

**THE EFFECTIVENESS OF USING VIDEO IN TEACHING
LISTENING OF ORAL NARRATIVE TEXT**

An Experimental Study



By :

DEWI CAHYANINGRUM

K2206001

A THESIS

**It is written to fulfill one of the requirements
of the completion of graduate degree
of education in English**

**ENGLISH DEPARTMENT
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2010**

APPROVAL

This thesis is approved by the consultants to be examined by the Board of Thesis Examiners of Teacher Training and Education Faculty of Sebelas Maret University.

Consultant I

Drs. Suparno, M. Pd.
NIP. 19511127 198601 1 001

Consultant II

Kristiandi, S.S.
NIP. 19770720 200112 1 001

This thesis has been examined by the Board of the Examiners of Teacher Training and Education Faculty of Sebelas Maret University and accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Undergraduate Degree of Education in English.

Day :

Date :

The Board of Examiners:

1. Chairman:
Drs. Martono, M.A. (.....)
NIP. 19600301 198803 1 004
2. Secretary:
Dewi Sri Wahyuni, M. Pd. (.....)
NIP. 19780818 200312 2 002
3. Examiner I:
Drs. Suparno, M. Pd. (.....)
NIP. 19511127 198601 1 001
4. Examiner II:
Kristiandi, S.S. (.....)
NIP. 19770720 200112 1 001

Teacher Training and Education Faculty

Sebelas Maret University of Surakarta

Dean,

Prof. Dr. H. Muhammad Furqon Hidayatullah, M. Pd.
NIP. 19600727 198702 1 001

ABSTRACT

Dewi Cahyaningrum. *THE EFFECTIVENESS OF USING VIDEO IN TEACHING LISTENING OF ORAL NARRATIVE TEXT (An Experimental Study)*. A Thesis, Surakarta: Teacher Training and Education Faculty of Sebelas Maret University, Mei 2010.

The objective of the research is to identify the effectiveness of using video in teaching listening of oral narrative text. Related to the objective of the research, the writer uses experimental method. The research was conducted at SMP N 1 Sawit, Boyolali from 13 January to 28 February 2010, in the academic year 2009/2010. The population in this research is the eighth grade students of SMP N 1 Sawit. The total number of population is 280 students coming from seven classes. The sampling of the research is cluster random sampling. From the population, two classes were taken randomly as the sample. The samples are class VIII G as the experimental group which consists of 40 students, and class VIII F as the control group which consists of 40 students. The writer uses *t*-test, normality test, and homogeneity test in order to check whether the two groups have the same listening ability, homogeneity and normal distribution or not. After analyzing the pre-test data the writer finds that both groups are homogeneous and in normal distribution. Moreover, based on *t*-test of pre-test data analysis, the writer finds that $t_0=0.617$ is less than $t_t(78,0.05)=1.980$ or $t_0 < t_t$. It means H_0 is accepted and there is no significant difference in listening ability between the experimental group and the control group.

The research design used is Quasi- Experimental Design with Pretest- Posttest and Control Group. While in collecting the data, the writer used a test in the form of multiple choice type. The data are then analyzed by using *t*-test formula. In this case, data which are analyzed are pre-test and post-test scores of the two groups, the experimental group and the control group. The result of *t*-test computation shows that *t* observation (t_0) is 4.99 while the value of *t* table (t_t) is 1.98. In other words, t_0 is higher than t_t (t observation $>$ *t* table). Therefore, the Alternative Hypothesis (H_a) is accepted while Null Hypothesis (H_0) is rejected. It can be concluded that there is a significant difference in listening achievement of oral narrative text between the experimental group and the control group. Besides, the writer finds that the mean of the scores of the experimental group is higher than the control group. The mean of the scores of the experimental group is 6.05, while the mean of the scores of control group is 5.48. The mean difference between them is 0.57. Thus, the result of the research study implies that video is effective to be applied in teaching listening of oral narrative text.

MOTTO

Whatever you wish for, you keep. Have faith in your dreams, and someday, your rainbow will come smiling through. No matter how your heart is grieving, if you keep on believing, the dreams that you wish will come true.

(Cinderella)

Live today, wait tomorrow, and remember yesterday. Everything happens for a reason.

(Tinkerbell's tale)

In every job that must be done there is an element of fun.

(Mary Poppins)

Let your heart guide you. It whispers, so listen closely.

(The Land before Time)

Even miracles take a little time.

(The Fairy Godmother- Cinderella)

DEDICATION

This thesis is whole-heartedly dedicated to those who support me keep struggling to get better future:

- *My beloved Mother and Father*
- *My beloved brothers*
- *All people that have helped and supported me, “Thank you very much!”*

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Praise be to Allah SWT who has given His blessing to the writer so that she can complete the writing of this thesis as a partial requirement for achieving the undergraduate degree of education in English Teacher Training and Education Faculty of Sebelas Maret University.

The writer is also fully aware that her thesis can never be finished without the help of others during the process of writing. Therefore, in this occasion she would like to express her deepest gratitude and appreciation to the following.

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The researcher realizes that this thesis is still far from being perfect. She hopes and accepts gratefully every comment and suggestion. Hopefully, this thesis will be useful for the readers.

Surakarta, 12 Mei 2010

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

A. Background of the Study

Listening is one of the language skills having an important role in teaching and learning process. It is a vital mental capacity by which students understand and take part in the world around them. Listening is more than merely hearing words. Lundsteen as quoted by Petty and Jensen (1981: 181) defines listening as the process by which spoken language is converted to meaning in the mind. While listening, according to Myers and Myers (1992: 43), is considered not only hearing, but also including the added dimensions of understanding, paying overt attention, analyzing, and evaluating the spoken messages, and possibly acting on the basis of what has been heard.

Far from passively receiving and recording aural input, listening is an active process. Listeners actively involve themselves in the interpretation of what they hear, bringing their own background knowledge and linguistic knowledge to bear on the information contained in the aural text (Schwartz in Burkart: 1998). In other words, listening is a process of understanding a text by activating various kinds of phonology, grammar, background knowledge and experience.

According to Brown (1996: 234), the importance of listening in language learning can hardly be overestimated. Through perception, learners internalize linguistic information without which they could not produce language. In other words, listening provides the aural input that serves as the basis for language

acquisition and enables learners to interact in spoken communication. Without learning listening, people might not be able to speak, to read and to write.

Rost (1994: 141-142) states that there are several reasons that make listening so important in language learning:

1. Listening is vital in the language classroom because it provides input for the learner. Without understandable input at the right level, any learning simply can not begin.
2. Spoken language provides a means of interaction for the learner. Since learners must interact to achieve understanding, access to speakers of the language is essential. Moreover, learner's failure to understand the language they hear is an impetus, not an obstacle, to interaction and learning.
3. Authentic spoken language presents a challenge for the learner to attempt to understand language as it is actually used by native speakers.
4. Listening exercises provide teachers with a means for drawing learner's attention to new forms (vocabulary, grammar, interaction patterns) in the language.

Moreover, Rost (1994: 142) adds that listening can provide enjoyment and stimulate cultural interests, participation in target culture (via movies, radio, TV, songs, plays), appreciation of the beauty of the language (figures of speech, sayings, colloquial expressions) and fulfillment of social needs (development of relationships, confidence, gathering information for every survival needs). Since

listening is very important in language learning, listening needs to be utilized in ways that facilitate learning.

Richard (2008: 4-10) states that dealing with learning listening, listeners need to know kinds of processes involved in understanding the incoming of spoken text. These are often referred as bottom-up and top-down processing. *Bottom up* processing is triggered by sounds, words, and phrases which the listener hears as he or she attempts to decode speech and assign meaning. *Top-down processing*, on the other hand, refers to the use of background knowledge in understanding the meaning of a message. The background knowledge required for top-down processing may be previous knowledge about the topic of discourse, situational or contextual knowledge, or knowledge in the form of “schemata” or “script”- plan about the overall structure of events and the relationships between them.

In line with those two processes above, Celce-Murcia (2001:88) states that listeners need to know further processes and phases in understanding the incoming of spoken text. In *perceptual processing*, the listeners must use his or her knowledge of the language to recognize meaningful sound units, to determine syllable boundaries, and to identify words. Next the listeners work with words and phrases they have stored in short-term memory. This is the *parsing phase*. At last, in *utilization phase*, the listeners search long-term memory for ideas that relate to the new information, when a match is made between the old and new information, comprehension occurs. In other words, listeners need to develop listening skills and listening strategies to become proficient in listening.

In teaching listening, teachers have several responsibilities in helping their students to become proficient in listening. Celce-Murcia (2001:99) describes teachers' responsibilities as follows. First, teachers must understand the role of listening in language learning in order to utilize listening in ways that facilitate learning. Second, they must understand the complex interactive nature of the listening process and the different kind of listening that learners must do in order to provide students with appropriate variety and range of listening experiences. In this case, teachers must be careful in setting appropriate goals for different levels of proficiency; choosing listening materials; incorporating support materials such as visual aids into listening tasks and combining listening with other skills. Finally, teachers must understand how listening skills typically develop and must be able to assess the stage of listening at which their students are, so that each student can engage in the most beneficial types of listening activities given based on his or her level of proficiency.

Rost (1994: 148) says that listening can be taught as component skills. Since listening involves an integration of several component skills like discriminating sounds, recognizing words, identifying stressed words and groupings of words, connecting linguistic cues to paralinguistic cues (intonation and stress) and non linguistic cues (gesture and relevant objects in the situation) in order to construct meaning, using background knowledge, etc., teachers can design specific learning activities focusing on certain component skills as the first logical step in order to develop student's listening skill and make them to become proficient in listening.

On the other hand, in reality, there are some problems faced by the students in listening. Vandergrift in Celce-Murcia (2001:91) states that beginning and low intermediate listeners rely too much on information at one level, either at the top down or at bottom up, and fail to check one level against the other. Listeners may come to the listening experience with a fixed idea of what they will hear, and be unwilling to change their idea as the text comes in. They are also less able to revise their schemata when faced with contradictory information and either ignore the contradiction or shift their conceptual frame-works too frequently. In this case, such learners may be bound to surface feature of the data, making all their inferences at the local level and lacking any overall schema for understanding.

For the example, Celce- Murcia (2001: 91) states that beginners are not yet able to segment the speech stream into word units- to tell where one word begins and another ends. They may perceive and classify sounds which native speakers consider similar as different or sounds which native speakers consider different as the same. If the stress patterns of words differ from those in L1, they may have trouble identifying L2 word boundaries. Besides, Rost (1994: 119) sates that numerous pupils have trouble with factual or literal comprehension such as identifying what was said or what facts were stated. They also have problem with interpretation such as categorizing new information or seeing cause and effect relationship between facts.

Moreover, Rost (1994: 125-126) states that there are two types of problem that have been identified and are most resistant to interaction.

1. Overuse of preferred information

The first problem is what has been called ‘overuse of preferred information. This refers to the observation that many less capable pupils have trouble in listening comprehension because they tend to ignore important information and rely on the preferred information (the irrelevant information about the topic of the text).

2. Lack of comprehension monitoring

The second problem is referred to as the lack of comprehension monitoring. Poor listeners are not engaged in comprehension monitoring. Instead, they tend to understand narratives, descriptions and explanations as one fact at a time, without simultaneously evaluating the facts.

According to Brown (1994: 236-237), there are two types of spoken language: monologues and dialogues. In monologues, when one speaker uses spoken language for any length of time, as in speech, lectures, readings, news broadcasts and the like, the hearer must process long stretches of speech without interruption- the stream of speech will go on whether or not the hearer comprehends. Monologue texts can be divided into two: planned monologues (e.g., speeches and other pre-written material) and unplanned monologues (e.g., impromptu lectures and long “stories” in conversation). Monologues (especially planned monologues) are characterized with little redundancy that can hinder comprehension.

Dialogue involves two or more speakers and can be subdivided into exchanges that promote social relationship (interpersonal) and exchanges for which the purpose is to convey propositional or factual information (transactional). In this case, participants may have to work with shared knowledge such as background knowledge or schemata in order to understand the message of spoken language.

Besides, listening activities become varied according to their purposes and objectives. Brown (1994: 242-244) describes listening activities as follows.

1. Reactive: It requires little meaningful processing. The role of listener as merely a “tape recorder” must be very limited. The only role that reactive listening can play in an interactive classroom is individual drills that focus on pronunciation.
2. Intensive: It focuses on components (phonemes, words, intonation, discourse markers, etc.) in its requirement that students single out certain elements of spoken language. It includes the bottom-up skills that are important at all levels of proficiency.
3. Responsive: A significant proportion of classroom listening activity consists of short stretches of teacher language designed to elicit immediate responses.
4. Selective: Its purpose is not to look for the global or general meanings, necessarily, but to be able to find important information in a field of potentially distracting information.

5. Extensive: Its purpose is to develop a top-down, global understanding of spoken language.
6. Interactive: This listening activity can include all five of the above types as learners actively participate in discussions, role-plays, and other pair and group work. It must be integrated with speaking (and perhaps other) skills in the authentic give and take of communicative interchange.

Based on the types of spoken language, oral narrative text is categorized as monologue text. According to Brown (1994: 237), monologues (especially planned monologues) usually manifest little redundancy. In this case, if there is little redundancy, there is just little extra time and information helping the hearer to process meaning. Moreover, in narratives, there are dialogues involving two or more speakers that can be subdivided into exchanges that promote social relationship (interpersonal) and exchanges for which the purpose is to convey propositional or factual information (transactional). In this point, listeners may have to work with shared knowledge in order to understand the message of spoken language.

Narratives sequence people/characters in time and place. Narratives also set up one or more problems, which must eventually find a way to be resolved. In order to understand the whole message of oral narrative text, listeners need to listen intensively, selectively and also extensively. Listeners need to activate both bottom up processing skills and top down processing skills. Besides, they also need to be active in processing interpretation in which listeners match what they

hear with what they already know (background knowledge). Listeners are expected to combine their previous experiences with the text they are hearing in comprehending an oral narrative text. If they fail in doing these, they will not understand the text well. In this case, teacher may use teaching media such as video in order to facilitate the listeners to comprehend oral narrative texts. Settings, actions, emotions, and gestures found in video can help the learners to understand the whole message of oral narrative text. By listening to the auditory stimulus and paying attention to the visual stimulus, students will be able to catch the meaning of spoken narrative text better.

The word media comes from “medium” which is from *Latin language* that means carrier or escort, that is, a thing bringing the information from a source to a receiver. Media can be classified into three kinds; visual media, audio media, and audio visual media. In this research, the writer focuses her study on video, a teaching medium that can be classified into audio visual media.

Audio visual media are the media that can be seen and heard. By using video, teachers can get the benefit of audio and visual supports at the same time. Visual information in video is important in teaching and learning process especially in teaching second-language listening. Rubin in Buck (2001: 46-47) suggests that visual support can aid language learners, especially less proficient learners, and is particularly helpful with more difficult texts. Moreover, video as a medium that combines both audio and visual supports is a perfect medium for students who are auditory or visual learners. Lever-Duffy (2003: 273) describes the strength of using audio visual support in learning as follows:

Adding the appropriate audio and visual components can engage more learners' sense and help to build multiple cognitive connections to the content presented. And because learning styles vary, the addition of audio and images can make learning easier for many students by addressing their auditory or visual strength.

Video is also a teaching tool than can enhance students' listening experience. By listening to the auditory stimulus and paying attention to the visual stimulus (settings, actions, emotions, and gestures) students will be able to catch the whole message of spoken narrative text better.

Furthermore, video can help the teachers to avoid general problems in the classroom, like boredom, weariness, and falling to understand the relevance of the information. Thus it is reasonable that listening of oral narrative text delivered through audio and visual supports is more motivating than listening delivered through audio support alone.

Based on the explanation above, teaching listening of oral narrative text by using video is expected to give more effective result than teaching listening of oral narrative text without video. To prove this, the writer would like to conduct an experimental research to measure the effectiveness of using video in teaching listening of oral narrative text in comparison with teaching listening of oral narrative text by using audio.

B. Problem Statement

The problems that are analyzed in this research are:

1. Is there any difference of listening achievement between the students who are taught by using video and the students who are not taught by using video?
2. Is the difference significant?

C. The Objective of the Study

Based on the formulation of the problem, the objective of this research is to identify the effectiveness of using video in teaching listening of oral narrative text.

D. The Benefit of the Research

In writing this thesis, there are some benefits to gain as follows.

1. This thesis is expected to give specific contribution to show variety of teaching media that can be used in teaching listening of oral narrative text.
2. The result of this research may help teachers to choose the appropriate media in teaching listening of oral narrative text.

BAB II

LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Reviews on Listening

1. The Nature of Listening

Basically, listening is more than merely hearing words. Lundsteen as quoted by Petty and Jensen (1980: 181) defines listening as the process by which spoken language is converted to meaning in the mind. While Myers and Myers (1992: 43) state that listening is considered not only hearing, but also including the added dimensions of understanding, paying overt attention, analyzing, and evaluating the spoken messages, and possibly acting on the basis of what has been heard.

Listening, although once labeled as a passive skill, is truly an active process. Anderson and Lynch in Celce-Murcia (2001: 72) reject a conceptualization of listening as a passive act, calling it a “listener-as-tape-recorder” explanation. They argued that such a perspective fails to account for the interpretations listeners make as they hear the spoken text according to their own purpose for listening and their own store of background knowledge. In this case, listeners must simultaneously integrate both linguistic skills (recognizing words, parsing speech into constituent parts and processing the discourse in terms of cohesion, logic and relevant underlying schemas) and non linguistic skills (inferring the speaker’s intentions and numerous social skills such as giving back-channeling signals and making repairs when misunderstanding occur).

Based on the explanation above, listening is defined as an active process by which spoken language is converted to meaning in the mind. In this case, listening is more than merely hearing. In listening, the listeners simultaneously integrate both linguistic skills and non linguistic skills, and also possibly give response to what has been heard.

2. Listening Process

Listening is not a simple process. Listeners pass through several stages to comprehend the meaning of spoken text. Petty and Jensen (1981: 181) propose three steps of listening process as follows.

1. Hearing: the listeners hear a series of sounds, the actual words and sentences.
2. Understanding: the listeners understand the meanings of these words and sentences in the context in which they have heard them.
3. Evaluate: the listeners evaluate the meanings and accept or reject the total communication.
4. Responding: The listeners respond to what they have heard.

In line with Petty and Jensen, Buck (2001: 274) states that listening is a complex process in which the listener takes the incoming data, an acoustics signal, and interprets it based on a wide variety of linguistics and non linguistics knowledge. In this case, the linguistics knowledge includes phonology, lexis, syntax, semantic, and discourse structure. The non linguistics knowledge includes knowledge of the topic, context and general knowledge about the world and how

it works. Buck (2001: 274) also adds that comprehension is an on-going process of constructing an interpretation of what the text is about, and then continually modifying that as new information becomes available.

Based on the explanation above, it is obvious that listening and hearing are not identical and should be thought of as two distinguishable phases. Hearing requires perceiving sounds and discriminating among them while listening is a process of becoming aware of the sound components and recognizing them in sequences that have meaning. Besides, listening is also a complex process in which the listener takes the incoming data, an acoustics signal, and interprets it based on a wide variety of linguistics (such as of phonology, lexis, syntax, semantic, and discourse structure) and non linguistics knowledge (such as knowledge of the topic, context and general knowledge about the world and how it works). Thus in listening, the listener actively make an interpretation on what they hear, draw on all existing information resources, including knowledge of the world, and possibly give response to what has been heard.

3. The Aspects of Listening Comprehensions

Listening comprehension is a very complex process emphasizing the listener to understand the meaning of the spoken texts. It involves both linguistic knowledge and non linguistic knowledge. Rost (1994: 9-65) describes linguistic knowledge a follows.

a. Speech sounds

Sound perception is the basis of hearing and essential process in listening. Listeners recognize speech as a sequence of phonemes that are particular to a certain language. These phonemes have slightly differing characteristics of length, duration and frequency which help the listeners discriminate between them.

b. Words

Recognizing words is the essential semantic process in listening. In order to recognize a word, listeners have to perform three simultaneous processes: find the most probable 'candidate word' among several possibilities, estimate the best meaning of the word in the context, and find the 'reference' for the speaker's words.

Moreover, Buck (2001: 37) also mentions that stress and intonation are very important in word recognition. By paying attention on stress and intonation, listeners usually understood the meaning of a certain word, even when they did not catch the actual sounds.

c. Parsing speech

One of the essential processes in listening is parsing. It is the process of dividing the incoming string of speech into grammatical categories and relationships. Listeners parse speech by calculating the relationship of words and groups of words to a central theme, or verb.

d. Discourse processing

It refers to the reasoning processes that enable the listeners to understand how language and context function together. In listening, the listeners try to identify relevant information. Often, they must infer missing information. They also form useful conclusions that include the relevant information and make sense in the cultural situation.

Besides, any process of text comprehension presupposes a great deal of general non linguistic knowledge about the world and how things work within it. Buck (2001: 19) states that world knowledge is used not only to expand interpretation, but also to restrict it. For the example, when general topic is familiar, knowledge about that topic can be used to interpret the text. Moreover, knowledge of specific facts or knowledge of how things usually happen, can be used to fill in details that are not explicitly stated in the text. Non linguistic aspects in listening related to the world knowledge are inferencing and schema.

a. Inferencing

World knowledge is applied through the process of inferencing. Hildyard and Olson in Buck (2001: 18-19) classify inferences into three types as follows.

1. Propositional inferences

Propositional inferences are those that follow on logically and necessarily from any given statement.

2. Enabling inferences

Enabling inferences are related to the causal relationship between event or concepts.

3. Pragmatic inferences

Pragmatic inferences provide extra information which is not essential to the interpretation of the text, but which expands on it.

Moreover, inferences are not only made about situation described in the text, but can also be about the motives of the speaker, or the point the text is intended to illustrate.

b. Schema

Rost (1994: 65) states that the use of 'schemas' for understanding is very important. Schemas are culture –specific patterns of 'background knowledge' that enable listeners to imagine the details form of description, narrative or social conversation. Schema is often called as schemata. According to Buck (2001: 20) schemata is structure for representing knowledge in memory, and are assumed to exist for most things listeners would want to represent in memory, including general concepts, situations, events, sequences of events, actions, sequences of action etc. In listening process, schemata guide the interpretation of text, setting up expectations for people, places or events.

Based on the explanation above, it is clear enough that listening is a complex process in which the listener takes the incoming data, an acoustic signal, and interprets it based on wide variety of linguistic such as speech sounds, words,

parsing speech and discourse processing, and non linguistic knowledge such as inferencing and schema. In this case, background knowledge or schemata is very important in listening comprehension. If the listener shares the same knowledge as the speaker, much of what is being said can be understood by means of inferences based on shared background knowledge. However, if the listener has no relevant knowledge to the particular events being described in the text, then listening will be more difficult.

4. The Interactive Model of Listening Comprehension

The following eight processes (adapted from Clark and Clark, 1977 and Richard, 1983) are involved in comprehension.

1. The hearer processes what we will call “raw speech” and holds an “image” of it in short term memory. This image consists of constituents (phrase, clauses, cohesive markers, intonation and stress patterns) of a stream of speech.
2. The hearer determines the types of speech event that is being processed. The hearer must, for example, ascertain whether this is a conversation, a speech, a radio broadcast, etc., and, then appropriately “color” the interpretation of the perceived message.
3. The hearer infers the objectives of the speaker through consideration of the type of the speech event, the context, and content. So, for example, one infers whether the speaker wishes to persuade, to request, to

exchange pleasantries, to affirm, to deny, to inform, and so forth. Thus the function of message is inferred.

4. The hearer recalls background information (or schemata) relevant to the particular context and subject matter. A lifetime of experiences and knowledge are used to perform cognitive associations in order to bring a plausible interpretation to the message.
5. The hearer assigns a literal meaning to the utterance. This process involves a set of semantic interpretations of the surface strings that the ear has perceived.
6. The hearer assigns an intended meaning to the utterance. A key to the human communication is the ability to match between perceived meaning with intended meaning. This match-making, of course, can extend well beyond simple metaphorical and idiomatic language. It can apply to short and long stretches of discourse and its breakdown can be used by careless speech, inattention of the hearer, conceptual complexity, contextual miscues, psychological barriers and host of other performance variables.
7. The hearer determines whether information should be retained in short-term or long term memory. Short-term memory- a matter of a few seconds- is appropriate, for example, in context that simply call for a quick oral response from the hearer. Long term-memory is more common when, say, you are processing information in the lecture. There are, of course, many points in between.

8. The hearer deletes the form in which the message was originally received. The words, phrase and sentences themselves are quickly forgotten-“pruned”- in 99 percent of speech act.

Based on the explanation above, listening is not merely a one way process of receiving of the incoming data, an acoustic signal. In this case, listening comprehension is an interactive process. The interactive process of listening are processing “raw speech” and holding an “image” in short term memory, determining the types of speech event that is being processed, inferring the objectives of the speaker, recalling relevant background information (or schemata) in order to bring a plausible interpretation to the message, assigning a literal meaning and an intended meaning to the utterance, determining whether information should be retained in short-term or long term memory, and at last, deleting the form in which the message was originally received. The words, phrase and sentences themselves are quickly forgotten-“pruned”- in 99 percent of speech act. In short, after the initial reception of sound, listeners perform at least seven other major operations on that set of sound waves.

5. The Skills of Listening Comprehension

Successful listening involves an integration of listening component skills. Rost (1994: 142) states that listening is a co-coordinator of the listening component skills or micro-skills, not the individual micro skills themselves. Richard as quoted by Brown (1994: 241) and Buck (2001: 57) suggests the

different list of “micro-skills” for conversational listening and academic listening as follows.

1. Micro-skills for conversational listening
 - a. Retain chunks of language of different lengths in short term memory.
 - b. Discriminate the distinctive sounds of English.
 - c. Recognize English stress patterns, words in stressed and unstressed positions, rhythmic structures, intonational contours, and their roles in signaling information.
 - d. Recognize reduced forms of words.
 - e. Distinguish words boundaries, recognize the core of words, and interpret word order patterns and their significance.
 - f. Process speech at different rates.
 - g. Process speech containing pauses, errors, corrections, and other performance variables.
 - h. Recognize grammatical words classes (noun, verb, etc.), systems (e.g., tense, agreement, and pluralization), patterns, rules, and elliptical forms.
 - i. Detect sentence constituents and distinguish between major and minor constituents.
 - j. Recognize that a particular meaning may be expressed in different grammatical forms.
 - k. Recognize cohesive devices in spoken discourse.

- l. Recognize the communicative function of utterance, according to situations, participants, goals.
 - m. Infer situations, participants, and goals using real world knowledge.
 - n. From events, ideas, etc., described, predict outcomes, 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.
 - o. Distinguish between literal and implied meanings.
 - p. Use facial, kinesic, "body language", and other non verbal clues to decipher meanings.
 - q. Develop and use battery of listening strategies, such as detecting key words, guessing the meaning words from context, appeal for help, and signaling comprehension or lack thereof.
2. Micro-skills for academic listening
- a. Ability to identify purpose and scope of lectures.
 - b. Ability to identify the topic of lecture and follow topic development.
 - c. Ability to identify relationships among units within discourse (e.g. major ideas, generalizations, hypotheses, supporting ideas, etc).
 - d. Ability to identify role of discourse markers in signaling structure of a lecture (e.g. conjunctions, adverbs, gambit, routines).
 - e. Ability to infer relationships (e.g. cause, effect, conclusions).
 - f. Ability to recognize key lexical items related to the subject/ topic.

- g. Ability to deduce meanings of words from context.
- h. Ability to recognize markers of cohesion.
- i. Ability to recognize function of intonation to signal information structure (e.g. pitch, volume, pace, key).
- j. Ability to detect attitude of speaker toward subject matter.
- k. Ability to follow different modes of lecturing: spoken, audio, audio-visual.
- l. Ability to follow lecture despite differences in accent and speed.
- m. Ability to recognize function of non-verbal cues as markers of emphasis and attitude.

Moreover, Rost (1994: 148) says that listening can be taught as component skills. Since listening involves an integration of several component skills like discriminating sounds, recognizing words, identifying stressed words and groupings of words, connecting linguistic cues to paralinguistic cues (intonation and stress) and non linguistic cues (gesture and relevant objects in the situation) in order to construct meaning, using background knowledge, etc., teachers can design specific learning activities focusing on certain component skills as the first logical step in order to develop student's listening skill and make them proficient in listening. In this case, teachers also must understand how listening skills typically develop and must be able to assess the stage of listening at which their students are, so that each student can engage in the most beneficial types of listening activities given based on his or her level of proficiency.

Furthermore, teachers must be careful in setting appropriate goals for different levels of proficiency, choosing listening materials, incorporating support materials such as visual aids into listening tasks and combining listening with other skills in order to provide students with appropriate listening experiences and make their students proficient in listening.

6. Types of Listening Activities

In creating a successful listening, it is very important to expose a variety of listening activities to the students. Brown (1994: 242-244) describes listening activities as follows.

1. **Reactive:** It requires little meaningful processing. The role of listener as merely a “tape recorder” must be very limited. The only role that reactive listening can play in an interactive classroom is individual drills that focus on pronunciation.
2. **Intensive:** It focuses on components (phonemes, words, intonation, discourse markers, etc.) in its requirement that students single out certain elements of spoken language. It includes the bottom-up skills that are important at all levels of proficiency.
3. **Responsive:** A significant proportion of classroom listening activity consists of short stretches of teacher language designed to elicit immediate responses.

4. Selective: Its purpose is not to look for the global or general meanings, necessarily, but to be able to find important information in a field of potentially distracting information.
5. Extensive: Its purpose is to develop a top-down, global understanding of spoken language.
6. Interactive: This listening activity can include all five of the above types as learners actively participate in discussions, role-plays, and other pair and group work. It must be integrated with speaking (and perhaps other) skills in the authentic give and take of communicative interchange.

While Galvin in Rost (1994: 121) identifies four categories of listening, with typical corresponding purposes as follows.

1. Transactional listening: listening to learn new information.

According to Buck (2001: 73), transactional listening is message oriented. It focuses on content and conveys factual or propositional information. It is used for giving instruction, explaining, describing, giving directions, ordering, checking on correctness of details, and verifying understanding.

2. Interactional listening: listening to recognize personal component of message.

Interactional listening is person oriented more than message oriented. According to Buck (2001: 13), the primary purpose of transactional listening is social relationship. The important features of interactional

language are those of identifying with other person's concerns, being nice to the other person, maintaining social, relationship, etc. It includes greeting, comment about the weather, what is happening in the world and etc.

3. Critical listening: listening for evaluating, reasoning and evidence.

In critical listening, listeners learn about expected types of responds and do not become passive listeners.

4. Recreational listening: listening to appreciate random or integrated aspects or events.

Based on the explanation above, it can be inferred that listeners' understanding of a passage depends very much on their purpose of listening. Rost (1990: 11) states that the purpose of listening helps the listener to select appropriate strategies for seeking specific clarification, for noting down certain details, for scanning for the intent of the speaker and etc. In other words, the students need to select an appropriate role, and purpose to guide them as they listen.

Moreover, Rost (2001:75) states that in most listening situations, there are both transactional and interactional language use, although one will usually be more dominant in any particular situation. In this case, teachers need to provide listening practices in both transactional talk and interpersonal talk. Students need instruction and listening practices to help them recognize both transactional talk and interpersonal talk and how they can respond appropriately.

Teaching listening of oral narrative text in this research focuses on both transactional and interactional listening having a purpose of learning new information and recognizing personal message. Since, narratives sequence people/characters in time and place and set up one or more problems which must eventually find a way to be resolved, listeners need to listen intensively, selectively and also extensively in order to understand the whole message of oral narrative text. In other words, listeners need to activate both bottom up processing skills and top down processing skills to comprehend an oral narrative text.

7. The Factors that Make Listening Difficult

There are some complex factors influencing the students' ability in understanding listening materials. Brown (1994: 238-241) proposes eight characteristics of spoken language that make listening difficult as follows.

1. **Clustering**, in written language we are conditioned to attend the sentence as the basic unit organization. In spoken language, due to the memory limitations and our predisposition for "Chunking" or clustering, we break down speech into smaller groups of word.
2. **Redundancy**, spoken language unlike written language, has a good deal of redundancy. The next time we are in conversation, notice the rephrasing, repetitions, elaborations, and little insertion of "I mean" and " You mean", here and there. Such redundancy helps the hearer to process meaning by offering more time and extra information. However, if there is a little redundancy (such as in planned monologues), there is just little extra time

and information helping the hearer to process meaning. In this case, listening comprehension becomes difficult.

3. **Reduced form**, while spoken language does indeed contain a good deal of redundancy, it also has many reduced forms. The reduction can be phonological, morphological, syntactic and pragmatic. These reductions pose significant difficulties especially to classroom learners.
4. **Performance variables**, in spoken language, except for plan discourse, hesitations, false starts, pauses, and correction are common. Learners have to train themselves to listen for meaning in the midst of all these distracting performance variables.
5. **Colloquial language**, learners who have been exposed to standard written English and / or 'text book' language some times find it surprising and difficult to deal with colloquial language. Idioms, slang, reduced forms, shared cultural knowledge, are all manifested at some point of conversation.
6. **Rate of delivery**, virtually every language learner initially thinks that native speaker speaks too fast. Actually as Richard (1983) points out, the number of length pauses used by a speaker is more crucial to comprehension than sheer speed.
7. **Stress, rhythm, and intonation**, the prosodic features of English language are very important for comprehension. As a stressed time language, English speech can be a terror for some learners as mouthfuls of syllables come spilling out between stress points.

8. **Interaction**, unless a language learner's objectives is exclusively to master some specialized skill like monitoring radio broadcast or attending lectures, interaction will play a large role in listening comprehension. Students need to understand that good listeners (in conversation) are good responders. They know how to negotiate meaning, that is, to give feedback, to ask for clarification, to maintain a topic, so that the process of comprehending can complete rather than being aborted by insufficient interaction.

Oral narrative text is categorized as monologue text. According to Brown (1994: 237), monologues (especially for planned monologues) usually manifest little redundancy. If there is a little redundancy, there is just little extra time and information helping the hearer to process meaning. Moreover, Buck (2001: 165-166) states that in monologues, the speaker is talking to a recording machine. It means that monologues lack of normal back-channeling and listeners' feedback so that the listeners often get difficulties in listening to this monologue text.

It becomes worse since listeners just get once chance at comprehension. They cannot refer back to the text- all that remains is a memory, and often imperfect memory, of what was heard. Moreover, Buck (2001: 44) states that the discourse pattern in monologue are clearly different from written language. The speaker strings together direct statements, in a rather loose way, by just adding more information, and following on from one idea to the next. Furthermore, in narratives, there are dialogues involving two or more speakers that can be subdivided into exchanges that promote social relationship (interpersonal) and

exchanges for which the purpose is to convey propositional or factual information (transactional). In this case, listeners must be able to identify the speakers, the topic of the conversation, transmission between topics, and turn taking among the speakers.

In this situation, listeners need certain strategy in order to comprehend oral narrative text. Buck (2001: 50) states that listeners use their understanding of the communicative situation – the speakers or the topic under discussion to help them understand what is being said. Therefore, when there is a gap in their linguistic knowledge, second-language listeners will naturally tend to compensate for that by using any other available information- including visual information, general background knowledge or their common sense. In this case, teachers may also use certain teaching media such as video in order to facilitate their students to comprehend oral narrative text. Visual information in video can facilitate students to comprehend the whole story better. Kellerman in Buck (2001: 172) states that in many target-language use situations, the listening text is accompanied by visual information which can have a significant impact on the interpretation. Seeing the situation and participants tends to call up relevant schema. Visual information also provides listeners with focus for their attention as they are listening.

Moreover, Buck (2001: 172) mentions that visual information is more important in interactional language use, where the emphasis is on the relationship between the participants. Buck (2001: 172) also adds that with video it is easy to see who is speaking, the setting of places or situations, gestures. Visual information such as context of the situation, speaker's actions, emotions, and

gestures can help the listener to catch the whole message of the story. At last, this visual information is very important since much of the information communicated sometimes is not explicitly stated.

Based on the explanation above, thus it is logical if teachers use certain teaching medium such as video in order to facilitate their students in listening to oral narrative text. Auditory and visual stimulus in the video can help the students to catch the whole message of spoken narrative text better.

8. Teaching Listening

a. The importance of listening

Listening plays an important role in language learning. According to Rost (1994: 141) there are several reasons that make listening so important in language learning. Those reasons are as follows.

1. Listening is vital in the language classroom because it provides input for the learner. Without understandable input at the right level, any learning simply cannot begin.
2. Spoken language provides a means of interaction for the learner. Since learner must interact to achieve understanding, access to speakers of the language is essential. Moreover, learner's failure to understand the language they hear is an impetus, not an obstacle, to interaction and learning.
3. Authentic spoken language presents a challenge for the learner to attempt to understand language as it is actually used by native speakers.

4. Listening exercises provide teachers with a means for drawing learner's attention to new form (vocabulary, grammar, interaction patterns) in the language.

Furthermore, listening is the language modality that is used most frequently. Ellis and Brewster (1992: 56) mention that in early stage of learning English, the pupils may spend much of their time listening to the teacher while playing simple games, singing songs, saying rhymes or listening to simple stories. In line with Ellis and Brewster, Rivers in Celce-Murcia (2001: 70) also mentions that on average, we can expect to listen twice as much as we speak, four times more than we read, and five times more than we write. In fact, mastering spoken language is very important in communication. Without learning listening, people might not be able to speak, to read and to write.

b. Strategies for developing Listening ability

Listening strategies are techniques or activities that contribute directly to the comprehension and recall of listening input. At this point, Underwood (1997: 28) states that part of teacher's roles is to ensure that the lesson proceeds in an orderly and productive way so that the students feel confident, relaxed and unthreatened by listening task.

A good pattern for listening sessions should include the following aspects.

1. The pre-listening stage.

It is the stage when the context of the listening text is established, the task(s) is explained and assistance is given/ offered as necessary.

2. The while-listening stage.

It is the stage when the students listen to the passage (in some instance one section at a time) and attempt the while-listening activities.

3. A period when students discuss their responses in pairs/ group, and help each other with the task.
4. A repeat listening (*if necessary*) for students to continue/ complete the activity or to check/ or clarify information they may have missed or think they may have get wrong.
5. Some further discussion (*if necessary*) between students, or some assistance from the teacher, leading if necessary to listening again to all or part(s) of the text.
6. Post-listening production of the “acceptable” answer, either by the teacher or the class in general.
7. Consideration of the area where students failed to understand or missed something and discussion of why this happened, playing through the text again, in whole or in part, if necessary.
8. A post-listening extensions activity (*if necessary*).

Besides, listening strategies also can be classified by how the listener processes the input. These processes are often referred as bottom-up and top-down processing. Richard (2008: 4-10) describes those processes as follows.

a. Bottom-up processing

In bottom-up processing, learners utilize their linguistic knowledge to identify linguistic elements in an order from the smallest linguistic unit

like phonemes (bottom) to the largest one like complete texts (top). It is absolutely “text based” process where learners rely on the sounds, words and grammar in the message in order to create meaning.

b. Top- down processing

Top- down processing, on the other hand, refers to the use of background knowledge in understanding the meaning of a message. This background knowledge activates a set of expectations that help the listener to interpret what is heard and anticipate what will come next.

In line with Underwood, Richard (2008:10) also states that a typical lesson in current teaching materials involves pre-listening, while-listening, and post listening and contains activities that link bottom-up and top-down listening. In this case, the pre-listening phase prepares students for both top-down and bottom-up processing through activities involving activating prior language, making predictions, and reviewing key vocabulary. The while-listening phase focuses on comprehension through exercises that require selective listening, gist listening, sequencing etc. While, the post- listening phase typically involves a response to comprehension and may require students to give opinions about a topic.

Based on the explanation above, the three phases of listening activity, such as: pre- listening, while-listening and post-listening make students feel confident, relaxed and unthreatened in understanding the content of spoken text. Pre-listening activities such as activating prior language, making predictions, and reviewing key vocabulary can help the learners to establish what is already

known about the topic, to build necessary background, and to set purpose(s) for listening that can facilitate them to listen well. By having this activities they will feel confident, relaxed and unthreatened in understanding the content of spoken text. Then, the use of tasks in while-listening phase can help students to focus on their listening activities. If the teacher gives well structured and enough listening tasks, students will be trained and be more confident to understand the content of spoken text. Students also need further listening activities such as review of the whole lesson and discussion related students' listening difficulties and its solution so that they will have a good understanding about the lesson and will be able to listen the spoken text well.

Moreover, Richard (2008: 6) states that the examples of the kinds of tasks that develop bottom-up listening are as follows.

1. Identify the referents of pronouns in an utterance
2. Recognize the time reference of an utterance
3. Distinguish between positive and negative statements
4. Recognize the order in which words occurred in an utterance
5. Identify sequence markers
6. Identify key words that occurred in a spoken text
7. Identify which modal verbs occurred in a spoken text

Furthermore, Ellis and Brewster (1992: 57) mention about the most important listening strategies in listening a story as follows.

1. Predicting: it is useful to encourage children to predict what they think might come next in a story.

2. Inferring opinion or attitude: An awareness of stress, intonation and body language-such as facial expressions or gesture- will help the children work out if a character is angry, happy, sad and so on. This contributes to understand the story.
3. Working out from context: Although keywords might be glossed before the story is told, children need to be encouraged to use pictures and their general knowledge about a topic to work out the meaning of unfamiliar words.
4. Recognizing discourse patterns and markers (such first, then, finally, or: but, then, so) gives important signals about what is coming next in a story.

Based on the explanation above, in order to understand the whole message of oral narrative text, listeners need to activate both bottom up processing skills and top down processing skills. Besides, they also need to be active in processing of interpretation in which listeners match what they hear with what they already know (background knowledge). Listeners are expected to combine their previous experiences with the text they are hearing to comprehend an oral text. If they fail in doing these, they will not understand the text well.

While for teachers, it is very important to design pre- listening, while-listening and post-listening activities that can make students feel confident, relaxed and unthreatened in understanding the content of spoken language. Teachers also need to design further listening activities such as reviewing of the whole lesson and discussing about students' difficulties in listening in order to facilitate their

students to understand oral narrative text easily. Besides, teachers may use teaching media such as video in order to facilitate their students in listening of oral narrative text. By listening to the auditory stimulus and paying attention to the visual stimulus, students will be able to catch the meaning of spoken narrative text better.

B. Teaching Media

1. Definition of Teaching Media

The word media comes from “medium” which is from *Latin language* that means carrier or escort, that is, a thing bringing the information from a source to a receiver. While media according to Gagne as quoted by Sadiman (1986: 6) are physical means surrounding the learners that can stimulate students to study. Briggs in Sadiman (1986: 6) gives his opinion that media are physical means bringing the information and stimulating students to learn. The purpose of using media is to facilitate communication and learning. In other words, media are such things that can be used to distribute the message from sender to the receiver to stimulate sense, mind, attention and the students’ interest to facilitate teaching and learning processes.

There are a lot of examples of teaching media such as video, television, diagram, printed material that are considered as instructional media since they provide messages with instructional purpose. In general teaching media can be divided into visual aids, audio aids and audio-visual aids. In this research, the writer focuses her study on video, a teaching medium that can be classified into

audio visual media. In this case, audio visual media are the media that can be seen and heard.

2. Selecting Teaching Media

Media must be selected before they are used in the classroom. The knowledge about characteristics of media is needed and become the base of media selection. Dealing with the learning situation, Kemp in Sadiman (1986: 28) states that the question of what media attributes are necessary for a given learning situation becomes the basic of media selection. Before going through the media selection, there are some factors that must be considered by the teacher. Morgan and Bowen (1982: 3) give their opinion that teacher must consider the following points in deciding aids or media in his lesson plan.

1. The purpose of the lesson related to the scheme of work and the syllabus.
2. The specific objective of the lesson.
3. The characteristic of the class members (age, sex, educational background, and the reason of learning the language)
4. The design of the lesson.
5. Communication problems which may affect the lesson (hesitation for withdrawal caused by shyness, anxiety, or difficulty in relationship within the group).
6. Available resources.

In choosing video used in this research, the writer also considers those criteria above. Related to the teaching purpose and objectives, this video is

appropriate to teach listening of oral narrative text because its language contents (particular grammatical structures and language functions) are suitable with the characteristics of oral narrative text. Besides, this video is suitable for young learners. Its length (around 3 minutes up to 5 minutes), educative contents, speech delivery and language level are appropriate for young learners. Moreover, this video comes with ready made materials that can be used for teaching listening of oral narrative text directly. Teachers just need to download it through the internet. By using video, students can get the benefit of audio and visual supports at the same time so that will be able to catch the whole message of spoken narrative text better. Furthermore, this video can help the teachers to avoid general problems in the classroom, like boredom, weariness, and falling to understand the relevance of the information. Thus, it is clear that video in this research is expected to give a lot of benefits in teaching listening of oral narrative text since it is chosen selectively.

3. Video as Teaching Media

a. Definition of Video

There are many definitions about video. Smaldino (2002: 283) defines it as electronic storage of moving images. He adds that any electronic media format that employs “motion pictures” to present a message can be referred to as video. Sadiman (1986: 76) explains that video is audio visual medium that can be used to distribute message from sender to receiver so that it can facilitate learners to study about certain material. While in <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Canning-Video.html>,

video is at best defined as the selection and sequence of messages in an audio-visual context

Furthermore McLuhan and Fiore in Lever (2003: 332) explain that video is a highly regarded instructional method with its roots in the constructivist learning styles, and multiple intelligences theoretical camps. Using sight and sound, video is the perfect medium for students who are auditory, visual and kinesthetic-tactile learners. Besides, video as a listening tool can enhance students' listening experience. Visual information in video is important in teaching and learning process especially in teaching second-language listening. Rubin in Buck (2001: 47) suggests that visual support can aid language learners, especially less proficient learners and is particularly helpful with more difficult texts. The setting, action, emotions, gestures, etc., that the students can observe in a video clip; provide an important visual stimulus for language production and practice. In general, teaching listening by using video can help to avoid the general problems in the classroom, like the boredom, weariness, not understanding the relevance of the information, and incorrect modalities for learning.

The video used in this research is story telling videos focused for teaching listening of oral narrative text. These videos come with ready made materials that can be used directly. Teachers can get these videos by downloading them through the internet.

b. The Benefits of Using Video in The Classroom

There are some benefits of using video especially in the classroom. Smaldino (2002: 288) mentions the advantages of using video in general as follows.

1. Motion.

Moving images have an obvious advantage over still visuals in portraying concepts in which motion is essential to mastery (such as psychomotor skills).

2. Process.

One operation, such as assembly line steps or science experiments, in which sequential movement is critical can be shown more effectively.

3. Dramatization.

Dramatic recreation can bring historical events and personalities to life. They allow students to observe and analyze human interactions.

4. Skill learning.

Research indicates that mastery of physical skills requires repeated observation and practice.

5. Affective learning.

Because of its great potential for emotional impact, video can be useful in shaping personal and social attitudes.

6. Cultural understanding.

People can develop a deep appreciation for other cultures by seeing depictions of everyday life in other societies.

While in <http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/talk>, it is stated that there are some benefits of using video in the classroom. These benefits of using video in classroom for young learners are as follows.

1. Video communicates meaning better than other media.
2. Video presents language in context in ways that a cassette can't. Learners can see who's (or what's!) speaking, where the speakers are, what they're doing, etc. All these visual clues can help comprehension.
3. Video represents a positive exploitation of technology.
4. Teenagers, in particular, have a positive attitude towards television and video. It is seen as being 'modern' compared to books.

Based on the explanation above, it is stated that there are some benefits of using video in the classroom that can facilitate learning process. As what have been stated before, video in this research is focused to teach listening of oral narrative text. Oral narrative text is categorized as monologue text. In this case, the listeners must process long stretches of speech without interruption- the stream of speech will go on whether or not the hearer comprehends. The listeners cannot refer back to the text when they are listening to monologue texts. In narratives, there are also dialogues involving two or more speakers that can be subdivided into exchanges that promote social relationship (interpersonal) and exchanges for which the purpose is to convey propositional or factual information (transactional). Here, listeners must be able to identify the speakers, the topic of the conversation, transmission between the topics, and turn taking among the

speakers. In this situation, listeners need to apply certain strategy that can facilitate them to comprehend the message of an oral narrative text.

Since video is a medium that combines both audio and visual supports, video presents language in context in ways that a cassette can't. In this case, listeners can use visual information in video in order to facilitate them in catching the whole message of the story. By listening to the auditory stimulus and paying attention to the visual stimulus such as settings, actions (human interaction), emotions, and gestures, students will be able to catch the whole message of spoken narrative text better. Visual information also provides listeners with focus for their attention as they are listening.

At last, especially for young learners, they will be more engaged because they have a positive attitude toward it. Video is a modern teaching medium that are very popular around them.

c. The role of video in teaching listening

It is important to note that in many spoken interactions, the relevant linguistic information is conveyed not only by the sound. Kellerman as quoted by Buck (2001: 46) has argued that looking at the speaker's mouth- the lips, jaw and tip of the tongue- provide information about what the speaker is saying, and listeners use that to help them understand. Abercrombie in Buck (2001: 47) suggests that we speak with our vocal organs, but we converse with our bodies'.

Especially in teaching second-language listening, Rubin in Buck (2001: 47) suggests that visual support can aid language learners, especially less

proficient learners and is particularly helpful with more difficult texts. Moreover, Buck (2001:47) explains that non verbal communication can take a number of forms, and they may be deliberate, for the purpose of communication, or unintentional. Detail explanations are follows.

- a. Firstly, there are actions or movements that are obligatory in certain types of social situations. For example: greeting such as bowing and handshaking are executed in a certain way.
- b. Secondly, certain general body movements express the mood of the speaker: depression or happiness are often very apparent in the posture and movements of the speaker, and our assessment of the speaker's mood can have a considerable influence on how we interpret what they say.
- c. Thirdly, there is kinesics, which might be defined as message- related body movements. Antes and Kellerman as quoted by Buck (2001: 47) state that gesture or facial expressions can substitute for a verbal message, as in the case of a shoulder shrug to indicate that the speaker does not know or doesn't care. Sometimes body movements might reinforce a message, as in the case of emphatic gestures expressing important points, or at other times they might be intended to completely modify the interpretation of the spoken message, as in the case of gestures or facial expressions to indicate disbelief or sarcasm.

Based on the explanation above, it is stated that the existence of visual information is an important variable in spoken language comprehension. Visual

information does not only provide a supplement of the linguistic information, but it also helps to define the context in which the spoken message will be interpreted. Thus, teaching listening of oral narrative text by using video is expected to give more effective result than teaching listening of oral narrative text without video. By listening to the auditory stimulus and paying attention on the visual stimulus, students will be able to catch the meaning of spoken narrative text better.

d. Criteria for selecting video

There are certain general criteria should be kept in mind when selecting an authentic video for use in the classroom. In <http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/talk>, the criteria for selecting video are as follows.

1. Watch-ability.

Is the video interesting? Would a young native speaker want to watch this video?

2. Completeness.

The idea of completeness is important for young learners whose primary motivation for watching a video is enjoyment.

3. Length.

The length of the clip is important, it shouldn't be too long, perhaps between 30 seconds and 10 minutes depending on the learning objective.

4. Appropriateness of Content.

The content should be suitable for Young Learners. How has the video been rated; 'Universal', 'Parental Guidance', for ages '13' or '18'? Would the video be suitable for viewing in all cultures?

5. Level of maturity.

Children mature very quickly so a group of 7 year olds watching a video made for 5 year olds would probably regard it as 'too babyish'. On the other hand using a video intended for older children with a group of younger children might lead to the children not being able to understand the concepts in the video.

6. Availability of Related Materials.

Many authentic videos now come with ready made materials that can be used for language teaching

It is also stated in <http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/talk> that there are further factors which should be considered in selecting a video used for presenting language or for comprehension tasks. Those factors are as follows.

1. Degree of visual support.

A good idea is to choose scenes that are very visual. The more visual a video is, the easier it is to understand - as long as the pictures illustrate what is being said.

2. Clarity of picture and sound.

If the video has been copied from the television it is important to make sure both the picture and sound are clear.

3. Density of language

This refers to the amount of language spoken in a particular time. Videos where the language is dense are more difficult for learners to comprehend.

4. Speech delivery.

'Clarity of speech, speech rate and accents are all factors in determining how difficult a video excerpt will be for students to comprehend.

5. Language content.

'In using video to present language, an important factor to consider is the linguistic items (particular grammatical structures, language functions, or colloquial expressions) presented in the scene.

6. Language level.

The language level of the video should be appropriate for the level of the class without the teacher having to explain too much.

The video used in this research has those criteria above. This video has a good degree of visual support and sound. Besides, this video is suitable for young learners. Its length (around 3 minutes up to 5 minutes), educative contents, speech delivery and language level are appropriate for young learners. Its language contents (particular grammatical structures and language functions) are suitable with the characteristics of oral narrative text. Moreover, this video comes with ready made materials that can be used for teaching listening of oral narrative text directly. Teachers can get it easily that is by downloading through the internet.

Thus, this video is appropriate to be used in teaching listening of oral narrative text.

C. Oral Narrative Text

In www.englishonline.com, it is stated that the basic purpose of narrative is to entertain, to gain and hold a readers' interest. Besides, narratives sequence people/characters in time and place. Narratives also set up one or more problems, which must eventually find a way to be resolved.

From many sources, the characteristics of narrative texts can be summarized as follows.

- a. Purpose: to entertain listeners or readers with a true experience or an imaginary one. The characteristic of the text is marked by conflict and resolution.
- a. Text structure is indicated by:
 1. orientation (This part tells where and when the story happened, introduces the characters of the story: who and what is involved in the story- who, where, action verbs),
 2. complication (It tells the beginning of the problem of the main characters),
 3. resolution (It is part tells that the problems in the story is solved),
 4. coda (It is the last part of the fairytale is a closing remark to the story and it is optional. It consists of moral lesson, advice or teaching from the writer).

b. Common grammatical features of narrative texts include:

1. the use of adjectives to build noun groups to describe people, animals or things in the story,
2. the use of time connectives and conjunctions to sequence through time such as first, before, that, then, finally,
3. the use of past tense action verbs to indicate the actions in a narrative text,
4. the use of noun phrase,
5. the use of action verbs saying, verbs, and also verbs of senses.

While for oral narrative text is categorized as monologue text. In monologues, one speaker uses spoken language for any length of time, as in telling a story, and the listeners must process long stretches of speech without interruption- the stream of speech will go on whether or not the listeners comprehend. The listeners cannot refer back to the text when they are listening to monologue texts. All that remains is a memory, and often imperfect memory, of what was heard. Besides, according to Brown (1994: 237), monologues (especially planned monologues) usually manifest little redundancy. In this case, if there is little redundancy, there is just little extra time and information helping the hearer to process meaning. Moreover, Buck (2001: 165) states that in monologues, the speaker is talking to a recording machine. It means that monologues lack of normal back-channeling and listener feedback so that the listeners often get difficulties in listening to this monologue text. Buck (2001: 44) also mentions that the discourse patterns in monologue are clearly different from

written language. The speaker strings together direct statements, in a rather loose way, by just adding more information, and following on from one idea to the next.

Furthermore, in narratives, there are dialogues involving two or more speakers that can be subdivided into exchanges that promote social relationship (interpersonal) and exchanges for which the purpose is to convey propositional or factual information (transactional). In this case, listeners must be able to identify the speakers, the topic of the conversation, transmission between the topics, and turn taking among the speakers. Listeners may have to work with shared knowledge in order to understand the message of spoken narrative text.

In order to understand the whole message of oral narrative text, listeners need to listen intensively (focuses on components such as phonemes, words, intonation, discourse markers, etc.), selectively (to find important information in a field of potentially distracting information) and also extensively (to develop a top-down, global understanding of spoken language). Listeners also need to activate both bottom up processing skills and top down processing skills. Besides, they also need to be active in processing of interpretation in which listeners match what they hear with what they already know (background knowledge). Listeners are expected to combine their previous experiences with the text they are hearing to comprehend an oral narrative text. If they fail in doing these, they will not understand the whole message of the text well.

Besides, listeners also need certain strategies in order to comprehend oral narrative text. Buck (2001: 50) states that listeners use their understanding of the communicative situation – the speakers or the topic under discussion- to help

them understand what is being said. Therefore, when there is a gap in their linguistic knowledge, second-language listeners will naturally tend to compensate for that by using any other available information- including visual information, general background knowledge or their common sense. While, teachers may also use certain teaching media such as video in order to facilitate their students to comprehend oral narrative texts. Visual information in video can help the students to catch the whole message of oral narrative texts easily. Kellerman in Buck (2001: 172) states that in many target-language use situations, the listening text is accompanied by visual information which can have a significant impact on the interpretation that is building up correct interpretation. Visual information also provides listeners with focus for their attention as they are listening.

Moreover, Buck (2001: 172) mentions that visual information is more important in interactional language use, where the emphasis is on the relationship between the participants. Buck (2001: 172) also adds that with video it is easy to see who is speaking, the setting of places or situations, and gestures. In this case, visual information such as context of the situation in which the speech event is taking place, speaker's actions, emotions, and gestures can help the listener to catch the whole message of the story.

Based on the explanation above, thus it is reasonable if teacher use certain teaching medium such as video in order to facilitate their students in listening to oral narrative text. Auditory and visual stimulus in the video can help the students to catch the whole message of spoken narrative text better.

D. Rationale

As one of language skills, listening is more than merely hearing words. Listening is a complex process in which the listener takes the incoming data, an acoustics signal, and interprets it based on a wide variety of linguistics and non linguistics knowledge. The linguistics knowledge includes knowledge of phonology, lexis, syntax, semantic, and discourse structure. The non linguistics knowledge includes knowledge of the topic, context and general knowledge about the world and how it works. In this case, listeners must simultaneously integrate both linguistic skills (recognizing words, parsing speech into constituent parts and processing the discourse in terms of cohesion, logic and relevant underlying schemas) and non linguistic skills (inferring the speaker's intentions and numerous social skills such as giving back-channeling signals and making repairs when misunderstanding occur). The listeners also actively make an interpretation on what they hear, draw on all existing information resources, including knowledge of the world, and possibly give response to what has been heard. Furthermore, listening is the language modality that is used most frequently. Without learning listening, people might not be able to speak, to read and to write. In this case, in order to become proficient in listening, listeners need to develop listening skills and listening strategies.

However, in reality, there are some problems faced by the students in listening. For the example, Celce- Murcia (2001: 91) states that beginners are not yet able to segment the speech stream into word units- to tell where one word begins and another ends. They may perceive and classify sounds which native

speakers consider similar as different or sounds which native speakers consider different as the same. If the stress patterns of words differ from those in L1, they may have trouble identifying L2 word boundaries. Besides, Rost (1994: 119) states that numerous pupils have trouble with factual or literal comprehension such as identifying what was said or what facts were stated. They also have problem with interpretation such as categorizing new information or seeing cause and effect relationship between facts.

Dealing with listening of oral narrative text, listeners often have some difficulties in catching the whole message of the story. Based on the types of spoken language, oral narrative text is categorized as monologue text. Monologue text is characterized with the existence of little redundancy that can hinder comprehension. Moreover, in narratives, there are dialogues involving two or more speakers that can be subdivided into exchanges that promote social relationship (interpersonal) and exchanges for which the purpose is to convey propositional or factual information (transactional). In this case, participants may have a great deal of shared knowledge such as background knowledge or schemata in order to understand the message of spoken language.

Narratives also sequence people/characters in time and place. Narratives set up one or more problems, which must eventually find a way to be resolved. In order to understand the whole message of oral narrative text, listeners need to listen intensively (focuses on components such as phonemes, words, intonation, discourse markers, etc.), selectively (to find important information in a field of potentially distracting information) and also extensively (to develop a top-down,

global understanding of spoken language). Besides, Listeners need to activate both bottom up processing skills and top down processing skills. They also need to be active in processing interpretation in which listeners match what they hear with what they already know (background knowledge). Listeners are expected to combine their previous experiences with the text they are hearing in comprehending an oral narrative text. If they fail in doing these, they will not understand the text well.

In order to facilitate the listeners to comprehend oral narrative texts, teacher may use teaching media such as video. Settings, actions, emotions, and gestures found in video can help the learners to understand the whole message of oral narrative text. Visual information in video also provides listeners with focus for their attention as they are listening. Thus, by listening to the auditory stimulus and paying attention to the visual stimulus, students will be able to catch the meaning of spoken narrative text better.

In this research, the writer focuses her study on video, a teaching medium that can be classified into audio visual media. Audio visual media are the media that can be seen and heard. By using video, teachers can get the benefit of audio and visual at the same time. Visual information in video is important in teaching and learning process especially in teaching second-language listening. Rubin in Buck (2001: 47) suggests that visual support can aid language learners, especially less proficient learners and is particularly helpful with more difficult texts. Video as a medium that combines both audio and visual supports is also a perfect

medium for students who are auditory or visual learners. Lever-Duffy (2003: 273)

describes the strength of using audio visual support in learning as follows:

Adding the appropriate audio and visual components can engage more learners' sense and help to build multiple cognitive connections to the content presented. And because learning styles vary, the addition of audio and images can make learning easier for many students by addressing their auditory or visual strength.

Moreover, as a teaching tool, video can enhance students' listening experience. By listening to the auditory stimulus and paying attention to the visual stimulus such as settings, actions, emotions, and gestures, students will be able to catch the whole message of spoken narrative text better.

Furthermore, video can help the teachers to avoid general problems in the classroom, like boredom, weariness, and falling to understand the relevance of the information. Thus it is reasonable that listening of oral narrative text delivered through audio and visual supports is more engaging than listening delivered through audio support alone.

Based on the explanation above, teaching listening of oral narrative text by using video is expected to give more effective result than teaching listening of oral narrative text without using video. To prove this, the writer would like to conduct an experimental research to measure the effectiveness of using video in teaching listening of oral narrative text in comparison with teaching listening of oral narrative text by using audio.

E. Action Hypothesis

Based on the underlying theory cited above, the hypothesis of this research can be formulated as follows.

1. There is a significant difference in listening achievement between the students taught by using video and those taught without using video.
2. The group taught by using video has better achievement in listening than those taught without using video.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Related to the objective of this study, the method used in this study is experimental research. Experimental research is a systematic and scientific approach to research in which the researcher manipulates one or more variables, controls and measures any change in the other variable. The general procedure is one or more independent variables are manipulated to determine their effect on a dependent variable. Nunan (1992: 24) states that experiments are carried out in order to explore the strength of relationships between variables. While according to Burke (2000: 23) the purpose of experimental research is to determine cause and effect relationship. Burke (2000: 23) also adds that experimental research method enables a researcher to identify causal relationships because it allows the researcher to observe, under controlled conditions, the effects of systematically changing one or more variables. In this case, in experimental research, the researcher actively intervenes in the world and then observes what happen. He presents a set of stimulus conditions- the independent variable- and then observes the effect of this independent variable presentation on the dependent variable. In other words, there are two kinds of variable in experimental research, independent variable and dependent variable.

A. The Place and Time of Study

This research was carried out at SMP N 1 Sawit, Boyolali from 13 January to 28 February 2010, in the academic year of 2009/2010.

B. Subject of the Research.

1. Population

According to Burke (2000: 158) population is the set of all elements. It is the large group to which a researcher wants to generalize his or her sample result. In line with Burke, Arikunto (2002: 108) says that population is all the individuals of that group. While Sutrisno Hadi (1983: 70) says that population is a number of individuals, which have at least one similar characteristic. So, from the ideas above, it can be concluded that population is a number of individuals that have at least one characteristic in common and to which a researcher wants to generalize his or her sample result.

The population of this research is the eighth grade students of SMP N 1 Sawit, Boyolali in the academic year of 2009/ 2010. They are grouped into 7 classes (VIII A – VIII G) where each class consists of 40 students. The total number of population is 280 students.

2. Sample

Arikunto (2002:109) states that sample is part of population being researched. Burke (2002: 158) also says that sample that it is a set of elements

taken from a larger population according to certain rules. So, it can be concluded that sample is a small portion of a population assigned according to certain rules.

The sample of this research comes from two classes (VIII F and VIII G) of the eighth grade of SMP N 1 Sawit, Boyolali in academic year of 2009/2010 chosen randomly by using Cluster Random Sampling. The researcher uses this random sampling method because it is an equal probability selection method (EPSEM) that means each individual in the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample so that it can be used to produce representative samples (Burke, 2000: 183). The total sample in this research is 80 students.

3. Sampling

According to Burke (2000: 183) sampling is the process of drawing sample from a population. Hadi (1987: 222) also mentions the same idea about sampling that is a technique used for getting sample. Thus, it can be concluded that sampling is a technique or process for getting sample from a population.

In this research, the writer uses Cluster Random Sampling for getting sample from the population. According to Burke (2000: 172), cluster random sampling is a type of sampling in which clusters (a collective type of unit that includes multiple elements) are randomly selected. Moreover, Burke (2000: 172) says that cluster sampling is just like random sampling except that rather than taking a random sample of individuals, the researcher takes a random sample of clusters. In this case, a classroom is a cluster because it is a collective unit composed of many single units (students). In short, the writer selects randomly 2

clusters (2 classes) from the larger set of all clusters (7 clusters or 7 classes) in the population and includes all the elements in the selected clusters as the sample of this research. By using this sampling method, each individual in population has an equal chance of being included in the in the sample so that this sampling method can be used to produce representative samples.

The sample of this research consists of 80 students coming from 2 classes (VIII F and VIII G). Then the writer assigns the sample into the experimental group (VIII G) and the control group (VIII F).

C.The Design of Experimental Research

Design of experimental research is outline, plan or strategy in conducting study. This study uses Quasi- Experimental Design with Pretest- Posttest and Control Group. Basically, Quasi- Experimental Design with Pretest- Posttest and Control Group is similar to True- Experimental Design with Pretest- Posttest and Control Group in that it contains an experimental group and a control group. The difference is the participants in Quasi- Experimental Design with Pretest- Posttest and Control Group are not randomly assigned to various comparison groups. According to Burke (2000: 277), Experimental Design with Pretest- Posttest and Control Group is a research design that administers a post-test to an experimental group and a control group after both groups have been given a pre-test and one of the groups has been administered to the experimental treatment condition. In this case, a group of research participants is assigned to the experimental group and another group, the control group. Both then were given pre-test on *listening of*

oral narrative text. After that, the experimental group was taught by using video and the control group was taught without using video. Finally, the experimental and control groups were given post-test again on *listening of oral narrative text* in order to know the significant difference in listening achievement between students taught by using video and students taught without using video .

Burke (2000: 256) states that the pre- to post-test difference scores of the two groups, the experimental and the control groups are then analyzed to determine whether the independent variable, the use of video, produces an effect to students' listening achievement. In other words, data analysis of pre- to post-test difference scores of the two groups is used to determine whether the experimental group's score is significantly different from the control group's score.

There are two variables in this research: the independent variable (the use of teaching media- video), and the dependent variable- (listening ability- listening test score). Besides, there are two groups: the experimental group (that is taught by using video) and the control group (that is taught without using video). These two groups are still taught the same material, in the same period of time, in the same level, and by the same teacher, but with different teaching media. At the end of the study, the listening achievement of these two groups will be compared and then analyzed in order to know whether or not the experiment treatment is more effective. The experimental research design is as follows.

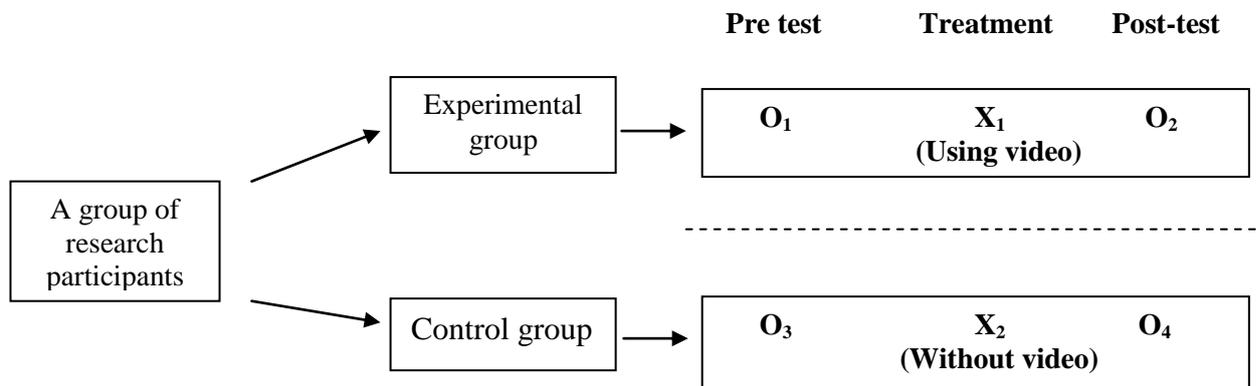


Figure 1 Quasi Experimental Design with Pretest- Posttest and control group. X_1 and X_2 represent the independent variable. O_1 to O_4 represent the pretest and posttest assessment of the dependent variable. The dashed line indicates non random assignment to comparison groups.

According to Burke (2000: 277), Quasi-experimental designs are used when all demands of experimental research cannot be met. In this research, Quasi-Experimental Design with Pretest- Posttest and Control Group is used because it is impossible to randomly assign research participants to various comparison groups.

D. Technique of the data collecting

Data are important point in a research because the conclusion of the research is acquired from the data. In collecting the data for this research, the writer uses a test. Test is a set of questions, experiences, or other means to measure skill, knowledge, intelligence, achievement, or aptitude of an individual or group (Arikunto, 2002: 127). While Brown (1994: 252) states that test is a method of measuring a person's ability or knowledge in a given area. In this case, it is quite clear that the function of a test is to know the students' skill, knowledge, intelligence, achievement, and also behavior.

In this research, the writer uses an achievement test to measure students' listening achievement after the students have been exposed to specific learning experiences. According to Burke (2000: 117) achievement test is designed to measure the degree to which the students have learned the material covered. The achievement test used is in the form of multiple-choice type.

Burke (2000: 122) says that a good test or assessment procedure must be reliable and valid. Arikunto (2002: 114) also proposes the same idea, that a good instrument must have two characteristics, valid and reliable. Validity refers to the appropriateness of the interpretations and actions made by the researchers that is based on the scores they get from a test, while reliability refers to the consistency of the scores obtained from a test. In order to make a good test, the writer focuses her attention on content validity, face validity and also internal consistency reliability as follows.

1. *Content validity* is a judgment of the degree to which the items, tasks, questions on a test adequately sample the domain of interest (Burke, 2000: 107). Generally, in accomplishing this task, experts will make a review of course syllabus, the text, the objectives and etc. In this research, the domain interest is listening of oral narrative text. In this case, content validity involves examining the content of the test to determine whether the test adequately sampled and represented the material of oral narrative text.
2. *Face validity* relates to whether a test appears to be a good measure or not. In this case, many researchers send their test instrument to a group

of leading experts in the field, asking them if they think that it is a good and representative program or they may require a personal judgment, such as asking participants whether they thought that a test was well constructed and useful (<http://www.experiment-resources.com/>). In this research, the writer gives her attention on this face validity since it helps a researcher to find potential flaws before she wastes a lot of time and money.

3. *Internal consistency* refers to how well a test measures a single construct or concept (Buck, 2000: 104). It means that measure of internal consistency provides a measure of the homogeneity of a test. In other words, listening test in this research is considered homogenous when all items measure a single construct, listening of oral narrative text.

Based on the explanation above, the reliability and validity measures are used to select the test or assessment instrument that will provide interpretable scores because reliability and validity measures are information that permits the researcher to select the test or assessment procedures that gives the best and most accurate results. If the test is not reliable and valid, then the students' score obtained from the test are not reliable and valid and are therefore not indicative of student's mastery of the material.

Dealing with the importance of validity and reliability tests, listening test that will be used in collecting research data should be tried out to another class in order to know whether the listening test is statistically valid and reliable or not.

The listening test is tried out in one class that is not included in the research sample and then analyzed to know the instrument's validity and reliability. It is done to know whether any of the items should be revised or not.

1. Try Out

Before the listening test is administered, it is tried out in one class that is not included in the research sample. The try out was done on 13th and 14th January 2010 in SMP N 1 Sawit Boyolali. There are forty students attending the try out test. The result of the try out test then is analyzed to know the instrument's validity and reliability, and to know whether any of the items should be revised or not.

a. The Validity of the test Instrument

According to Burke (2000: 106), validity is a judgment of the appropriateness of the interpretations and actions researchers make based on the score or scores they get from a test or assessment procedures. In this case, a test is considered valid if the test is able to measure what the researchers are going to measure and is able to give the information they want.

To examine the validity, the test items are measured by using Biserial point correlation formula as follows.

$$r_{pbis} = \frac{\overline{x_i - x_t}}{s_t} \sqrt{\frac{p_1}{p_2}}$$

Where:

r_{pbis} : Biserial point correlation validity

St : standard of deviation

p : the testy proportion that can answer the correct answer of items.

q : 1 - p

\bar{x}_t : the average of total score for all testy

\bar{x}_i : the average of score testy for the correct answer

Arikunto (2002: 252)

The result of the computation of validity will be consulted to the r table of statistic. The test items are valid if *r obtained* is higher than *r table* or $r_o > r_t$ and invalid if *r obtained* is lower than *r table* or $r_o < r_t$.

From the data computation, it was found that 41 items of listening test are valid while 9 items are invalid. Therefore, 40 items are appropriate to be used for the real test. The computation of the validity instrument of the try-out can be seen in appendix 4.

b. The Reliability of the Instrument

After the valid items are determined, the writer needs to measure the reliability of the instrument. According to Burke (2000: 100), Reliability refers to the consistency or stability of the scores obtained from a test. Reliability of a test or assessment procedures can be determined in several ways. To find out the reliability of the instrument, the writer uses

KR-20 (Kuder –Richardson formula 20 reliability) formula because the test used in this research is in the form of multiple-choice type. According to Burke (2000: 104-105), KR-20 formula is the preferable method when the test consists of dichotomous item, particularly those items that can be scored right or wrong, as in multiple-choice or true-false items. The formula for computing a KR-20 reliability is as follows.

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

Where:

r_{kk} = Kuder –Richardson formula 20 reliability coefficient

k = the number of test items

p = the proportion of test takers who pass the items

q = the proportion of test takers who fail the items

St^2 = the variance of the total test scores

Arikunto (2002: 163)

The result of the computation of reliability will be consulted to the r table in order to know whether or not the instrument is reliable. The instrument is reliable if $r_{obtained}$ or r_{kk} is higher than r_{table} or $r_o > r_t$.

The result of reliability test is that r_{kk} or $r_o = 0.831$. Then, r_{kk} was consulted with r_t . From the t table it could be found out that r_t for $N= 40$ is 0.312. Because $r_o/r_{kk} > r_t$ or $0.831 > 0.312$, the items of listening test are reliable. The computation of reliability of the instrument can be seen in appendix 5.

E. Technique of the data Analyzing

The obtained data are then analyzed to know whether there is a significant difference in listening achievement between the students taught by using video and those taught without using video. In analyzing the data, the writer uses t-test for independent sample formula. It is a statistical test used to determine whether the difference between the means of the two groups is statistically significant. In this case, the writer uses this formula to determine whether the difference between the means of the two groups (experimental and control groups) is statistically significant and video is effective in teaching listening of oral narrative text. The formula of t-test for independent sample is as follows.

$$t = \frac{M_a - M_b}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{\sum x_a^2 + \sum x_b^2}{n_a + n_b - 2}\right)\left(\frac{1}{n_a} + \frac{1}{n_b}\right)}}$$

Where:

t = The effectiveness of the treatment

M_a = The means of the group A

M_b = The means of the group B

x_a = The deviation from the individual in group A

x_b = The deviation from the individual in group B

Arikunto (2002: 280)

The value of the t-test will be consulted to the value of t-table in the appropriate degree of freedom at the level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$. The degree of freedom can be determined by using the formula: $df = n_1 + n_2 - 2$.

Whether or not the difference between the mean of the two groups is significant depends on the comparison between the value of t-test and the value of t-table. If the value of the t-test is higher than t-table, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between experimental group and the control group. The statistical hypothesis of the research is as follows.

H₀ (Null Hypothesis) : $\mu_1 = \mu_2$

H_a (Alternative Hypothesis) : $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

Where:

μ_1 = the mean of scores of the experimental group

μ_2 = the mean of scores of the control group

Criteria:

H₀ is accepted if the mean of scores of the experimental group is not significantly different from the mean of scores of the control group.

H₀ is rejected if the mean of scores of the experimental group is significantly higher than the mean of scores of the control group.

Moreover, as a requirement for the t-test, firstly the data have to be tested using normality and homogeneity tests. The discussion of normality test and homogeneity test are as follows.

1. Normality Test

Normality test is used to know whether the data have normal distribution or not. In order to test the normality, the writer uses Liliefors formula. The procedures are as follows.

- a. Having an observation of $X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_n$. The result of $X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_n$ become standard number $Z_1, Z_2, Z_3, \dots, Z_n$ by using the formula $Z_i = \frac{X_i - \bar{X}}{S}$ (\bar{X} is the average while S is standard deviation of the sample).
- b. Using standard number distribution list for each of the standard number, then count the probability $F(Z_i) = P(Z \leq z_i)$.
- c. Counting of proportion of $Z_1, Z_2, Z_3, \dots, z_n$ which less than or equal to z_i . If the proportion stated by using $S(Z_i)$, so $S(Z_0)$ is the number of $Z_1, Z_2, Z_3, \dots, Z_n$ which is less than or equal to Z_i divided by n .
- d. Counting the result of $F(Z_i) - S(Z_i)$ then state the absolute value.
- e. Taking the highest value among the absolute values from that result. The maximum result of $F(Z_t) - S(Z_i)$ is L_o .

Criteria: L_o (**L obtained**) $>$ L_t (**L table**) = data do not have normal distribution

L_o (**L obtained**) \leq L_t (**L table**) = data have normal distribution

(Budiono, 2004: 170-171)

2. Homogeneity Test

Homogeneity test is used to know whether the data is homogeneous or not.

In order to test the homogeneity, the writer uses *Bartlet formula* as follows:

$$\chi^2 = \frac{2,303}{c} \left((N - k) \log(S_{tot}^2) - \left(\sum (n - 1) \log S_i^2 \right) \right)$$

$$c = 1 + \frac{1}{3(k - 1)} \left(\sum \frac{1}{n_i - 1} - \frac{1}{N - k} \right)$$

Where:

χ^2 = the Bartlet homogeneity test.

N = the total samples that is used.

k = the total classes that is used.

n = the total sample in each class.

S = the total variance

Criteria: $\chi_o^2 < \chi_{table}$ = the data are homogeneous.

$\chi_o^2 > \chi_{table}$ = the data are not homogeneous.

(Winner in Budiono, 2004: 176-177)

CHAPTER IV

THE RESULT OF THE STUDY

A. The Description of the Data

The purpose of this research is to find out whether or not there is a significant difference in listening achievement between students taught by using video and those taught without using video. This research was conducted at SMP N 1 Sawit, Boyolali from 13 January to 28 February 2010, in the academic year 2009/2010. The writer took two classes as the sample. Those classes were class VIII G as the experimental group and class VIII F as the control group. The experimental group was taught listening by using video while the control group was taught listening without using video.

After conducting the experiment, the researcher obtained the desired data. The data which are analyzed in this research are pre-test and post-test scores of the two groups, experimental group and control group. The pre-test and post-test scores of both the experimental and the control groups are compared by using *t-test formula*. The data description of each group presented as follows.

1. Pre-test Scores

a. The Experimental Group

The data of the pre-test show that the highest score is 6.50, while the lowest score is 3.50, and the mean is 5.11. (The distribution of the data can be seen on table 1 and the histogram of frequency distribution can be

seen in figure 2). The following is the how to get the frequency distribution of pre-test scores of the experimental group.

(1) Determining the range of the scores.

$$r = \text{the highest score} - \text{the lowest score}$$

Based on the formula above, the range of the scores is:

$$r = \text{the highest score} - \text{the lowest score}$$

$$= 6.5 - 3.5$$

$$r = 3$$

So, the range of the scores is 3.

(2) Determining the number of class interval

$$c = 1 + 3.3 \log n$$

Where:

c = the number of class interval

n = the number of sample

Based on the formula above, the value of c is:

$$c = 1 + 3.3 \log n \ 40$$

$$= 1 + 3.3 \log 40$$

$$= 1 + (3.3 \times 1.602)$$

$$= 1 + 5.29$$

$$c = 6.3$$

So, the number of class interval is 6.3.

(3) Determining interval

$$i = \frac{r}{c}$$

Where:

i = the interval

r = range of the scores

c = number of class interval

Based on the formula above, the value of i is:

$$i = \frac{r}{c}$$

$$= \frac{3}{6.3}$$

$$= 0,47$$

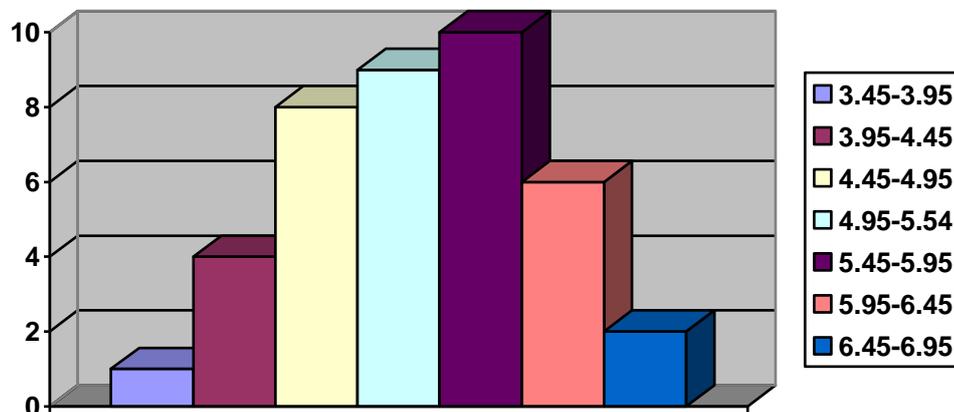
$$i = 0.5$$

So, the range interval is 0.47. Then it is rounded up into 0.5.

Table 1: The frequency of distribution of pre-test scores of the experimental group

<i>No.</i>	<i>Class of interval</i>	<i>Class Boundaries</i>	<i>Absolute Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
1	3.5 – 3.9	3.45-3.95	1	2.5 %
2	4 – 4.4	3.95-4.45	4	10 %
3	4.5 – 4.9	4.45-4.95	8	20 %
4	5 – 5.4	4.95-5.45	9	22.5 %
5	5.5 – 5.9	5.45-5.95	10	25 %
6	6 – 6.4	5.95-6.45	6	15 %
7	6.5 – 6.9	6.45-6.95	2	5 %
	<i>Total</i>		40	100%

Figure 2: The histogram of the distribution of pre-test scores of the experimental group.



b. The Control Group

The data of the pre-test show that the highest score is 6.50, while the lowest score is 3.00, and the mean is 4.98. (The distribution of the data can be seen on table 2 and the histogram of frequency distribution can be seen in figure 3). The following is the how to get the frequency distribution of pre-test scores of the control group.

(1) Determining the range of the scores.

$$r = \text{the highest score} - \text{the lowest score}$$

Based on the formula above, the range of the scores is:

$$r = \text{the highest score} - \text{the lowest score}$$

$$= 6.5 - 3.0$$

$$r = 3.5$$

So, the range of the scores is 3.5

(2) Determining the number of class interval.

$$c = 1 + 3.3 \log n$$

Where:

c = the number of class interval

n = the number of sample

Based on the formula above, the value of c is:

$$\begin{aligned} c &= 1 + 3.3 \log n \\ &= 1 + 3.3 \log 40 \\ &= 1 + (3.3 \times 1.602) \\ &= 1 + 5.29 \end{aligned}$$

$$c = 6.3$$

So, the number of class interval is 6.3

(3) Determining interval.

$$i = \frac{r}{c}$$

Where:

i = the interval

r = range of the scores

c = number of class interval

Based on the formula above, the value of i is:

$$\begin{aligned} i &= \frac{r}{c} \\ &= \frac{3.5}{6.3} \end{aligned}$$

$$= 0.55$$

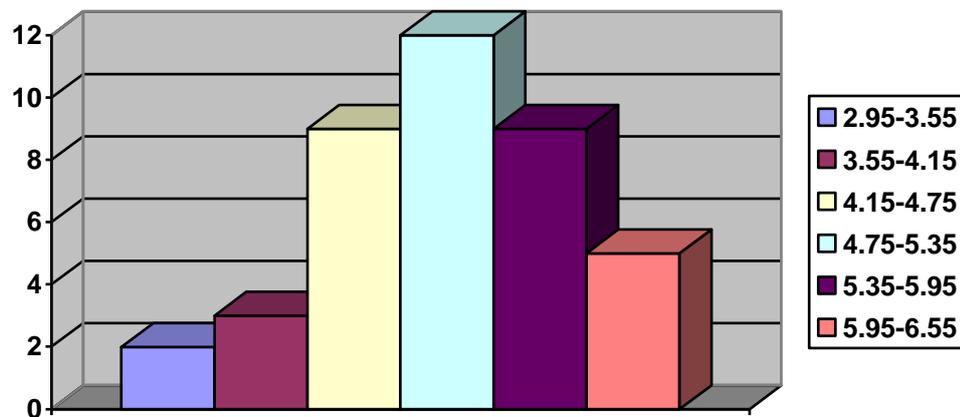
$$i = 0.6$$

So, the range interval is 0.55. Then it is rounded up into 0.6.

Table 2: The frequency of distribution of pre-test scores of the control group

<i>No.</i>	<i>Class of interval</i>	<i>Class Boundaries</i>	<i>Absolute Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
1	3.0 – 3.5	2.95-3.55	2	5 %
2	3.6 – 4.1	3.55-4.15	3	7.5 %
3	4.2 – 4.7	4.15-4.75	9	22.5 %
4	4.8 – 5.3	4.75-5.35	12	30 %
5	5.4 – 5.9	5.35-5.95	9	22.5 %
6	6.0 – 6.5	5.95-6.55	5	12.5 %
	Total		40	100%

Figure 3: The histogram of the distribution of pre-test scores of the control group.



2. Post-test Scores

a. The Experimental Group

The data of the post-test shows that the highest score is 7.50, while the lowest score is 4.50, and the mean is 6.05. (The distribution of the data can be seen on table 3 and the histogram of frequency distribution can be seen in figure 4). The following is how to get the frequency distribution of post-test scores of the experimental group.

(1) Determining the range of the scores.

$$r = \text{the highest score} - \text{the lowest score}$$

Based on the formula above, the range of the scores is:

$$r = \text{the highest score} - \text{the lowest score}$$

$$= 7.5 - 4.5$$

$$r = 3$$

So, the range of the scores is 3.

(2) Determining the number of class interval

$$c = 1 + 3.3 \log n$$

Where:

c = the number of class interval

n = the number of sample

Based on the formula above, the value of c is:

$$c = 1 + 3.3 \log n \ 40$$

$$= 1 + 3.3 \log 40$$

$$= 1 + (3.3 \times 1.602)$$

$$= 1 + 5.29$$

$$c = 6.3$$

So, the number of class interval is 6.3.

(3) Determining interval

$$i = \frac{r}{c}$$

Where:

i = the interval

r = range of the scores

c = number of class interval

Based on the formula above, the value of i is:

$$i = \frac{r}{c}$$

$$= \frac{3}{6.3}$$

$$= 0,47$$

$$i = 0.5$$

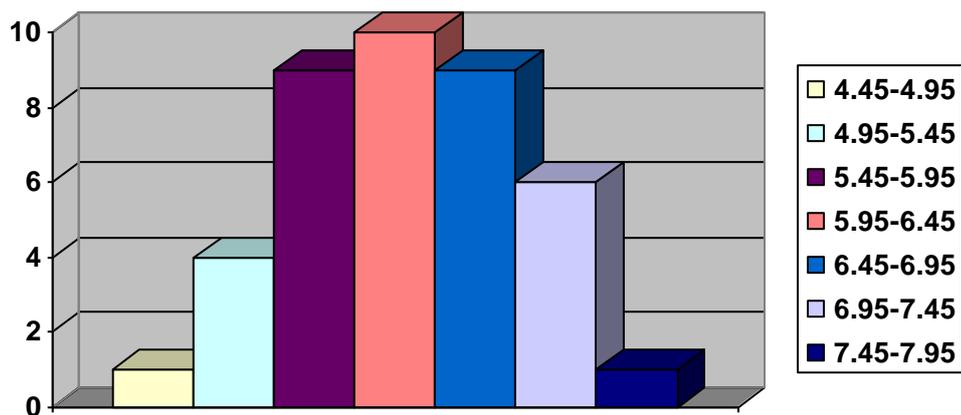
So, the range interval is 0.47. Then it is rounded up into 0.5.

Table 3: The frequency of distribution of post-test scores of the experimental group

<i>No.</i>	<i>Class of interval</i>	<i>Class Boundaries</i>	<i>Absolute Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
1	4.5 – 4.9	4.45-4.95	1	2.5 %
2	5 – 5.4	4.95-5.45	4	10 %

3	5.5 – 5.9	5.45-5.95	9	22.5 %
4	6 – 6.4	5.95-6.45	10	25 %
5	6.5 – 6.9	6.45-6.95	9	22.5 %
6	7 – 7.4	6.95-7.45	6	15 %
7	7.5 – 7.9	7.45-7.95	1	2.5 %
	Total		40	100%

Figure 4: The histogram of the distribution of post-test scores of the experimental group.



b. The Control Group

The data of the post-test show that the highest score is 7.00, while the lowest score is 3.50, and the mean is 5.48. (The distribution of the data can be seen on table 4 and the histogram of frequency of distribution can be seen in figure 5). The following is how to get the frequency of distribution of post-test scores of the control group.

(1) Determining the range of the scores.

$r = \text{the highest score} - \text{the lowest score}$

Based on the formula above, the range of the scores is:

$$\begin{aligned} r &= \text{the highest score} - \text{the lowest score} \\ &= 7 - 3.5 \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbf{r = 3.5}$$

So, the range of the scores is 3.5

(2) Determining the number of class interval.

$c = 1 + 3.3 \log n$

Where:

c = the number of class interval

n = the number of sample

Based on the formula above, the value of c is:

$$\begin{aligned} c &= 1 + 3.3 \log n \\ &= 1 + 3.3 \log 40 \\ &= 1 + (3.3 \times 1.602) \\ &= 1 + 5.29 \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbf{c = 6.3}$$

So, the number of class interval is 6.3

(3) Determining interval.

$$\mathbf{i = \frac{r}{c}}$$

Where:

i = the interval

r = range of the scores

c = number of class interval

Based on the formula above, the value of i is:

$$i = \frac{r}{c}$$

$$= \frac{3.5}{6.3}$$

$$= 0.55$$

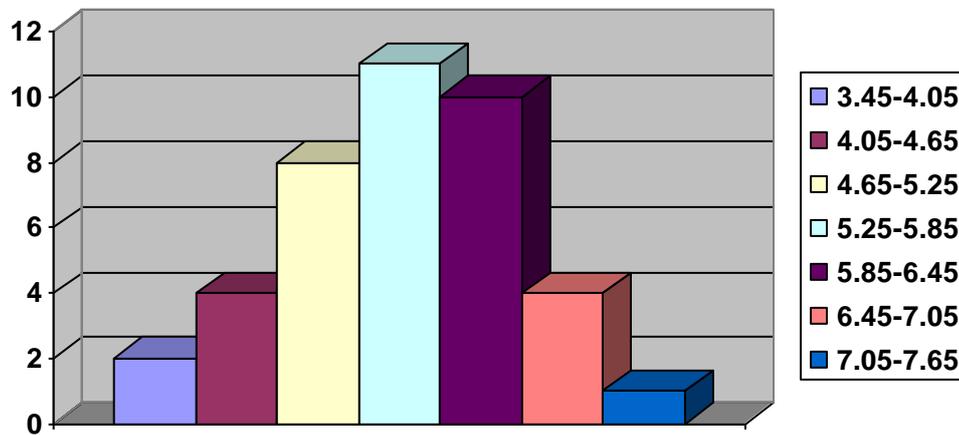
$$i = 0.6$$

So, the range interval is 0.55. Then it is rounded up into 0.6.

Table 4: The frequency of distribution of post-test scores of the control group

<i>No.</i>	<i>Class of interval</i>	<i>Class Boundaries</i>	<i>Absolute Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
1	3.5 – 4.0	3.45-4.05	2	5 %
2	4.1 - 4.6	4.05-4.65	4	10 %
3	4.7 – 5.2	4.65-5.25	8	10 %
4	5.3 – 5.8	5.25-5.85	11	20 %
5	5.9– 6.4	5.85-6.45	10	40 %
6	6.5 – 7.0	6.45-7.05	4	10 %
7	7.1 – 7.6	7.05-7.65	1	5 %
	Total		40	100%

Figure 5: The histogram of the distribution of post-test scores of the control group.



B. Prerequisite Testing

As the requirement of t-test, the data of this research need to be tested for the normality and the homogeneity. The normality testing used in this research is *Lilifors testing* at the level of significance of 0.05 ($\alpha = 0.05$), while the homogeneity testing used is *Bartlet formula* at the level of significance of 0.05 ($\alpha = 0.05$). The following data are the result of normality and homogeneity tests of pre-test and post-test scores.

1. Pre-test Scores

a. The Result of Normality Test

The result of computation of normality test can be seen in appendix 7.

To make it clearer the summary is presented on table 5.

Table 5: The result of normality test for experimental and control groups.

No.	Teaching media	Number of Sample	df	L. Value		Conclusion
				Lo	Lt	
1	video	40	39	0.1269	0.1401	Normal
2	audio	40	39	0.1380	0.1401	Normal

From the table above, it can be seen that the data of both experimental group and control group are in normal distribution. In the data of the experimental group, it can be seen that Lo is 0.1269. It is then consulted with L table for $n = 40$ at the level of significance of 0.05 ($\alpha = 0.05$) = 0.1401. Because the value of Lo is lower than L table ($Lo < Lt$), it can be concluded that the data of the experimental group are in normal distribution.

Meanwhile, the data of the control group shows that Lo is 0.1380 and the L table for $n = 40$ at the level of significance 0.05 ($\alpha = 0.05$) = 0.1401. Because the value of Lo is lower than L table ($Lo < Lt$), it can be concluded that the data of the control group are also in normal distribution.

b. The Result of Homogeneity Test

From the computation of homogeneity test in appendix 8, it can be seen that $\chi^2 = 0.011$ is less than $\chi^2_{t(2;0.05)} = 5.991$ or $\chi_o^2 < \chi_t^2$. Because χ_o^2 is lower than χ_t^2 , it can be concluded that the data are homogeneous.

2. Post-test Scores

a. The Result of Normality Test

The result of computation of normality test can be seen in appendix 11.

To make it clearer the summary is presented on table 6.

Table 6: The result of normality test for experimental and control groups.

No.	Teaching media	Number of Sample	df	L. Value		Conclusion
				Lo	Lt	
1	video	40	39	0.1352	0.1401	Normal
2	audio	40	39	0.1370	0.1401	Normal

The table above shows that the data of both experimental group and control group are in normal distribution. The data of the experimental group show that Lo is 0.1352. It is then consulted with L table for $n = 40$ at the level of significance 0.05 ($\alpha = 0.05$) = 0.1401. Because the value of Lo is lower than L table ($Lo < Lt$), it can be concluded that the data of the experimental group are in normal distribution.

Meanwhile, from the data of the control group, it can be seen that Lo is 0.1370 and the L table for $n = 40$ at the level of significance of 0.05 ($\alpha = 0.05$) = 0.1401. Because the value of Lo is lower than L table ($Lo < Lt$), it can be concluded that the data of the control group are also in normal distribution.

b. The Result of Homogeneity Test

From the computation of homogeneity test of pre-test in appendix 12, it can be seen that $\chi^2 = 0.027$ is lower than $\chi^2_{t(2;0.05)} = 5.991$ or $\chi_o^2 < \chi_t^2$. Because χ_o^2 is lower than χ_t^2 , it can be concluded that the data are homogeneous.

C. Matching Test

Before conducting the experiment, it is quite necessary to know the equality of students' listening ability on oral narrative text of the two groups, the experimental group and control group. If the students' listening ability of the two groups is different, the result of the experiment will be influenced. To anticipate this problem, the writer analyzes pre-test scores of the two groups by using *t-test* to know the equality of their listening ability.

From the t-test of computation of the pre-test scores of the experimental and the control groups (see appendix 9), it can be seen that $t_0=0.617$ is smaller than $t_t(78,0.05)=1.980$ or $t_0 < t_t$ so that H_0 is accepted. It means that there is no significant difference in listening ability between the two groups, the experimental group and the control group.

D. The Hypothesis Testing

The researcher's hypothesis in chapter II is formulated as follows. First, there is a significant difference in listening achievement between the students taught by using video and those taught without using video. Second, the students

taught by using video has a better achievement in listening than those taught without using video.

1. First Hypothesis

To test whether the first hypothesis is accepted or not, the writer uses *t-test* formula to analyze the data. The data which are analyzed in this research are pre-test and post-test scores of the two groups, experimental group and control group. The following is the procedures to apply t-test.

- a. Determining the degree of freedom.

$$\begin{aligned} df &= n_1 + n_2 - 2 \\ &= 40 + 40 - 2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbf{df = 78}$$

The $t_{\text{table}} (t_t)$ with level of significance of 0.05 is 1.98 or $t_t(78,0.05)=$ 1.98

- b. Applying the t- test

In applying the t-test formula, the researcher tested the null hypothesis (H_0) of this research that is there is no significant difference in listening achievement between students taught by using video and those taught without using video. Statistically, the hypothesis can be formulated as H_0 (Null Hypothesis) : $\mu_1 = \mu_2$.

The formula above means that the mean of the scores of the students taught by using video is not significantly different from the mean of the scores of those taught without using video. While the alternative hypothesis (H_a) of this research is that there is a significant difference in

listening achievement between students taught by using video and those taught without using video. Statistically, the hypothesis can be formulated as H_a (Alternative Hypothesis) : $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$.

The formula above means that the mean of the scores of the students taught by using video is significantly higher than the mean of the scores of those taught without using video. Moreover, it is known that if t_o (t-observation) is smaller than t_t (t_{table}), H_0 is accepted. On the contrary, if t_o (t- observation) is higher than t_t (t_{table}), H_0 is rejected.

The result of t computation shows that t- observation (t_o) is 4.99 while t-table (t_t) for the degree of freedom of 78 and at the level of significance of 0.05 is 1.98. It can be seen that $t_o=4.99$ is higher than $t_t(78,0.05)= 1.98$ or $t_o > t_t$, which means that Alternative Hypothesis (H_a) is accepted while Null Hypothesis (H_0) is rejected. Thus, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in listening achievement between students taught by using video and those taught without using video. The computation of t-test can be seen in appendix 13.

2. Second Hypothesis

The second hypothesis of this research is that the group taught by using video has a better achievement in listening than those taught without using video. In this case, to test the second hypothesis, the writer needs to compare the post-test mean scores of the two groups. The mean of the scores of the experimental group is 6.05, while the mean of the scores of control group is 5.48. The mean

difference between them is 0.57. It can be concluded that the group taught by using video has a better achievement in listening than the group taught without using video.

E. The Discussion of Research Finding

The computation of the t-test shows that $t_0=4.99$ is higher than $t_{(78,0.05)}=1.98$. The null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected. It means that there is a significant difference in listening achievement between the students taught by using video and those taught without using video.

Moreover, the students taught using video has a better achievement in listening than those taught without using video. The mean of scores of the experimental group is 6.05, while the mean of the scores of control group is 5.48. The mean difference between them is 0.57. It means that the mean of scores of the experimental group is higher than the mean of scores of the control group. In other words, students taught by using video (the experimental group) has a better achievement in listening than those taught without using video (the control group).

Furthermore, the result of analysis can be clarified by the following reasons. It has been explained in chapter II that oral narrative text is categorized as monologue text. In listening to oral narrative text, the listeners must process long stretches of speech without interruption- the stream of speech will go on whether or not the listeners comprehends. The listeners cannot refer back to the text when they are listening to monologue texts. In narratives, there are also dialogues involving two or more speakers that can be subdivided into exchanges that

promote social relationship (interpersonal) and exchanges for which the purpose is to convey propositional or factual information (transactional). Besides, narratives sequence people/characters in time and place. Narratives set up one or more problems, which must eventually find a way to be resolved. In this case, in order to understand the whole message of oral narrative text, listeners need to listen intensively (focusing on components such as phonemes, words, intonation, discourse markers, etc.), selectively (to find important information in a field of potentially distracting information) and also extensively (to develop a top-down, global understanding of spoken language). Listeners need to activate both bottom up processing skills and top down processing skills. They also need to be active in processing interpretation in which listeners match what they hear with what they already know (background knowledge). If they fail in doing these, they will not understand the text well.

Based on explanation above, in order to facilitate the listeners to comprehend oral narrative texts, teacher may use teaching media such as video. Visual information in video is important in teaching and learning process especially in teaching second-language listening. Rubin in Buck (2001: 46-47) says that visual support can aid language learners, especially less proficient learners, and is particularly helpful with more difficult texts. Moreover, video as a medium that combines both audio and visual supports is a perfect medium for students who are auditory or visual learners. Lever-Duffy (2003: 273) describes the strength of using audio visual support in learning as follows.

Adding the appropriate audio and visual components can engage more learners' sense and help to build multiple cognitive connections to the

content presented. And because learning styles vary, the addition of audio and images can make learning easier for many students by addressing their auditory or visual strength.

Moreover, Buck (2001: 172) states that with video it is easy to see who is speaking, the setting of places or situations, and gestures. In this case, visual information such as settings, actions, emotions, and gestures can help the learners to understand the whole message of oral narrative text. Besides, visual information in video also provides listeners with focus for their attention as they are listening. Thus, by listening to the auditory stimulus and paying attention to the visual stimulus, students will be able to catch the meaning of spoken narrative text better.

The explanation above recommends the result of this research that there is a significant difference in listening achievement between the students taught by using video and those taught without using video. In other words, teaching listening of oral narrative text by using video is more effective than teaching listening of oral narrative text without using video.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION, IMPLICATION, AND SUGGESTION

A. CONCLUSION

After analyzing the data, the writer gets the result of the analysis. The result is that t_o is 4.99 whereas t-value with $\alpha = 0.05$ or $t_t(78,0.05)$ is 1.98 It can be seen that t_o is higher than t_t or ($t_o > t_t$). It means that there is a significant difference in listening achievement between the students of the eighth grade of SMP N 1 Sawit, Boyolali of the academic year 2009/2010 taught by using video and those taught without using video.

Another result of the data analysis is that the mean score difference of post-test of both groups, the experimental group and the control group, shows that the mean of scores of the experimental group (class taught by using video) is higher than the mean of scores of the control group (class taught without using video). The mean of scores of the experimental group is 6.05, while the mean of scores of control group is 5.48. The mean difference between them is 0.57. In other words, the mean of scores of the experimental group is higher that the mean of scores of the control group. Thus, it proves that video is effective to be applied in teaching listening of oral narrative text.

B. IMPLICATION

The use of teaching media, video, in teaching listening of oral narrative text brings a significant difference in students' listening achievement. The result

of the research shows that students taught by using video has a better achievement in listening than those taught without using video. The use of video as a teaching medium in teaching listening of oral narrative text can facilitate students in listening to oral narrative text. Visual information such as settings, actions, emotions, and gestures can help the listener to catch the whole message of the story. Visual information also provides listeners with focus for their attention as they are listening. In this case, by listening to the auditory stimulus and paying attention to the visual stimulus, students will be able to catch the meaning of spoken narrative text better.

Based on the explanation above, it is reasonable and logical if teachers use video in teaching listening of oral narrative text in order to facilitate students in listening to oral narrative text.

C. SUGGESTION

Related to the conclusion of the study that there is a significant difference in listening achievement between the students taught by using video and those taught without using video and that the students taught by using video have higher achievement in listening to oral narrative text, especially for the eighth grade students of Junior High School, the writer would like to propose suggestions as follows.

1. English Teachers

Teaching listening of oral narrative text is not easy. Teachers have several responsibilities in helping their students to become proficient in listening. Some of teacher's responsibilities are understanding the role of listening in language learning in order to utilize listening in ways that facilitate learning, understanding the complex interactive nature of the listening process and the different kind of listening that learners must do in order to provide students with appropriate variety and range of listening experiences, and understanding how listening skills typically develop and being able to assess the stage of listening at which their students are, so that each student can engage in the most beneficial types of listening activities given based on his or her level of proficiency. Moreover, teachers must be careful in setting appropriate goals for different levels of proficiency; choosing listening materials and teaching media; incorporating support materials and combining listening with other skills. Dealing with choosing teaching media used in teaching listening, teachers should use teaching media that can develop student's listening skill and facilitate them to comprehend oral narrative text.

The result of this research shows that video is effective to be applied in teaching listening of oral narrative text. In this case, teachers could use video in teaching listening of oral narrative text since video gives positive effects in facilitating students to listen to oral narrative text so that students can comprehend oral narrative text better.

2. Other Researchers

The writer understands that her research is not the only topic that is studied. The result of the study merely confirms the hypothesis, but it does not prove that something is absolutely true at all time. Thus, the research needs considerable improvement of thought for further research studies.

The writer hopes that the finding of this study will be employed as a starting point of the future research studies on similar topics. There are also still many other teaching media that could be studied for the effectiveness of those teaching media so that they can be applied in teaching listening of oral listening text in order facilitate students to comprehend oral narrative text and develop their listening skill.

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