

The Effect Pre-Task and Online Planning on Learning English Writing

(A Thesis)

**By
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**MASTER IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING STUDY PROGRAM
LANGUAGE AND ARTS EDUCATION DEPARTMENT
TEACHER TRAINING AND EDUCATION FACULTY
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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF PRE-TASK AND ONLINE PLANNING ON THE STUDENTS' ENGLISH WRITING ABILITY

By.
Septy Ayuningtyas

This research aims to investigate whether there is a significant difference of the students' writing achievement after the students were taught through pre-task planning and online planning or not. This research used quantitative method in collecting and analyzing the data. The participants were the students of eleventh grades of SMK Kosgoro Sribhawono East Lampung in Academic Year of 2016/2017. The main research instrument was the writing test. The t-tests were used in analyzing the data from pre-test and post test in the experimental and control group. The result showed that the use of pre-task planning could improve the students writing. It could be seen from the significant value of t-test was 0.000 which was lower than 0.05. This research also revealed that online planning could increase the students' English writing. However, the last finding of this research revealed that there was no significant difference of the use of pre-task planning and online planning. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that there was small difference of the pre-task planning in content aspect and online planning in organization and language aspects. Both two types of planning have similar improvement on vocabularies and also no improvement on the mechanic of the writing. However, the pre-task planning is slightly better on improving students' writing than online planning. Therefore, the teacher should optimize the use of pre-task planning before beginning the actual task so that the students could be able to prepare more and increase their confidence in composing writing.

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A Thesis

Submitted in a partial fulfillment of
The requirements for S-2 Degree



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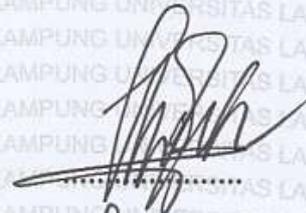
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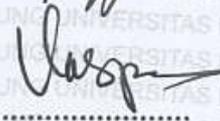
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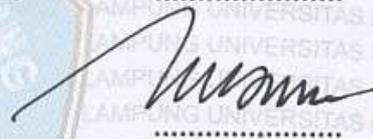
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Bandar Lampung, 5 Januari 2018
Yang membuat pernyataan,



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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to :

- ❖ My beloved parents, Samsul Arief and Dra. Rusmini, M.Pd.
- ❖ My beloved grandparents, Sutaji and Supiyah.
- ❖ My beloved husband, Pratu Andik Purnawan.
- ❖ My parents in law, Musalal and Suratin.
- ❖ My brothers and sister, Faris Arief Gunawan , Luluk Lupita Sari, Anggara Saputra.
- ❖ My lovely postgraduate English Department' 14.
- ❖ All my teachers and lecturers of English Department
- ❖ My headmaster of SMK Kosgoro Sribhawono , Dr. Haris Sarjono, M.M.

CURRICULUM VITAE



The writer's name is Septy Ayuningtyas. She was born in Malang, East Java, on September the 06th, 1991. She is the first child from the harmonious couple Samsul Arief and Dra. Rusmini, M.Pd. She has two brothers and one sister named Faris Arief Gunawan, Luluk Lupita Sari and Anggara Saputra.

She started her formal education in 1997 at the elementary school SDN 1 Sribhawono East Lampung, a six years elementary schooling that was continued to the schools, SMPN 1 Bandar Sribhawono East Lampung and SMAN 1 Bandar Sribhawono East Lampung. In 2009 she was accepted at English Education Study Program of Language and Art Education, Teacher Training and Education Faculty, STKIP PGRI Bandar Lampung. In 2013, she graduated from S1 English Education of STKIP PGRI Bandar Lampung. Since 2014, she works as an English teacher at SMPN 2 Sekampung Udik, East Lampung until now. She enjoys teaching as well as developing her side bussiness as her day to day activities.

MOTTO

All our dreams can come true if we have the courage to pursue them.

(Walt Disney)

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I. INTRODUCTION

In this part, some sub chapters are presented. They are background of the study, problems of the research, objective of the research, uses of the research, scope of the research and definition of terms.

1.1. Background of Study

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) researchers and language teachers both seek to elicit samples of language use from learners. In the case of researchers these samples are needed to investigate how second language (L2) learning takes place. In the case of teachers, these samples serve as evidence that successful learning is taking place (Rahimpour. 2011: 120). Increasingly, both researchers and teachers acknowledge the need to elicit samples of language use that is representative of how learners perform when they are not attending to accuracy. The question arises, then, as to how these samples of meaning- focused language use can be elicited. The means that both have employed are ‘tasks’ . Tasks, then, hold a central place in current SLA research and also in language pedagogy. Thus, in recent years, a number of researchers and teachers have called for a move towards task-based language instruction. On the other hand, planning is an inseparable part of all spoken and written language use. That is, all speakers and writers need to decide what to say and write and how to do it. Planning and its role in task- based performance are of both theoretical interest to

SLA researchers and of practical significance to language teachers. For SLA researchers, planning serves as one of studying what students attend to and what effect it has on the way they use language. Its significance for language teachers lies in the fact that planning is a relatively straightforward way of influencing the kind of language that learners produce.

Moreover, although applied linguists have come to recognize the importance of writing in its own right as well as its complexity, writing remains one of the least well-understood, if not misunderstood, subjects in applied linguistics in general. In addition, somewhat surprisingly there has been little research into what effects different task conditions have on production (Rahimpour. 2011: 120).

Rohu (2007: 13-14) reported that TBLT was helpful in students' motivation and learning. It encouraged students' practice opportunities of the target language receptivity in the lessons as a result of presenting various tasks. In the light of students' reflections for the tasks used during the study, which were very positive, it can be concluded that students were receptive to the idea of TBLT while learning English as a second language. The students' thoughts about TBLT were quiet positive. They indicated that more emphasis was shown on interaction in class. This interaction was encouraged not individually but within group work as well. The students stated that their teacher presented various tasks in class and they made use of practice opportunities. They also indicated that an enjoyable classroom atmosphere developed as a result of the tasks and the nature of this enjoyable classroom learning situation affected their learning.

All language teachers are invited to become familiar with TBL which is a very popular and adaptable framework in language teaching. Students in this study were quite receptive to TBLT framework. When adopting this framework, language teachers should provide their students with a variety of enjoyable tasks. Carrying out a

variety of tasks influences students' progress and attitudes towards the lesson. A willingness to learn is observed whenever students are given tasks that involve them completely. Rather than being passive listeners, learners prefer to be active receivers. Therefore, serious consideration should be given to TBLT and language teachers should provide their students with opportunities to make progressive use of content learnt through a variety of tasks (Rohu. 2007: 15).

Many contemporary researchers, language teachers, material developers, and syllabus designers have directed their attentions to TBLT. It emphasizes the transactional and interactional use of language (Izadpanah and Shajeri. 2014: 10). The main strong claim of this approach is that this approach can activate the cognitive and acquisition processes while learners are busy performing tasks and accomplishing its goal. However, the important point is that the developmental and acquisition processes are engaged in the development of both form and meaning simultaneously, while TBLT primarily concerns with meaning conveyance.

EFL teachers can make use of different tasks as teaching materials in their classrooms. Using tasks would be beneficial in teaching writing because they create new and different situations for students; hence language learning experience would be easier and more interesting . Ruso (2007: 1) stated that the use of tasks as the main focus in language classrooms, claiming that tasks create a supportive methodological framework. Often, when faced with various problems, language teachers are in search of finding something that could create a difference in their classroom. Such a communicative task will help students use their abilities to solve language problems in order to do the task.

Since 1990s, tasks have been the focus of attention as a unit of analysis both in language teaching and learning as well as syllabus design (Salimi. 2012: 2398). TBLT takes task as its unit of analysis and emphasizes the creation of meaning without any prior

prescription of language forms. Therefore, learners are free to use any strategies or forms to perform the task and achieve the task goal. Research into TBLT is mainly conducted because of dealing with the problem of determining the relevant grading and sequencing criteria for designing and classifying tasks for task-based syllabi and has mostly focused on investigating the effects of task design and task characteristics on task performance. Tasked-based approaches to second language teaching focus on the ability of a learner to perform target-like without any explicit teaching of grammatical rules.

Task types may be one of the crucial factors in determining if writers are able to automatize certain features of writing tasks or deal with additional cognitive load to process those aspects. The experimental operationalization and manipulation of different aspects of task design can be transferred to pedagogic contexts in order to attain specific effects on production and, possibly, learning (Saedi, Et,Al, 2012) . For example, argumentative writing requires writers to generate complex information, which makes it more demanding than descriptive writing. In contrast, descriptive writing is characterized as a task that has a clear inherent structure (Foster & Skehan, 1998), which requires writers to describe individual actions or characters. Findings by previous researchers have revealed the differential effects of task type on L2 performance.

Research to date lends general support to the claim that planning in advance impacts positively on language production, especially where fluency and complexity are concerned). Studies by Crookes (cited by Yuan and Ellis. 2003: 2), report that pre-task planning results in increased fluency. In Foster and Skehan both guided and unguided planning had a positive effect. Mehnert (cited by Yuan and Ellis. 2003: 2) investigated different lengths of planning time (none, 1 minute, 5 minutes, and 10 minutes) and found that fluency improved with each increase in planning time. Clearly planning helps learners to access linguistic material from memory more easily and rapidly. Most studies also report a positive effect for planning time

on the complexity of learners' productions. all report that pre-task planning results in greater complexity of language. Mehnert found that the length of planning time was a factor in her study; greater complexity was only evident in the group given 10 minutes to plan.

Ellis (cited by Salimi, 2012: 2399) distinguishes between two principal types of task planning. The distinction is in terms of when planning takes place. The first type of planning is pre-task planning which refers to planning that takes place before performing the task. It involves 'preparatory attention' that helps in performing actions with greater accuracy and speed. The second type is within-task planning which refers to planning that takes place while performing the task.

One of the most intriguing areas for such research concerns the role of pre-task planning, an area which has been the focus of both theoretical and practical activity (Foster and Skehan. 1999: 217). Pre-task activities can include inductive learning activities, perhaps with certain aspects of task input made salient; consciousness-raising activities; and pre-task planning.

Crookes (cited by Foster and Skehan. 1999: 218) explored the consequences of giving learners ten minutes' planning time prior to their completion of two information-gap tasks. He reported that planners produced language that was more complex and fluent than non-planners, but no more accurate. He suggests that planners, under these conditions, use planning time to complexify the task, hence leading, to a greater amount of subordination, for example, but with no greater accuracy with the more challenging language used.

It must also be noted that at the present stage of research into planning, the number of variables that have been investigated is relatively small. There is considerable scope, in other words, to identify other variables which might impact upon how planning time is used and, subsequently, the nature of the performance that results. One such variable which has not yet been investigated is that of *source* of planning (Foster and Skehan. 1999: 222).

To date, a number of studies have researched into the effects of planning on second language oral performance. Overall, these studies point to the beneficial effects for planning on speaking performance such as accuracy, complexity, and fluency with some trade-off effects being reported. However, the research about the effect of planning toward the students writing is limited. Therefore, this research aims to reveal the effect of pre-task planning and online planning on the students' writing ability.

1.2 Research Questions

The research questions which will be analyzed in this research are:

- 1) Is there any significant difference of the students' writing achievement after the students were taught through pre-task planning?
- 2) Is there any significant difference of the students' writing achievement after the students were taught through online planning?
- 3) Is there any significant difference of the students' writing achievement between those who are taught by pre-task planning and those who are taught by online planning?

1.3 Objectives of the Research

The objectives of the research are:

- 1) To find out whether of the students' writing achievement after the students were taught through pre-task planning.
- 2) To find out whether there is any significant difference of the students' writing achievement after the students were taught through pre-task planning.
- 3) To find out whether there are differences on the students' writing achievement between those who are taught by pre-task planning and those who are taught by online planning.

1.4 Uses of the Research

The researcher hopes that this research can be beneficial in the form of:

1. Theoretical use

This research can be used as complement of previous research and theories on learning English writing. Moreover, this research can also be used as additional reference for further research related to the use of pre-task and online planning

additional reference for further research related to the use of pre-task and online planning

2. Practical use

This result can be used as the consideration for the teacher and students to use appropriate task which allow them to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of learning English writing.

1.5 Scope of the Research

This research focused on describing the use of pre-task and online planning in learning writing. The research sample were the students who were learning English in the first and second year of SMK Kosgoro Sribawono East Lampung. The data were both the overall mean scores of students' writing and specific scores for each aspect of writing including content, organization, vocabularies, language, and mechanics.

1.6 Definition of Terms

The following terms are emphasized throughout this study:

Task is an activity which requires learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process (Ruso, 2007: 2)

Pre-task Planning is the planning that is done before learners perform a task (Ellis, 2009:474).

Online planning is the planning that occurs on-line while learners are actually performing a task (Ellis, 2009: 474).

Writing is a sequence of a series of cyclical, recursive, and progressive stages with the purpose of producing a final piece of written work (Harmer, 1998)

In this chapter the researcher provided the reason why she conducted this study and the research questions that she investigated.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents background information on the task and the students' anxiety in learning English writing. This is followed by a more detailed discussion of task-based instruction, its goals, tasks and features of tasks, and the instructional components of task-based instruction. The tasks used for the purpose of this study will be examined in the context of task descriptions in the literature.

1.1 Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT)

Task-based language teaching and learning has become an important area of research in second language research. Many scholars and researcher have investigated different aspects of TBLT (Salimi, 2012: 2399). Task-based language teaching challenges the mainstream views about language teaching in that it is based on the fact that language learning will develop most successfully and effectively if teaching aims simply to create context and condition in which learners' natural language learning ability can be nurtured. TBLT is an approach for teaching second or foreign language that seeks to engage learners in interactionally authentic language use language by getting learners to perform a series of tasks. This approach aims to enable learners to acquire a new language system as well as to proceduralize their existing knowledge. In other words, this

approach tries to force L2 learners to use their own linguistic resources to learn a new language.

According to Kuiken & Vedder (cited by Rohimpour. 2010: 198), there are four major approaches in task-based research: 1) a psychological, interactional approach; 2) a sociocultural approach; 3) a structure-focused approach; and 4) a cognitive, information-theoretic approach. Among these approaches, the focus is on the cognitive processes used by learners during task completion. They investigate how task complexity influences the L2 learners' performance. Robinson (cited by Rohimpour. 2010: 198) proposed a framework, Triadic Componential Framework, which distinguishes three task components: task complexity, task conditions, and task difficulty. This framework is based on cognition hypothesis. The main pedagogic claim of cognition hypothesis is that pedagogic tasks should be designed and sequenced on the basis of increases in their cognitive complexity. In other words, the information about the effect of task complexity on language performance can be used to guide decision-making about sequencing tasks in syllabus design.

TBL has increasingly achieved popularity in recent years and has been recommended as a way forward in ELT. Prabhu cited by Ruso (2007: 2) stands as the first significant person in the development of TBL. His main contribution has been raising awareness of the ELT world to TBL. Prabhu defines a task as "an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process" .

Besides Prabhu, Nunan (1989) cited by Ruso (2007: 2) uses the word 'task'

instead of 'activity'. He defines a task as "a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form". He suggests that in all definitions of tasks, one can see communicative language use where the learner focuses on meaning instead of linguistic structure.

Willis (1996) cited by Ruso (2007: 2) is another figure who contributes to the use of tasks in language classroom. According to Willis "tasks are always activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome". Furthermore, Willis presents a TBL approach where tasks are used as the main focus of the lesson within a supportive framework. She holds that "the aim of tasks is to create a real purpose for language use and to provide a natural context for language study". The model suggested by Willis has been the main focus of this study.

Sabet et.al. (2014: 954) stated that the main focus of learners should be on the meaning of the language. However; by emphasizing the meaning they did not neglect the importance of the form of language and its learning. They believed that peripherally learners should also pay attention to the form in order to understand the meaning better .For this aim he mentioned that in pre- or post-task phases the formal features of language should be worked on. He also emphasized the necessity of intervention for the purpose of fostering the acquisition of formal linguistic elements, and at the same time retaining the advantages of an approach which is 'natural'. Moreover, he mentioned that learners have an important role in the TBLT approach and the teacher is not the whole authority in the classroom. He also emphasized the usage of communicative tasks. The strength of TBLT

approach, comparing to the traditional approaches, is on its focus on communication. Furthermore, the common design of a task-based lesson according to him is consisted of three principal phases namely pre-task phase, task- cycle phase and post-task phase.

Since the term ‘task’ is the main concept in TBLT, it is better to define it first. Different scholars have given different definitions of this term. According to Nunan (2006) cited by Sabet et.al. (2014: 954), it is a part of classroom procedure to convey meaning. Moreover, Skehan defined task as an activity in which meaning, task completion, the real-world and outcome are focused. Willis defines task as an activity which has a central goal and a real outcome. In this article what we mean by the term task is more closed to the definition given by Prabhu as “An activity which requires learners to arrive to an outcome from given information through some processes of thought and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process”.

Since in this research in one of the classes tasks were used and in another one traditional activities were focused, it is better to distinguish tasks from the traditional activities. Ellis (2009) cited by Sabet et.al. (2014: 954) mentioned that a task must have these criteria: the main focus of it should be on meaning, some kind of gap should exist, for completing an activity learners should basically rely on their own knowledge and rather than relying on the use of language , the task has a clearly defined outcome. And based on such criteria, he made a distinction between a ‘task’ and a ‘traditional activity’. Whereas an activity may satisfy the second and the third criteria, it does not satisfy the first one.

Given that in task-based teaching, L2 development might suffer as a result

of concern with meaning negotiation, learners have to be led to pay attention to grammatical structures which may seem the most redundant features of language (Rouhi. 2006: 124). To meet the accuracy challenge in negotiation of meaning in L2 classrooms and task-based teaching, in particular, there is a need to employ methodological options that can lead students to attend to form in the context of meaningful use of language. Ellis (2005 cited by Rouhi. 2006) stresses two of these options which can contribute to accuracy in the context of task-based pedagogy: Planning time, in the form of strategic or on-line planning, and corrective feedback during task performance. Provided with planning time, L2 learners will be able to have access to their declarative knowledge and monitor forms for L2 production.

In the process of language production, L2 learners might ignore such a knowledge, which needs controlled processing, and attend to meaning which is of higher value in the context of task performance. Pressed to communicate, learners run the risk of fostering lexicalized language production, strategic language use (Skehan, 1996 cyted in Rouhi. 2006), operating an exemplar-based system rather than a dual-mode system, and fossilization. Declarative knowledge, which contrasts with procedural knowledge, is “factual knowledge” such as knowing that certain verbs in English take *-d* or *-ed* when they are used in past tense. Procedural knowledge is about *how to do things without having to think about the underlying rules*. One who is in possession of procedural knowledge of past tense can add *-d* or *-ed* to verbs with no thinking about the way the rule functions. The transformation of declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge is a gradual process which involves a transition from controlled processing to automatic

processing. While skill-building theorists acknowledge that through practice rule-based representation of language is subject to procedural, some second language acquisition theorists downplaying such a transition, claim that implicit knowledge develops out of meaningful language input.

Reviews of L2 studies show that explicit form instruction is significantly effective in developing L2 system. Engaging in language production by investing effort and attention to use some rules will help language learners speed up the time of processing operation in the future uses (Rouhi. 2006).

Tasks, as the main units of TBLT, are strongly claimed to be graded in syllabi based on their various characteristics. Gilabert and Robinson (2005 cited by Izadpanah and Shajeri. 2014: 11) declare that the best criterion for such sequencing in a principled way is cognitive task complexity which is “the result of intentional, memory, reasoning, and other information processing demands imposed by the structure of the task on language learner; therefore, it pertains to the degree of cognitive demands that the task imposes on the learners while doing the task. Robinson states “pedagogical tasks [should] be sequenced for learners on the basis of increases in their cognitive complexity” and strongly recommends cognitive complexity as the “theoretically motivated, empirically substantiable, and pedagogically feasible sequencing criteria” for the purpose of assisting learners in developing a balanced interlanguage regarding accuracy, fluency, and complexity. Many experts in cognitive issues referred to *memory* and *attention* as the most important factors in cognitive processes.

Planning for TBLT could happen in different levels, such as linguistic elements plan (e.g. choice of words or phrases), sentences plan, structure plan.

Ellis (2005 cited by Wang, 2008: 84) identifies the principal types of task planning, which seems based on general acceptance. Planning in task-based learning and teaching can be cataloged into two kinds: pre-task planning and within-task planning. Pre-task planning includes rehearsal and strategic planning. Rehearsal refers to the fact that students are given a chance to perform the task before the formal performance of the task. It involves task repetition as the first time performance is viewed as preparation for the later performance. Strategic planning refers to students' preparation of what the content is and how the content is expressed for the task. Within-task planning could be further divided into pressured or unpressured. It is grouped according to the time given to students to prepare. In an unpressured planning, students can have a careful plan on their performance of the task. In a pressured planning, students need to rapidly prepare their performance. There is a problem with the division of the within-task planning in my opinion. Ellis (2005) said that "within-task planning can be differentiated according to the extent to which the task performance is pressured or unpressured" (p.4). But he does not make clear the distinction between pressured planning and unpressured planning. In my opinion, the distinction between pressure and unpressure lies in the specific learner's psychological reflection to the tasks. So it is hard to identify the distinction.

2.2 Teaching Writing

Heaton (1975) stated writing skills are complex and sometimes difficult to teach, requiring mastery not only of grammatical and rhetorical devices but also of conceptual and judgmental elements. In other words, writing involves how the

way students perceive, concept and judge something before making it real in their composition. In addition, Raimes (1983) says writing is a skill in which we express ideas, feeling, and thoughts which are arranged in words, sentences, and paragraph using eyes, brain and hands. Writing also reinforces the use of structure, idiom, vocabulary, which we have studied in the previous lesson. Thus writing is the ability to express the writers' ideas in written form.

In writing activity, writers are considered successful when their writing fulfills the criteria of some aspects of writing as follows:

1. Content

Content refers to the substance of writing, the experience of the main idea, i.e., groups of related statements that a writer presents as unit in developing a subject. Content paragraph does the work of conveying ideas rather than fulfilling special function of transition, restatement, and emphasis.

2. Organization

Organization refers to the logical organization of the content. It is scarcely more than an attempt to piece together all collection of facts and jumble ideas. Even in early drafts, it may still be searching for order, trying to make out patterns in its material and working to bring the particulars of its subject in line with what is still only a half-formed notion of purpose.

3. Vocabulary

Vocabulary refers to the selection of words those are suitable with the content. It begins with the assumption that the writer wants to express the

ideas as clearly and directly as he can. As a general rule, clarity should be his prime objective. Choosing words that express his meaning is precisely rather than skew it or blur it.

4. Language

Language refers to the use of the correct grammatical form and syntactic pattern on separating, combining, and grouping ideas in words, phrases, clauses, and sentences to bring out logical relationships in paragraph writing.

5. Mechanic

Mechanic refers to the use of graphic conventional of the language, i.e., the steps of arranging letters, words, sentences, paragraphs by using knowledge of structure and some others related to one another

Based on the definition above, the writer can conclude that writing is an important means of indirect unique communication that referred to the productive and expressive activity. In this case students are expected to be able to express their ideas, feeling, and thought in written language. (For the scoring rubric, it was enclosed in appendix 1)

2.3 Concept of Planning in TBLT

Planning is indispensable to language production (Ahmadian and Tavakoli. 2010: 35). Even the most careless and speeded speech or writing involves a degree of planning . When it comes to second language production, the importance of planning (be it within-task planning or task repetition) is even more highlighted as both empirical and anecdotal evidence confirm that planning

impacts on accuracy, complexity, and fluency of second language (L2) learners. In the meantime, increasing accuracy, complexity, and fluency of language performance is desirable and difficult to achieve.

Planning is conceptualized as the opportunity to plan task performance before the *actual* performance (Tavares. 2009: 165). The difficulty may derive from the fact that - from the perspective of information processing theory. Consequently, attending to one dimension of performance (e.g. accuracy) may have detrimental effects on other facets of performance (e.g. fluency). The issue of trade-off between form and meaning as well as the urge to enhance all dimensions of language performance has caused second language acquisition (SLA) researchers to study the effects of different procedural options.

Park (2010) stated that despite this theoretical argument for planning in focus on form and L2 development, previous planning studies have mainly focused on performance measures. In particular, the weak effect on accuracy indicates that one needs to look at process rather than product as the effect of short-term planning time . That is, it may be too ambitious to expect target like performance after 5 to 15 minutes of planning time, given that interlanguage (IL) development requires long-term, internal restructuring. Similarly, Ortega argued that learners with incorrect IL representations may not be able to benefit from extra time alone without appropriate L2 assistance. Thus, it seems worthwhile to explore focus on form to provide insight into the learning process, rather than performance measures for planning effects.

In the last few years, a number of studies have reported on the effects that advance speech planning has on the performance of L2 learners. These studies

vary in a number of respects, including the motivation for studying speech planning and the aspects of L2 learners' speech performance that were analyzed (Mehnert. 1998: 84). However, most of them operationalized advance speech planning as time given in advance of task performance and compared L2 learners' speech performance under two conditions: an unplanned condition, in which subjects had no time to plan their speech, and a planned condition, in which they had time to plan their speech.

Crookes (1989 cited by Mehnert. 1998) investigated planning as a possible cause for inter-language variation and development and reported on an experiment in which Japanese learners of English as a second language performed two monologic production tasks with and without time for planning. Under the planned condition, subjects had 10 minutes available and were instructed to plan their speech in terms of words, phrases, and ideas. Subjects were asked to make written notes in order to ensure that they did in fact engage in planning. Crookes found that under the planned condition interlanguage productions were more complex, measured in terms of words, number of subordinate clauses, and sentence nodes (s-nodes) per utterance. With regard to accuracy, measured in terms of length of error-free T-units and number of error-free T-units per utterance, differences were not statistically significant.

Working within the context of task-based instruction, Foster and Skehan (1996 cited by Mehnert. 1998) showed a consistent effect for planning on fluency (number of pauses and total silence), complexity (subordination and variety of past tense usage), and accuracy (error-free clauses) of L2 learners' speech performance. Using three different tasks, they also found evidence of an

interaction between planning and task type; the effects of planning, in particular on fluency and complexity, were greater for the more cognitively demanding tasks. Foster and Skehan concluded that planning is a useful pretask activity that can influence the way tasks are done and thus affect L2 learners' level of performance.

Wigglesworth (cited by Mehnert. 1998) was concerned with the provision of planning time in a testing situation. She found that subjects benefited from planning periods as brief as 1 minute; that is, their performance improved in terms of complexity (subordination), fluency (self-repairs), and accuracy (verb morphology). She also found selective effects of planning dependent on task type as well as proficiency level. High- proficiency subjects benefited from planning more than did low-proficiency subjects, and the benefit was greatest on the more difficult tasks.

Because the three studies discussed above employ different tasks and different variables to measure speech performance, it is impossible to make any precise comparisons as to the effect different amounts of planning time have on L2 learners' performance. In particular, it would be useful to examine whether increasing amounts of planning time have a systematically increasing effect on L2 learners' speech performance (use of 1 minute planning, whereas Crookes and Foster and Skehan use a 10-minute planning period) and whether any such effect can be observed across different aspects of speech performance. The study reported here will attempt a systematic investigation of the influence of amount of planning time on learners' speech performance and thus provide potentially valuable findings that subsequent studies can build upon.

2.4 Types of Planning in the Task Based Language Teaching

Hayes and Gradwohl Nash (cited by Ellis and Yuan. 2004: 64) saw planning as a type of reflection, to be considered with other reflective processes such as decision making and inference. However, they argued that planning can be distinguished from other types of reflection in that it occurs in an environment different from the environment of the task itself. They were clearly thinking of what we have called pre-task planning. They distinguished two types of such planning. Process planning is focused on the writer and how the task is to be performed (i.e., identifying strategies for accomplishing the task). Text planning is focused on the content and form of what is to be written. This can entail abstract text planning that leads to the production of ideas, notes, and outlines involving content and rhetorical organization, language planning, or both. Hayes and Gradwohl Nash also recognized on-line planning by acknowledging that planning and text production are often interwoven. They defined *construction tasks* as “tasks that produce their own output gradually with considerable interleaving of plans and action, and the output influences the subsequent planning” . Whether planning occurs inside or outside the task environment is, then, the distinguishing feature of on-line and pre-task planning.

2.4.1 The pre-task planning

The theoretical rationale for pre-task planning as a task implementation condition lies in information-processing models originally established in cognitive psychology but applied to language learning by Skehan (cited by Park, 2010: 10).

According to these models, humans have a limited attentional capacity to process information; thus, paying attention to one area of performance may reduce the attention elsewhere. It follows then that planning before a second language (L2) task may ease the communicative and cognitive pressure on the learner's limited working memory, resulting in improved task performance. A number of empirical studies, based on this theoretical framework, have reported that although planning improves fluency and complexity, it has mixed effects on accuracy (Park, 2010: 10).

The construct of pretask planning as an independent variable affecting linguistic performance has also been linked to learning processes. For example, Hulstijn and Hulstijn (cited by Park, 2010: 10) stated 'Planning involves the activation and retrieval of knowledge about linguistic forms and their meanings, stored in the speaker's memory' (p. 24), which indicates planning processes may promote a focus on form. This form-meaning connection may then elicit noticing a hole in knowledge, hypothesis-testing, and/or meta-linguistic analysis, which are crucial for L2 development.

There have been a number of studies of the effects of pretask planning. Hayes and Gradwohl Nash (cited by Ellis and Yuan. 2004: 65) reviewed a number of L1 writing studies. They concluded that "the effect of planning on text quality is almost entirely attributable to time on task" and that "planning is neither more nor less valuable than other writing activities". In other words, pretask planning leads to better quality texts and greater fluency in writing simply because it affords learners more time overall. This conclusion contradicts Grabe's assertion that "a writer who plans for no more than 10 seconds will write a predictable

essay with less information (and most likely a lower quality essay) than a student who plans for 4 minutes” . It should be noted, however, that many of the studies Hayes and Gradwohl examined employed holistic ratings of writing as measures of text quality rather than measures of information content or of specific linguistic and discourse variables.

To address the question “What does time buy?” Kroll ((cited by Ellis and Yuan. 2004: 64) compared the written compositions produced in class by L2 writers with a 60-minute time limit with those produced at home. She found that the learners produced more accurate language and more highly rated writing in the compositions produced at home, but the difference was not statistically significant. As Kroll recognized, a problem with this study is that there was no way of knowing how long the writers spent on the compositions written at home or whether the two conditions resulted in different planning behaviors. L2 writers plan their writing more effectively and write better texts containing more content when they are able to plan in the language in which they acquired information about a topic. This hypothesis was supported. However, the plans and essays in the matched and unmatched conditions, overall, received identical ratings regardless of the language they planned in.

In the case of pre-task planning, learners plan propositional content and isolated chunks of language to encode it. Even if they do make an attempt at more detailed formulation, it is unlikely they will be able to remember the pre-planned forms when they are performing and thus will be obliged to formulate on-line. Just as readers tend to remember the propositional content of what they have read, not the linguistic encodings (Yuan and Ellis, 2003), so pre-task speech planners

will recall what they want to say (i.e. the schema they have activated) rather than how to say it. It follows that pre-task planning does not greatly assist formulation, especially of grammatical morphology. Thus, the linguistic correlate of effort put into conceptualizing what to say is enhanced complexity and fluency rather than accuracy.

Based on those definitions, it can be concluded that pre-task planning which refers to planning that takes place before performing the task. It involves preparatory attention that helps in performing actions with greater accuracy and speed. The performance of the task is regarded as a preparation for the main and final performance.

2.4.2 The Online planning

In this process, learners do the main task in pairs or groups, prepare an oral or written plan of how and what they have done in task completion, and then present it to the whole class. The task performance session enables learners to choose whatever language they want to use to reach the previously defined outcome of the task. Yuan and Ellis (2003) argue that learners given unlimited time to complete a task use more complex and accurate structures than the ones in the control group given limited time. On the other hand, time limitation in the control group encouraged fluency. When they are given the chance to use their own time, learners tend to revise and find well-suited words to express themselves precisely.

On-line planning can also be stated as the careful and deliberate effort that results in language use (Yuan and Ellis, 2003: 6). In this type of language use the

speaker has the chance to plan and replan both the conceptual content and formulation of the message. When learners have the opportunity for on-line planning they are better able to access their long term memory systems via the central executive. This will assist the formulation stage of speech processing and, in particular, the planning of grammatical features, which, as noted above, are typically accessed later than lexical items in the planning process. Thus, when speech production is pressured, learners make use of the limited processing time available to them to search mainly for lexical material but when it is unpressured, they are better able to search their memory for grammatical information, especially morphology.

One would expect that messages that have been carefully planned and monitored in this way will display greater linguistic complexity and grammatical accuracy. On-line-planning, however, will have a detrimental effect on fluency. On-line planning allows time for the central executive of memory to operate and thus enables learners to search their long term memory for grammatical encodings. Of course, on-line planners must also engage in conceptual planning, the first stage in Levelt's planning process. Thus, on-line planning leads to both enhanced complexity and accuracy.

Ahmadian and Tavakoli (2010: 37) stated that online planning takes place online, during task performance and at the formulation stage. It is distinguished from pressured online planning in that in the former language learners have ample time to plan their speech and make use of the allotted time to carefully attend to their performance, whereas in the latter language learners are required to produce language under time pressure. Online planning is conceptually

characterized as ‘the process by which speakers attend carefully to the formulation stage during speech planning and engage in pre-production and post-production monitoring of their speech acts’. Online planning was operationalized in two complementary ways: by providing careful online planners with ample time for task completion to formulate and monitor their language; and by requiring all participants to start task performance straight away

Based on those definition, it can be concluded that on-line planning refers to planning that takes place while performing the task. In this planning, learners are usually provided with enough time to plan on-line to finish their works. Learners can have the opportunity for on-line planning by having more opportunities to access their long term memory systems or their background knowledge in producing language.

2.5 Theory of Pre Task Planning and Online Planning of TBLT in Teaching Writing.

In writing research, planning has been viewed as one of several processes involved in the production of written text and can be instructed by the teacher. Its role, therefore, needs to be considered in relation to the other composing processes. This has been addressed through models of the complete writing process.

In writing, Hayes and Gradwohl Nash (1996) cited by Elis and Yuan (2004) saw planning as a type of reflection, to be considered with other reflective processes such as decision making and However, they argued that planning can be distinguished from other types of reflection in that it occurs in an environment

different from the environment of the task itself. They distinguished two types of such planning. Process planning is focused on the writer and how the task is to be performed (i.e., identifying strategies for accomplishing the task). Text planning is focused on the content and form of what is to be written. This can entail abstract text planning that leads to the production of ideas, notes, and outlines involving content and rhetorical organization, language planning, or both. Hayes and Gradwohl Nash also recognized on-line planning by acknowledging that planning and text production are often interwoven. They defined *construction tasks* as “tasks that produce their own output gradually with considerable interleaving of plans and action, and the output influenced the subsequent planning”. Whether planning occurs inside or outside the task environment is, then, the distinguishing feature of on-line and pre-task planning.

There have been a number of studies of the effects of pre-task planning. Hayes and Gradwohl Nash (1996) in Elis and Yuan (2004) reviewed a number of L1 writing studies. They concluded that “the effect of planning on text quality is almost entirely attributable to time on task” and that “planning is neither more nor less valuable than other writing activities” . In other words, pre-task planning leads to better quality texts and greater fluency in writing simply because it affords learners more time overall. This conclusion contradicts Grabe’s (in Elis and Yuan, 2004) assertion that “a writer who plans for no more than 10 seconds will write a predictable essay with less information (and most likely a lower quality essay) than a student who plans for 4 minutes”. It should be noted, however, that many of the studies Hayes and Gradwohl examined employed holistic ratings of writing as measures of text quality rather than measures of

information content or of specific linguistic and discourse variables.

There have been few studies of the effects of pre-task planning on L2 writing. To address the question “What does time buy?” Kroll (cited by Elis and Yuan 2004) compared the written compositions produced in class by L2 writers with a 60-minute time limit with those produced at home. She found that the learners produced more accurate language and more highly rated writing in the compositions produced at home, but the difference was not statistically significant. As Kroll recognized, a problem with this study is that there was no way of knowing how long the writers spent on the compositions written at home or whether the two conditions resulted in different planning behaviors. L2 writers plan their writing more effectively and write better texts containing more content when they are able to plan in the language in which they acquired information about a topic. This hypothesis was supported. However, the plans and essays in the matched and unmatched conditions, overall, received identical ratings regardless of the language they planned in.

Whalen and Menard (1995) cited by Elis and Yuan (2004) compared the types of planning used in an argumentative writing task in their L1 and L2. They found that pragmatic and linguistic planning was more likely to occur in their L1 writing but that there was no difference in the quality of their planning in the two languages. Their studies used think-aloud protocols. Planning seemed to have afforded writers plenty of time to compose; thus, their study can be assumed to have investigated within-task planning. The L2 writers with greater proficiency, however, were better able to attend to planning. These studies do not allow clear conclusions regarding the role that planning plays in L2 writing. There is some

evidence that it matters little whether the pre-task planning is done in the L1 or L2 unless knowledge of the topic was initially acquired through the L1. There is also some evidence that the attention L2 writers need to pay to translation may detract from their ability to engage in planning conceptual content on-line.

In general, then, in the case of L2 writing, the role that either pre-task or on-line (i.e., within task) planning plays in the production of written text remains unclear. This is in part because of the failure to make a clear distinction between the two types of planning and also because research to date has tended to rely on holistic ratings rather than the kind of specific linguistic measures that have figured in SLA task-based research.

2.6 Procedure of Pre-task Planning and Online Planning of TBLT in Teaching Writing

The procedure of pre-task planning and online planning in teaching writing were adapted and compiled from Yuan and Ellis (2004: 69). The pre-task planning was described as follows:

- a) The students have been given time for 10 minutes to plan what they were going to write.
- b) In making a plan, the students were given a sheet of paper used as a note in making plan.
- c) After 10 minutes, the note was taken, and the real tasks were given.
- d) The students should finish their writing in 17 minutes and to produce at least 200 words so that the students will have to finish the task with limited opportunities for online planning.
- e) After 17 minutes, the students' writings were taken and analyzed as the

research data.

The different procedures were used in online planning which was described as follows:

- a) The students were not given any time to make a plan before the real task.
- b) In finishing the main task, the students were given time as long as they liked to finish their writing, and the researcher had to ensure that the students began their writing immediately (to ensure the students do not use pre-task planning).
- c) The researcher also did not state that the students were not required to write in minimum of 200 words so that they were not pressured to finish it quickly.
- d) After the students finish the tasks, the students' writing were taken and analyzed as the research data.

2.7 Advantages and Disadvantages of Pre-task planning and Online Planning

Most of the researches in the use of planning reveal that planning can be really beneficial in improving the students' writing quality. There are some advantages in using both planning in teaching learning English, such as:

- a) Planning can give more chance to introduce task and task topic to learners.
- b) It also can serve as a motivator since it informs learners about the outcome of the task and what they are supposed to do to fulfill the task.
- c) Planning can provide learners with vital vocabulary items and phrases or help them remember relevant words or phrases.

- d) If the topic is a familiar one, teachers can elicit the known phrases and language related to the topic. In the process, teachers can have an opportunity to observe what learners actually know and what they need to know.
- e) Giving time to learners to prepare themselves for the tasks enhances the use of various vocabulary items, complex linguistic forms, fluency and naturalness with which the tasks are carried out.
- f) Helping learners to overcome their limitation in learning English (Tavares. 2009: 166).

Those advantages can be a consideration of using planning in writing instruction. However, there are also some problems related to the use of planning:

- a) It is difficult to know whether the students use planning or not especially related to the online planning. If they do not really use it, then it will be a waste of time.
- b) Since the students are given unlimited time to finish their task in online planning, some students will finish it faster than others. Therefore, they will have nothing to do while waiting for other friend to finish. It will lead to other problems such as noisy class and disturbing their friends.

2.8 Theoretical Assumption for Hypotheses

As the most complex language skill, writing needs effective use of vocabulary, careful organization of ideas and linguistic competence. Therefore the strategy in making the writing activities easier and the students motivated to compose a good writing is necessary. It is proposed that replacing conventional

approaches by task based approaches to teaching writing can improve the current weak quality of writings of these learners.

In doing the task, there are some option which teacher can choose to make the language learning process run better; such as time limitation on task completion and the opportunity to use input data. Planning time in task performance involves two main types pre-task planning and within-task planning. These two types of planning are simply distinguished in terms of when planning takes place. As the titles show in the first type, planning happens before the performance of task which is called pre-task planning. In the second type, planning happens while the task is being performed which called online planning (Ellis, 2009).

Pre-task planning is directed primarily at the conceptualization—while on-line planning allows time to attend more closely to formulation. In the case of pre-task planning, learners plan propositional content and isolated chunks of language to encode it. Even if they do make an attempt at more detailed formulation, it is unlikely they will be able to remember the pre-planned forms when they are performing and thus will be obliged to formulate on-line. So pre-task speech planners will recall what they want to say (i.e. the schema they have activated) rather than how to say it. It follows that pre-task planning does not greatly assist formulation, especially of grammatical morphology. Thus, the linguistic correlation of effort put into conceptualizing what to say is enhanced complexity and fluency rather than accuracy.

In contrast, on-line planning allows more time and thus enables learners to search for grammatical encodings. Of course, on-line planners must also engage

in conceptual planning process. Thus, on-line planning leads to both enhanced complexity and accuracy. The distinction between on-line and rapid language use depends on both the amount of time available to the learner and a host of individual learner factors such as whether the learners are norm- or functionally oriented (Yuan and Ellis, 2003). Therefore, both pre-task planning and online planning can be used to improve the students writing quality but in different ways. Pre-task planning seems to improve more on complexity of the language, while online planning tends to more grammatically accurate but less lexically rich.

2.9 Research Hypothesis

Regarding the theoretical preceding assumption elaborated, the researcher came to the formulation of hypotheses. The first hypotheses were as follows:

Ho : There was no significant difference of the students' writing achievement after the students were taught through pre-task planning.

Ha : There was a significant difference of the students' writing achievement after the students were taught through pre-task planning

The second hypothesis were as follows:

Ho : There was a significant difference of the students' writing achievement after the students were taught through online planning.

The last hypotheses were as follows:

Ho : There was no significant difference of the students' writing achievement between those who are taught by pre-task planning and those who are taught by online planning.

Ha : There was a significant difference of the students' writing achievement between those who are taught by pre-task planning and those who are taught by online planning.

This chapter elaborated some theories related to this study. This chapter accumulated some theories which came from several theorists from some books, journals and articles.

III.METHOD

This chapter discussed the design of the research, population and sample, research variables, data collecting technique, research instrument, research procedures, data analysis, data treatment and hypothesis testing.

3.1 Research Design

This study used quantitative research design which investigated the statistical values and their relationship between a set of variables and was used to help explain important phenomena or to predict likely outcomes. This research design had been chosen for this study as it was aimed at examining the use of pre-task and online planning in learning writing.

3.2 Population and Sample

The population of this study was all of students of eleventh grades of SMK Kosgoro Sribhawono East Lampung. The subject of this research was the second grade students of the school. The samples of this research were randomly chosen. The randomization was simple random sampling using lottery (Setiyadi: 2006). The researcher wrote the name of all classes into piece of papers, and then the two names were taken randomly and used as the sample of the research.

3.3 Data Collecting Technique.

The test of writing had been done in which the students were asked to write well-organized essay for one of the given topics. The topics given were generally about current issues that students are most probably familiar. After the test, instructors scored the writing papers of the students based on a criteria developed by Tribble (1996). (For the scoring rubric, it was enclosed in appendix 1)

3.4 Validity of the Data

Validity is a measurement showing the validity levels of the instrument. A valid instrument has a high validity, and invalid instrument has a low validity. An instrument is stated valid if it is able to measure what we want and it can reveal the data from the observed variable accurately. To measure whether the test had good validity or not, the researcher used the content and construct validity.

a) Content Validity

Content validity can be found by relating the material of the test with the curriculum for senior high school. It means that the researcher should give the test to the sample based on the curriculum in the school. To gain the valid instrument, the researcher consulted the instrument test to the English teacher at the school that has been chosen as a place for research. The instruments were also based on the school curriculum. Therefore, the instruments were believed to be valid.

b) Construct Validity

Construct validity is concerned with whether the test is actually in line with the theory of what it means to know the language. Construct validity focus on the kind of the test used to measure the ability. It means that the items should really test the students whether they had mastered the paragraph writing. In achieving this, the researcher constructed the research instrument based on five aspects of writing that should be considered in assessing a writing composition, namely contents, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics.

Table 3.1 Specification for aspects of writing

No	Aspects	Percentage
1	Content	20%
2	Organization	20%
3	Vocabulary	20%
4	Language use	30%
5	Mechanics	10%
Total		100%

3.5 Reliability of the test

Richards and Schmidt (2010: 495) explain that reliability is a measurements of the degree to which a test gives consistent result. A test is said to be reliable if it gives the same results when it is given on different occasions or when it is used by different people. To ensure the reliability of the scores and to avoid the subjectivity the researcher used inter-rater reliability. Inter-rater

reliability refers to the degree of similarity between different examiners, can two or more examiners, without influencing one another, give the same marks to the same set of scripts. If different judges rank test takers in approximately the same order using a rating scale that measures different aspects of proficiency, the rating scale is said to have high inter-rater reliability.

In achieving the reliability of pretest and posttest of writing, inter-rater was used in this research. The first rater was the English teacher, and the second rater is the researcher. All of them discussed and put in mind of the writing criteria in order to obtain the reliable result of the test. Reliability of the pretest and posttest was examined by using statistical measurement. The following statistical data presents the reliability of inter-rater scoring. It was measured using SPSS systematic measures.

Table 3.2 Systematic Measurement of Inter-rater Reliability Writing Ability of Pretest

	Value	Asymptotic Standardized Error ^a	Approximate T ^b	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal Contingency Coefficient	,965			,037
Measure of Agreement Kappa	,195	,061	6,651	,000
N of Valid Cases	44			

From systematic measurement of inter-rater reliability of the pretest table, we can see the coefficient kappa value is 0.965 which is >0.6 and the significance is 0.37 which is <0.05 . It means the inter-rater reliability of pretest scoring was reliable.

Table 3.3 : Systematic Measurement of Inter-rater Reliability of Writing Ability of Posttest

	Value	Asymptotic Standardized Error ^a	Approximate T ^b	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal Contingency Coefficient	,967			,002
Measure of Agreement Kappa	,174	,062	6,032	,000
N of Valid Cases	44			

From systematic measurement of inter-rater reliability of posttest table, we can see the coefficient kappa value is 0.967 which is >0.6 and the significance is 0.02 which is <0.05 . It means the inter-rater pretest scoring was reliable.

3.6 Research Procedures

1. Determining the sample of the research
2. Designing the instruments of the research
3. Students were asked for do some tasks in which one of them use pre-task and online planning.
4. Students were tested on their writing skills.
5. The data were analyzed further.

3.7 Data Analysis

The data collected from the study have been statistically analyzed using the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences, 17.00 (SPSS). In measuring the quantitative data collected after the study, means and standard deviations of the pre- and post-treatment tests in the experimental and control groups have been compared using t-tests. The procedure of data analysis can be described as follows:

- a) The score gained from the students' writing is measured to know the mean, standard deviations, and the overall result of pre-test and posttest for both planning.
- b) The mean and standard deviations of pre-test and post-test is made into comparison using t-test.
- c) The result of t-test is interpreted with the criteria of hypothesis acceptance
The hypothesis analysis in this research used independent t-test using *Statistical Program for Social Science (SPSS)*. The criteria for the hypothesis acceptance are:

- H_a is accepted if $Sig. (P_{value}) < 0.05$. or
- H_o is rejected if $Sig. (P_{value}) < 0.05$

The criteria for the hypothesis rejection are:

- H_a is rejected if $Sig. (P_{value}) < 0.05$. or
- H_o is accepted if $Sig. (P_{value}) > 0.05$

This chapter elaborated research methods that were applied to gather the data of this research.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This part describes the conclusions of the research and also the suggestions for the other researchers and English teachers related to the use of pre task and online planning in writing. They are elaborated as follows.

5.1. Conclusions

Pre-task planning giving some times for students to prepare before the actual task will lead into the improvement of learning outcome especially in the content of writing. It is also a good promise especially in the process of gathering more ideas, arguments, and information before starting writing. Pre-task planning also give the students more chance to use variety of vocabularies to express their ideas into a good writing.

The online planning improve the organization of the writing. By having more time to finish the writing, students were likely motivated to challenge themselves in using variety of connective words and seemed try to make more comprehensive writing. It also leads to the use of varieties of vocabularies while give little improvements on the content of writing.

Both pre-task planning and online planning have some differences, although there are not really significant. The pre-task planning has higher content aspect, while online planning leads to higher score of organization and language

aspects. Both plannings have similar improvement on vocabularies while also no improvement on the mechanic of the writing.

5.2. Suggestions

In accordance with the conclusions above, there are some suggestions given for the English teachers, students and researchers.

In order to support the teaching and learning process, it is better for English teachers to give more time for students, either before doing task or while finishing the task, in order to improve the quality of the students writing. It also suggested for the teacher to give more explanation and prepare appropriate vocabularies and materials before beginning the actual task so that the students are able to prepare more and increase their confident in composing writing.

Meanwhile, the next researchers should consider to focus their researches on the students differences and other external factors which affect the students writing so that this case can be explored more deeply and clearly.

This chapter presented the conclusions of the results in this research and also several suggestions dealing with the results.

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