya. Dokumen yang berbentuk tulisan, misalnya catatan harian, sejarah kehidupan (life histories), cerita, biografi, peraturan, kebijakan. Dokumen yang berbentuk gambar, misalnya foto, gambar hidup, sketsa, film, video, CD, DVD, cassete, dan lain-lain. Dokumen yang berbentuk karya misalnya karya seni, karya lukis, patung naskah, tulisan, prasasti dan lain sebaginya. Secara interpretatif dapat diartikan bahwa dokumen merupakan rekaman kejadian masa lalu yang ditulis atau dicetak, dapat merupakan catatan anekdotal, surat, buku harian dan dokumen-dokumen. Dokumen kantor termasuk lembaran internal, komunikasi bagi publik yang beragam, file siswa dan pegawai, diskripsi program dan data statistik

4. Siyoto and Sodik (2015, P. 49, P. 66, P. 71, P.76)

DASAR METODOLOGI PENELITIAN

mengenai hakikat variabel. Variabel selalu dapat dikuantisasikan; jika tidak demikian, tentunya bukanlah variabel.

Sebelumnya dijelaskan bahwa konstruk adalah hal-hal yang tak teramati (non observable) sedangkan defenisi variabel secara operasional adalah hal-hal yang teramati. Kerlinger (2006) menambahkan bahwa hal yang dimaksud adalah "variabel laten". Variabel laten adalah suatu utuhan obyek tak teramati yang diduga melandasi variabel amatan. Peneliti cenderung lebih berminat pada variabel-variabel laten, daripada relasi antara variabel-variabel amatan; sebab peneliti berupaya menjelaskan fenomena dan relasinya.

Istilah-istilah lain untuk mengungkapkan gagasan yang kira-kira sama misalnya konstruk disebut dengan variabel intervensi (*intervening variabel*). Variabel intervensi adalah istilah yang dibuat untuk menunjuk pada proses-proses psikologis yang internal dan tak teramati, yang pada gilirannya mengacu pada perilaku. suatu variabel intervensi ini "hanya ada di otak peneliti" tidak dapat dilihat, didengar, atau diraba; disimpulkan dari perilaku.

Kegunaan Variabel 1). Untuk mempersiapkan alat dan metode pengumpulan data 2). Untuk mempersiapkan metode analisis/pengolahan data. 3). Untuk pengujian hipotesis. Variabel penelitian yang baik adalah 1). Relevan dengan tujuan penelitian 2). Dapat diamati dan dapat diukur 3). Dalam suatu penelitian, variabel perlu diidentifikasi, diklasifikasi, dan didefenisikan secara operasional dengan jelas dan tegas agar tidak menimbulkan kesalahan dalam pengumpulan dan pengolahan data serta dalam pengujian hipotesis.

D. Hipotesis

Hipotesis atau hipotesa adalah jawaban sementara terhadap masalah yang masih bersifat praduga karena masih harus dibuktikan kebenarannya. (Gay & Diehl, 1992). Hipotesis ilmiah mencoba mengutarakan jawaban sementara terhadap masalah yang kan diteliti. Hipotesis menjadi teruji apabila semua gejala yang timbul tidak bertentangan dengan hipotesis tersebut. Dalam upaya pembuktian hipotesis, peneliti dapat saja dengan sengaja menimbulkan atau menciptakan suatu gejala. Kesengajaan ini disebut percobaan atau eksperimen. Hipotesis yang telah teruji kebenarannya disebut teori (Uma, 1992).

Contoh:

Apabila terlihat awan hitam dan langit menjadi pekat, maka seseorang dapat saja menyimpulkan (menduga-duga) berdasarkan pengalamannya bahwa (karena langit mendung, maka...) sebentar lagi hujan akan turun. Apabila ternyata beberapa saat kemudian hujan benar turun, maka dugaan terbukti benar. Secara ilmiah, dugaan ini disebut hipotesis. Namun apabila ternyata tidak turun hujan, maka hipotesisnya dinyatakan keliru.

B. Instrumen Penelitian

Menyusun instrumen merupakan langkah penting dalam pola prosedur penelitian. Instrumen berfungsi sebagai alat bantu dalam mengumpulkan data yang diperlukan. Bentuk instrumen berkaitan dengan metode pengumpulan data, misal metode wawancara yang instrumennya pedoman wawancara. Metode angket atau kuesioner, instrumennya berupa angket atau kuesioner. Metode tes, instrumennya adalah soal tes, tetapi metode observasi, instrumennya bernama chek-list (Black, 2006).

Menyusun instrumen pada dasarnya adalah menyusun alat evaluasi, karena mengevaluasi adalah memperoleh data tentang sesuatu yang diteliti, dan hasil yang diperoleh dapat diukur dengan menggunakan standar yang telah ditentukan sebelumnya oleh peneliti. Dalam hal ini terdapat dua macam alat evaluasi yang dapat dikembangkan menjadi instrumen penelitian, yaitu tes dan non-tes (Narbuko, 2004).

1. Bentuk Instrumen Tes

Tes dapat berupa serentetan pertanyaan, lembar kerja, atau sejenisnya yang dapat digunakan untuk mengukur pengetahuan, keterampilan, bakat, dan kemampuan dari subjek

penelitian. Lembar instrumen berupa tes ini berisi soal-soal tes yang terdiri atas butir-butir soal. Setiap butir soal mewakili satu jenis variabel yang diukur.

sesuai dengan yang seharusnya, dan akan memberikan informasi yang keliru mengenai keadaan subjek atau individu yang dikenai tes itu. Apabila informasi yang keliru itu dengan sadar atau tidak dengan sadar digunakan sebagai dasar pertimbangan dalam pengambilan suatu keputusan, maka keputusan itu tentu bukan merupakan suatu keputusan yang tepat (Bryman, 2004).

Alat ukur atau instrumen yang akan disusun tentu saja harus memiliki validitas dan reliabilitas, agar data yang diperoleh dari alat ukur itu bisa reliabel, valid dan disebut dengan validitas dan reliabilitas alat ukur atau validitas dan reliabilitas instrumen.

Validitas adalah salah satu ciri yang menandai tes hasil belajar yang baik. Untuk dapat menentukan apakah suatu tes hasil belajar telah memiliki validitas atau daya ketepatan mengukur, dapat dilakukan dari dua segi, yaitu : dari segi tes itu sendiri sebagai totalitas, dan dari segi itemnya, sebagai bagian yang tak terpisahkan dari tes tersebut (Bloor, 1997). Di dalam buku "Encyclopedia of Educational Evaluation," Scarvia B. Anderson mengatakan bahwa "A test is valid if it measures what it purpose to measure" artinnya : "sebuah tes dikatakan valid apabila tes tersebut mengukur apa yang hendak diukur" (Dixon, dkk, 2004).

Penganalisisan terhadap tes hasil belajar sebagai suatu totalitas dapat dilakukan dengan dua cara. Pertama, penganalisisan yang dilakukan dengan jalan berpikir secara rasional atau penganalisisan dengan menggunakan logika (logical analysis). Kedua, penganalisisan yang dilakukan dengan mendasarkan diri kepada kenyataan empiris, dimana penganalisisan dilaksanakan dengan menggunakan empirical analysis (Dowie, 2006).

1. Macam-Macam Validitas

Secara umum, validitas tes dibagi menjadi dua yaitu validitas tes secara rasional dan validitas tes secara empiris.

    a. Validitas Tes Secara Rasional

        Validitas rasional adalah validitas yang diperoleh atas dasar hasil pemikiran, validitas yang diperoleh dengan berfikir secara logis. Dengan demikian maka suatu tes hasil belajar dapat dikatakan telah memiliki validitas rasional, apabila setelah dilakukan penganalisisan secara rasional ternyata bahwa tes hasil belajar itu memang (secara rasional) dengan tepat telah dapat mengukur apa yang seharusnya diukur (Hermawan, 2005).

        Untuk dapat menentukan apakah tes hasil belajar sudah memiliki validitas rasional ataukah belum, dapat dilakukan penelusuran dari dua segi, yaitu :

            i. Validitas Isi (*Content Validity*)

(Azwar, 2012).

D. Reliabilitas Instrumen

Reliabilitas merupakan penerjemahan dari kata reliability yang mempunyai asal kata rely yang artinya percaya dan reliabel yang artinya dapat dipercaya. Keterpercayaan berhubungan dengan ketepatan dan konsistensi. Test hasil belajar dikatakan dapat dipercaya apabila memberikan hasil pengukuran hasil belajar yang relatif tetap secara konsisten. Beberapa ahli memberikan batasan reliabilitas. Menurut Azwar (2012), reliabilitas berhubungan dengan akurasi instrumen dalam mengukur apa yang diukur, kecermatan hasil ukur dan seberapa akurat seandainya dilakukan pengukuran ulang. Azwar juga menyatakan reliabilitas sebagai konsistensi pengamatan yang diperoleh dari pencatatan berulang baik pada satu subjek maupun sejumlah subjek.

5. Weigle (2002, P. 116)

ESL COMPOSITION PROFILE

STUDENT   DATE   TOPIC

SCORE	LEVEL	CRITERIA	COMMENTS

CONTENT

30-27 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: knowledgeable • substantive • thorough development of thesis • relevant to assigned topic

26-22 GOOD TO AVERAGE: some knowledge of subject • adequate range • limited development of thesis • mostly relevant to topic, but lacks detail

21-17 FAIR TO POOR: limited knowledge of subject • little substance • inadequate development of topic

16-13 VERY POOR: does not show knowledge of subject • non-substantive • not pertinent • OR not enough to evaluate

ORGANIZATION

20-18 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: fluent expression • ideas clearly stated/supported • succinct • well-organized • logical sequencing • cohesive

17-14 GOOD TO AVERAGE: somewhat choppy • loosely organized but main ideas stand out • limited support • logical but incomplete sequencing

13-10 FAIR TO POOR: non-fluent • ideas confused or disconnected • lacks logical sequencing and development

9-7 VERY POOR: does not communicate • no organization • OR not enough to evaluate

VOCABULARY

20-18 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: sophisticated range • effective word/idiom choice and usage • word form mastery • appropriate register

17-14 GOOD TO AVERAGE: adequate range • occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage *but meaning not obscured*

13-10 FAIR TO POOR: limited range • frequent errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage • *meaning confused or obscured*

9-7 VERY POOR: essentially translation • little knowledge of English vocabulary, idioms, word form • OR not enough to evaluate

LANGUAGE USE

25-22 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: effective complex constructions • few errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions

21-18 GOOD TO AVERAGE: effective but simple constructions • minor problems in complex constructions • several errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions *but meaning seldom obscured*

17-11 FAIR TO POOR: major problems in simple/complex constructions • frequent errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/or fragments, run-ons, deletions • *meaning confused or obscured*

10-5 VERY POOR: virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules • dominated by errors • does not communicate • OR not enough to evaluate

MECHANICS

5 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: demonstrates mastery of conventions • few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing

4 GOOD TO AVERAGE: occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing *but meaning not obscured*

3 FAIR TO POOR: frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • poor handwriting • *meaning confused or obscured*

2 VERY POOR: no mastery of conventions • dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • handwriting illegible • OR not enough to evaluate

TOTAL SCORE   READER   COMMENTS

Figure 6.3 Jacobs *et al.*'s (1981) scoring profile

6. Purnomo (2016, P. 83, P. 94)

Rochmat Aldy Purnomo, S.E., M.Si.

ANALISIS STATISTIK EKONOMI DAN BISNIS DENGAN SPSS

Untuk Mahasiswa, Dosen, dan Praktisi

Penerbit WADE GROUP

Judul :

Analisis Statistik Ekonomi dan Bisnis Dengan SPSS

Cetakan Pertama, 2016

BAB VI

UJI ASUMSI DASAR (NORMALITAS, LINIERITAS DAN HOMOGENITAS)

A. Uji Normalitas

Bagi yang menggunakan analisis parametrik seperti analisis korelasi Pearson, uji beda dua rata-rata, analisis varian satu arah, dsb maka perlunya dilakukan uji normalitas data terlebih dahulu untuk mengetahui apakah data berdistribusi normal atau tidak. Normalitas data merupakan syarat pokok yang harus dipenuhi dalam analisis parametrik. Normalitas data merupakan hal yang penting karena dengan data yang terdistribusi normal maka data tersebut dianggap dapat mewakili populasi. Berikut akan dibahas uji normalitas dengan metode uji Lilliefors dan metode One Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov.
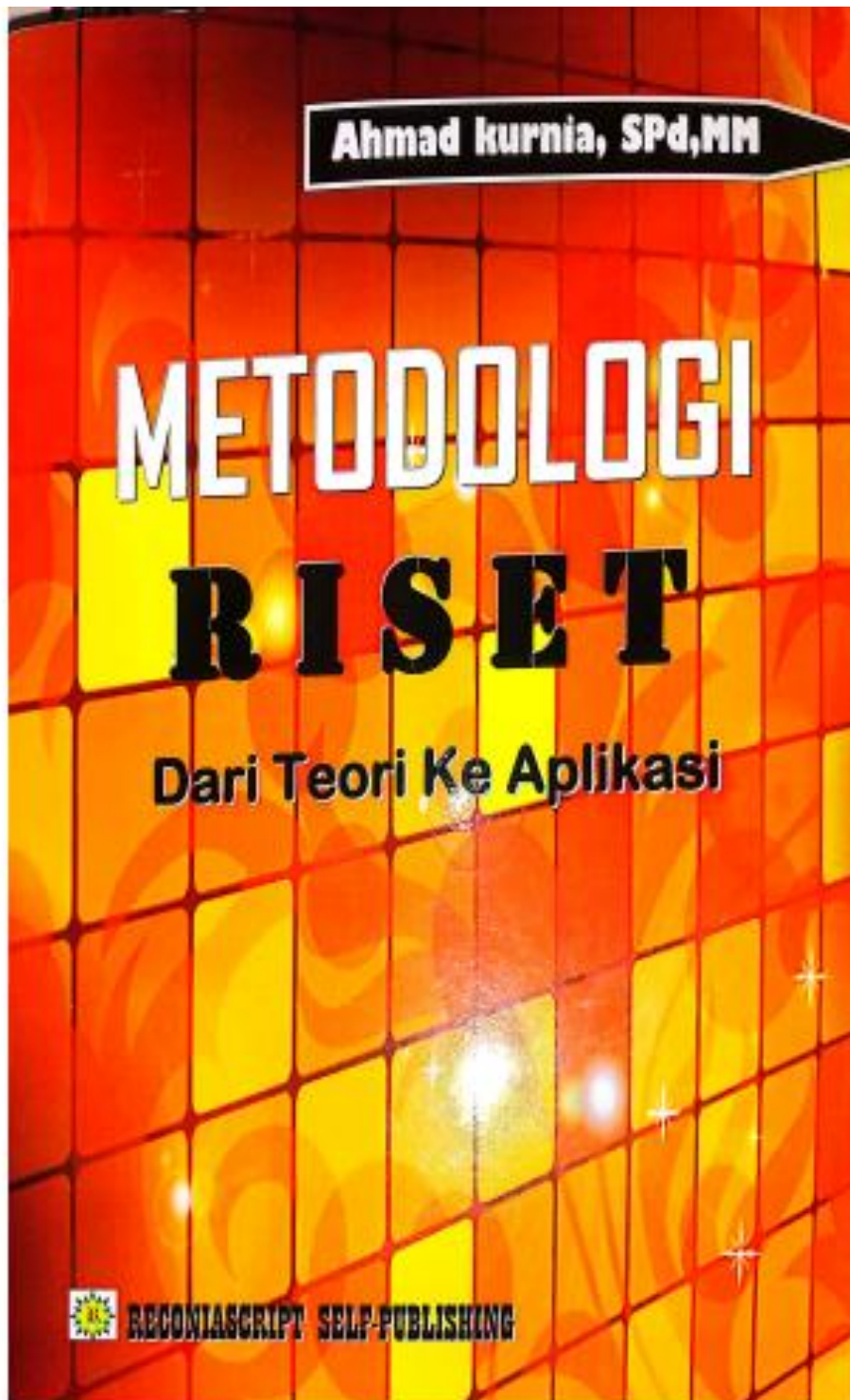
1) Metode Lilliefors

Untuk praktik cara olah data, berikut menggunakan contoh data Pendapatan dan Biaya sebanyak 20 data. Akan diuji apakah data variabel Pendapatan dan Biaya, berdistribusi normal atau tidak.

B. Uji Linieritas

Uji linieritas digunakan untuk mengetahui linieritas data, yaitu apakah dua variabel mempunyai hubungan yang linear atau tidak. Uji ini digunakan sebagai prasyarat dalam analisis korelasi Pearson atau regresi linear. Pengujian pada *SPSS* dengan menggunakan *Test for Linearity* pada taraf signifikansi 0,05. Dua variabel dikatakan mempunyai hubungan yang linear bila signifikansi (Linearity) kurang dari 0,05.

7. Kurnia (2014, P. 107, P. 114)

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POPULASI DAN SAMPEL

A. DEFINISI

Populasi sebagai keseluruhan dari jumlah yang akan diteliti dan diamati atau wilayah generalisasi yang terdiri atas obyek atau subyek yang mempunyai kuantitas dan karakteristik tertentu yang ditetapkan oleh peneliti untuk dipelajari dan ditarik kesimpulannya[21]. Populasi mencakup segala hal, bukan hanya manusia termasuk benda-benda alam, dan bukan sekedar jumlah yang ada pada objek. Sampel sendiri adalah sebagian dari jumlah dan karakteristik yang dimiliki oleh populasi tersebut. Bila populasi besar, dan peneliti tidak mungkin meneliti semua yang ada pada populasi, (misalnya karena keterbatasan dana, tenaga, dan waktu) maka peneliti dapat menggunakan sampel yang diambil dari populasi itu.

Apa yang dipelajari dari sampel itu, kesimpulannya akan diberlakukan untuk populasi itu. Untuk sampel yang diambil dari populasi harus benar-benar representatif (mewakili). Bila sampel tidak representatif, maka resiko yang dihadapi peneliti ialah tidak dapat menyimpulkan sesuai dengan kenyataan atau membuat kesimpulan yang salah. Makin besar jumlah sampel mendekati populasi, maka peluang kesalahan generalisasi semakin kecil dan sebaliknya makin kecil jumlah sampel menjauhi populasi, maka makin besar kesalahan generalisasi (diberlakukan umum).

Dalam penetapan besar kecilnya sampel tidaklah ada suatu ketetapan yang mutlak, artinya tidak ada suatu ketentuan berapa persen suatu sampel harus diambil. Suatu hal yang perlu diperhatikan adalah keadaan

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[21] Sugiono, *Metodologi Penelitian Administrasi*, Alfabeta, Bandung, 2006:90

b). *Purposive Sampling*

Sesuai dengan namanya, sampel diambil dengan maksud atau tujuan tertentu. Seseorang atau sesuatu diambil sebagai sampel karena peneliti menganggap bahwa seseorang atau sesuatu tersebut memiliki informasi yang diperlukan bagi penelitiannya. Dua jenis sampel ini dikenal dengan *nama judgement dan quota sampling.*

c). *Judgment Sampling*

Sampel dipilih berdasarkan penilaian peneliti bahwa dia adalah pihak yang paling baik untuk dijadikan sampel penelitiannya.. Misalnya untuk memperoleh data tentang bagaimana satu proses produksi direncanakan oleh suatu perusahaan, maka manajer produksi merupakan orang yang terbaik untuk bisa memberikan informasi. Jadi, *judment sampling* umumnya memilih sesuatu atau seseorang menjadi sampel karena mereka mempunyai "information rich".

Dalam program pengembangan produk *(product development)*, biasanya yang dijadikan sampel adalah karyawannya sendiri, dengan pertimbangan bahwa kalau karyawan sendiri tidak puas terhadap produk baru yang akan dipasarkan, maka jangan terlalu berharap pasar akan menerima produk itu dengan baik. (Cooper dan Emory, 1992).

d). *Quota Sampling*

Teknik sampel ini adalah bentuk dari sampel distratifikasikan secara proposional, namun tidak dipilih secara acak melainkan secara kebetulan saja. Misalnya, di sebuah kantor terdapat pegawai laki-laki 60% dan perempuan 40% . Jika seorang peneliti ingin mewawancari 30 orang pegawai dari kedua jenis kelamin tadi maka dia harus mengambil sampel pegawai laki-laki sebanyak 18 orang sedangkan pegawai perempuan 12 orang. Sekali lagi, teknik pengambilan ketiga puluh sampel tadi tidak dilakukan secara acak, melainkan secara kebetulan saja.

8. Kurnia (2021, P. 122)
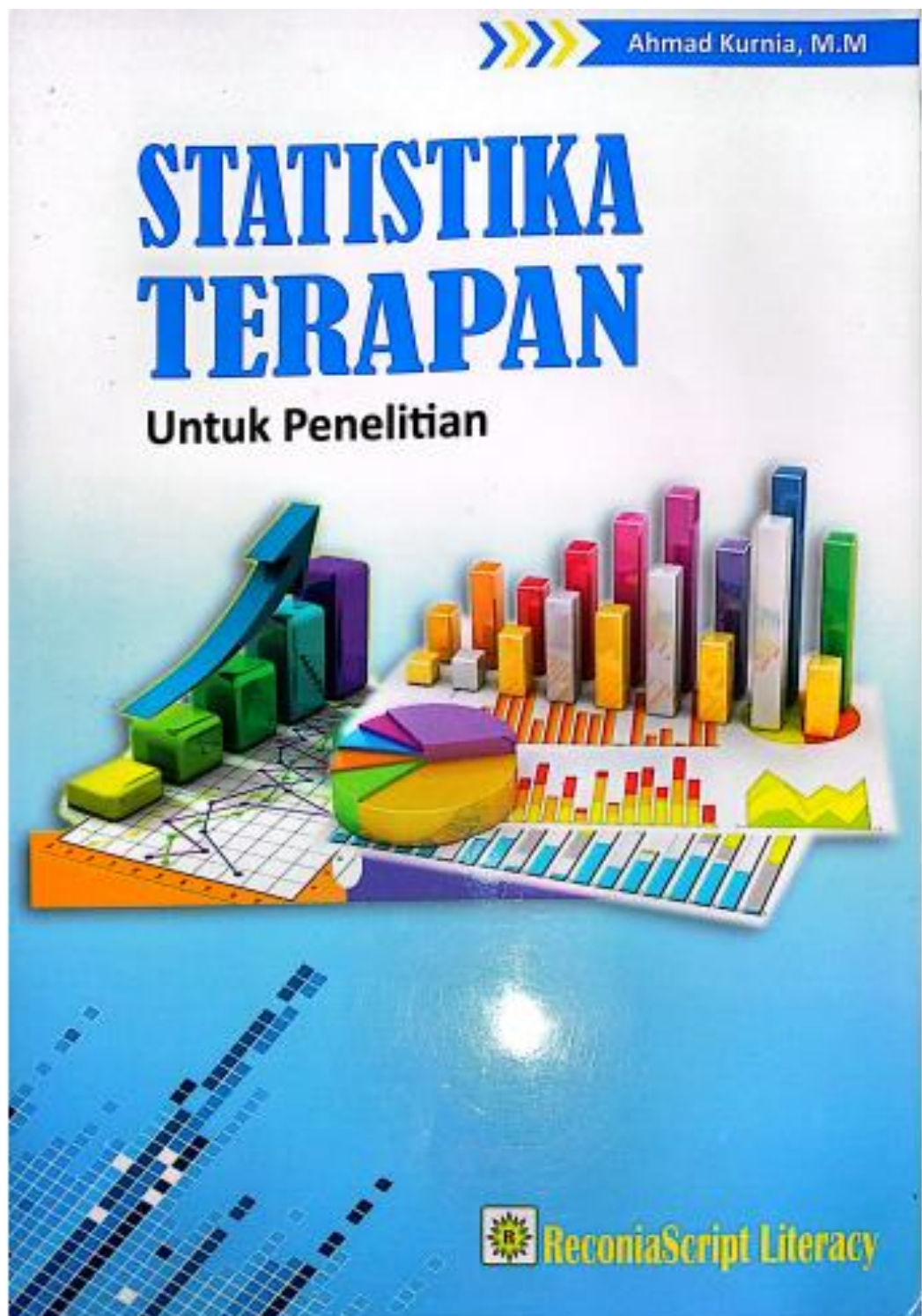
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TERAPAN
Untuk Penelitian

Ahmad Kurnia, SPd, MM.

8. KESIMPULAN

Jika r hitung=0.04 > r kritis/tabel, =0.62 maka H0 diterima dan Ha ditolak sehingga antara variabel X dan variabel Y tidak terdapat hubungan yang linier dan signifikan.

Table signifikansi uji korelasi

Koefisien	Kekuatan Hubungan
0,00	Tidak ada hubungan
0,01 – 0,09	Hubungan kurang berarti
0,10 – 0,29	Hubungan lemah
0,30 – 0,49	Hubungan moderat
0,50 – 0,69	Hubungan kuat
0,70 – 0,89	Hubungan sangat kuat
>0,90	Hubungan mendekati sempurna

Contoh kasus 2

C. PENERAPAN ANALISIS KORELASIONAL DENGAN SPSS

Selain analisis bisa digunakan melalui perhitungan manual, bisa juga untuk mempermudah para peneliti dengan menggunakan program SPSS khususnya untuk Uji korelasi , untuk lebih jelasnya dapat kita lihat dalam menu *CORELATE* dengan sub menu antara lain :

1. **Bivariat**

Besar hubungan diantara dua variabel : koefisien korelasi bivariate/*Product Moment Pearson* untuk mengukur keeratan hubungan antara peringkat-peringkat dibandingkan hasil pengamatan itu sendiri dengan mengsyaratkan bahwa populasi asal sampel mempunyai dua varians dan berdistribusi normal, korelasi pearson untuk mengukur data interval atau rasio dan korelasi peringkat *Spearman* dan *Kendall* (untuk mengukur keeratan hubungan antara peringkat-peringkat dibandingkan hasil pengamtan itu sendiri dan bisa digunakan untuk menghitung data ordinal dan pengunaan asosiasi pada statistik non-parametric.

2. **Partial** (perubahan mengenai hubungan linier antara dua variabel dengan melakukan control terhadap satu atau lebih variabel tambahan)