

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

This chapter presents the review of some theories about the nature of speaking, learning strategy, and good language learner.

#### **A. The Nature of Speaking**

##### **1. Speaking skill**

In language learning, there are four skills students must master: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Scott Thornbury in Harmer (2007:123) calls speaking-as-skills, where there is a task to complete and speaking is the way to complete it.

While learning strategies deal with the receptive domain of intake, memory, storage, and recall, speaking as the way to communicate, it pertains to the employment of verbal or nonverbal mechanisms for the productive communication of information. And perhaps speaking is the most demanding skill for the teacher to teach (Wendy&Lisbeth, 1990:33).

In Indonesia, English considered to be a foreign language, that it is most learned in the school. To learn another language as a child learns his native language (L1) will differ from one based on the assumption that learning a foreign language is not the same as learning a mother tongue (Bambang, 2006:20). An aspect of speaking that is particularly relevant for second language speakers concerns whether or not the speaking is planned or spontaneous. It is assumed that

all conversations are spontaneous, and so they are to a degree. However, in the case of second language learners, the provision of planning time can significantly increase levels of both fluency and accuracy (Nunan, 1999:227).

## 2. Communicative Competence

Communication is the goal of language teaching. People usually learn English because of some reasons. In some way, they want to be able to communicate in English. When it is not the case as with students following compulsory courses, we look for some kinds of communicative goals.

To be able to speak in English, one need to know how to articulate sounds in a comprehensible manner, have adequate vocabularies, and have mastery in syntax. These various elements add up to linguistic competence. However, while linguistic competence is necessary, it is not enough for someone who wants to communicate competently in another language. “Communicative competence includes linguistic competence, but also includes a range of other sociolinguistic and conversational skills that enable the speaker to know how to say what to whom, when” (Nunan, 1999:226).

Troike (2007:25) states that Communicative competence, practically, involves knowing not only the language code, but also what to say, to whom, and how to say it appropriately in any given situation. It deals with the social and cultural knowledge of the speakers to enable them to use and interpret linguistic forms. Social and cultural knowledge are important in conducting communication toward others. For example, a person who uses a taboo expression in public and

causes embarrassment is said not to “know better”, i.e. not have acquired certain rules for social conduct in the use of language.

Communicative competence involves the uses of language and other communicative dimensions (appropriate non-verbal behaviors, give commands, etc) in particular social settings. Communicative competence also involves the components of communication such as linguistic knowledge (verbal elements, non-verbal elements, meaning of variants in particular situations), interaction skills (perception of salient features in communicative situations, selections and interpretation of forms appropriate to specific situation roles), cultural knowledge (social structure, values and attitude). By here, for having a good speaking or communication, the communicative competence is needed.

### 3. Factors influencing speaking

There are two factors that influence speaking. They are the reluctant speaker and a case of motivation. Below is the explanation.

#### a. The reluctant speaker

In recent informal survey, reluctance to speak on the part of the students was seen as their biggest challenge. Burns and Joice in Nunan (1999:231) identify three sets of factors that may cause reluctance on the part of the students to take part in classroom tasks involving speaking. They explain that this reluctance may be due to cultural factors, linguistics factors, and/or psychological/ affective factors. Cultural factors come from learners' prior learning experiences and the expectations created by experiences. The possible mismatches can occur between teachers and learners from different cultural backgrounds. If learners

come into a classroom believing that learning a language involves listening to the teacher or the tape, and doing written exercises, then they will be reluctant to become actively involved in speaking. It will be necessary to engage in a certain amount of earner training to encourage them to participate in speaking.

b. Motivation

Motivation is a key consideration in determining the preparedness of learners to communicate. According to Nunan (1999:233):

Motivation refers to the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language. That is, motivation to learn a second language is seen as referring to the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity.

Effort itself does not signify motivation. The motivated individual expends effort toward the goal, but the individual expending effort is not necessarily motivated. Many things of the individual such as compulsiveness, desire to please a teacher or parent, or a high need to achieve might produce effort, as like social pressures, such as a demanding teacher, or the promise of a new bicycle.

Even, Richards in his book (2002: 183) stated “learners with high motivation will do better”. Elis (1997: 75) argued that motivation involves attitudes and affective states that influence the degree of effort that learners make to learn an L2. She defined motivation into four; instrumental (learners may make effort to learn an L2 for some functional reason-to pass an examination, to get a better job, or to get a place at university), integrative (they are interested in the people and culture represented by the target language

group), resultative (learners who experience the success in learning may become more or in some contexts less motivated to learn) and intrinsic (whether the learners hold distinct attitude, positive or negative, toward the target language group).

Gardner in Nunan (1999: 233) stated some reasons why the learners are unmotivated;

- 1) lack of success over time/ lack of perception of progress
- 2) uninspired teaching
- 3) boredom
- 4) lack of perceived relevance of materials given
- 5) lack of knowledge about the goals of instructional program
- 6) lack of appropriate feedback.

## **B. Learning Strategy**

Based on Oxford (2000:427) strategy is “plan intended to achieve a particular purpose”. Nunan (1999:171) defined strategies as “the mental and communicative procedures learners use in order to learn and use language”. Underlying every learning task is at least one strategy. However, in most classrooms, learners are unaware of the strategies underlying the tasks in which they are engaged. He also argued that knowledge of strategies is necessary, because the greater awareness learners have of what they are doing, if they are conscious of the processes underlying the learning that they are involved in, then learning will be more effective.

There is also another category stated by Brown (2000: 113) that strategies are specific method of approaching a problem or task, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information. They are like “battle plans” that might vary from moment to moment, or day to day, or year to year. So, in other words strategies are the mental and communicative procedures learners used in learning to gain particular purposes. Strategies vary intraindividually; each of us has a number of possible ways to solve a particular problem, and we choose – one - or several in sequence - for a given problem.

Nunan (1999:172) stated that we looked at research that shows that learners who are taught the strategies underlying their learning are more highly motivated than those who are not. Research has also shown that not all learners automatically know which strategies work best for them. For this reason, explicit strategy training with thinking about how one goes about learning, and experimenting with different strategies, can lead to more effective learning.

Oxford (1990) in Nunan (1999:172) argued that one of the leading teachers and researchers in the language learning strategies field argues that strategies are important for two reasons. In the first place, strategies are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence. Secondly, learners who have developed appropriate learning strategies have greater self-confidence and learn more effectively. In her introduction to the field, she identifies twelve key features of strategies.

According to Oxford, language learning strategies:

1. Contribute to the main goal, communicative competence
2. Allow learners to become more self-directed
3. Expand the role of teacher
4. Are problem-oriented
5. Are specific actions taken by the learner
6. Involve many actions taken by the learner, not just the cognitive
7. Support learning both directly and indirectly
8. Are not always observable
9. Are often conscious
10. Can be taught
11. Are flexible
12. Are influenced by a variety of factors

Oxford draws a distinction between direct strategies and indirect strategies. Direct strategies include such things as memorizing, analyzing, and guessing intelligently. As the name suggests, these are specific procedures that learners can use to internalize the language. Indirect strategies, on the other hand, include things such as evaluating one's learning (taking steps to power one's anxiety), and cooperating with others. Strategies can be introduced into the classroom and should be integrated into the ongoing process of the language lesson.

Edge (1999:21) stated three ways thinking about strategies for the language learner:

- 1) Social strategies e.g. go to places where English is used.
- 2) Communication strategies e.g. practice the phrases for getting into a discussion.
- 3) Learning strategies e.g. when we meet a new word in foreign language, we ask ourselves what word it sounds like in our own language, then we make a mental picture of the two meanings together.

The idea of teaching strategies in ELT is connected to the idea that students can improve their learning if they are more aware of what they are doing, how they are doing it, and what choices are available to them. Conscious learning will improve because of their new focus on how to learn. Subconscious learning will improve because of their extra involvement in what is going on. If students act with awareness, their chances of conscious and subconscious learning increase in all areas. The teaching of strategies and increased awareness is also connected to the idea of helping learners achieve independence.

Ellis (1997:60) stated that to communicate in an L2 knows, learners frequently experience problems in saying what they want to say because of their inadequate knowledge. In order to over-come these problems they resort to various kinds of communication strategies. For example, they may avoid problematic items such as the verb 'make' by substituting an item like 'ask' (which is regular in that it takes to + infinitive and is therefore easier to use correctly). If learners do not know a word in the target language they may 'borrow' a word from



their L1 or use another target-language word that is approximate in meaning (for example, 'worm' for 'silkworm'), or try to paraphrase the meaning of the word, or even construct an entirely new word (for example, 'picture place' for 'art gallery'). These strategies, with the obvious exception of those that are LI based, are also found in the language use of native speakers.

There have been many attempts to construct psycholinguistic models for the use of communication strategies. Communication strategies are seen as part of the planning phase. They are called upon when learners experience such kind of problem with an initial plan which prevents them from executing it. They can either abandon the initial plan and develop an entirely different one by means of a reduction strategy (such as switching to a different topic) or try to maintain their original communicative goal by adopting some kind of achievement strategy (such as LI borrowing).

As Selinker (1994) in Ellis (1997:61) has pointed out:

Communication strategies constitute one of the processes responsible for learner errors. We might expect, therefore, that the choice of communication strategies will reflect the learners' stage of development. For example, learners might be expected to switch from LI-based strategies to L2 based strategies as their knowledge of the L2 develops.

Ellis (1997:76) explained that learning strategies are the particular approaches or techniques that learners employ to try to learn an L2. They can be behavioral (for example, repeating new words aloud to help you remember them) or they can be mental (for example, using the linguistic or situational context to infer the meaning of a new word). They are typically problem-oriented. That is, learners employ learning strategies when they are faced with some problem, such

as how to remember a new word. Learners are generally aware of the strategies they use and, when asked, can explain what they did to try to learn something.

Different kinds of learning strategies have been found. Cognitive strategies are those that are involved in the analysis, synthesis, or transformation of learning materials. An example is 'recombination', which involves constructing a meaningful sentence by recombining known elements of the L2 in a new way. Metacognitive strategies are those involved in planning, monitoring, and evaluating learning. An example is 'selective attention', where the learner makes a conscious decision to attend to particular aspects of the input. Social/affective strategies concern the ways in which learners choose to interact with other speakers. An example is 'questioning for clarification' (i.e. asking for repetition, a paraphrase, or an example).

A question concerns how these learning strategies relate to the general kinds of psycholinguistic processes. What strategies involved in noticing or noticing the gap are. Unfortunately, however, no attempt has been made yet to incorporate the various learning strategies that have been identified into a model of psycholinguistic processing. The approach to date has been simply to describe strategies and quantify their use.

The study of learning strategies is of potential value to language teachers. If those strategies that are crucial for learning can be identified, it may prove possible to train students to use them. This idea should be examined in the broader context of a discussion of the role of instruction in L2 acquisition.

A group of collaborators in Toronto that undertake a study of good language learning in Brown (2000: 125) result:

1. Learning strategies

- a. Cognitive strategies

- 1) Deduction

Consciously applying rules to produce or understand the second language

- 2) Recombination

Constructing a meaningful sentence or larger language sequence by combining known elements in a new way

- 3) Imagery

Relating new information to visual concepts in memory via familiar, easily retrievable visualizations, phrases, or locations

- 4) Auditory Representation

Retention of the sound or a similar sound for a word, phrase, or longer language sequence

- 5) Keyword

Remembering a new word in the second language by:

- a) Identifying a familiar word in the first language that sounds like or otherwise resembles the new word and

- b) Generating easily recalled images of some relationship between the new word and the familiar word

- 6) Contextualization

Placing a word or phrase in a meaningful language sequence

### 7) Elaboration

Relating new information to other concepts in memory

### 8) Transfer

Using previously acquired linguistic and/or conceptual knowledge to facilitate a new language learning task

### 9) Inferencing

Available information to guess meanings of new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information

### b. Socioaffective strategies

#### 1) Cooperation

Working with one or more peers to obtain feedback, pool information, or model a language activity

#### 2) Questions for clarifications

Asking a teacher or other native speaker for repetition, paraphrasing, explanation, and/or examples

O'malley (1987) in Nunan (1999: 55) studied the effect of different types of strategy training (metacognitive, cognitive and socioaffective) on different language skills, and found that the training had a significant effect on speaking, but not listening.

O'Malley and Charnot (1990: 138) proposed a more detailed schema based on three major categories: cognitive, metacognitive, and social and affective strategies.

Cognitive strategies are operations carried out directly on the material to be learned. It refers to process and behavior which learners use to help them improve their ability to learn or remember something, particularly those which learners use with specific classroom task and activities. For example, cognitive strategies which learners may use to assist them in listening or reading comprehension activities include: repeating key words or phrases silently or aloud, summarizing to make sure the important information will be remembered, creating visual images to help them remember new information.

While metacognitive strategies make use of knowledge of cognitive processes to regulate the learning process. The strategies involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring the learning task, and evaluating how well one has learned. Metacognitive strategies describe mental operations used by learners in the self-management of their learning.

According to O'Malley and Charnot (1990: 138) The metacognitive strategies are organized into seven major groups as follows:

1. Planning: Previewing the organizing concept or principle of an anticipated learning task, proposing strategies for handling an upcoming task, generating a plan for the parts, sequence, main ideas, or language functions to be used in handling a task.
2. Direct intention: Deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distractors, maintaining attention during task execution.

3. Selective attention : Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of language input or situational details that assist in performance of a task, attending to specific aspects of language input during that execution
4. Self-management : Understanding the conditions that help one successfully accomplish language task and arranging for the presence of those conditions, controlling one's language maximize use of what is already known.
5. Self-monitoring : Checking, verifying or correcting one's comprehension or performance in the course of language task.
6. Problem-identification : explicitly identifying needing resolution in a task or identifying an aspect of the task that hinders its successful completion.
7. Self-evaluation : Checking the outcomes of one's own language performance against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy, checking one's language repertoire, strategy use, or ability to perform hand.

Social and affective strategies involve the ways in which learners interact with others and control themselves in order to enhance their learning. Social strategies represent actions taken in relation to self. Social and affective strategies also related to the learner's attitudes toward language as an object of learning.

Oxford (1990: 21) lists the following strategies:

1. Social strategies:
  - a. Asking questions: 1) Asking for clarifications or verification, 2) Asking for correction.
  - b. Cooperating with others: 1) Cooperating with peers, 2) Cooperating with proficient of the new language.

- c. Empathizing with others: 1) Developing cultural understanding, 2) Becoming aware of other's thought and feeling.
- 2. Affective strategies :
  - a. Lowering your anxiety: 1) Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing or meditation, 2) Using music, 3) Using laughter.
  - b. Encouraging yourself: 1) Making positive statements, 2) Taking risk wisely, 3) Rewarding yourself.
  - c. Taking your emotional temperature: 1) Listening to your body, 2) Using checklist, 3) Writing a language learning diary, 3) Discussing your feelings with someone else.

From the kinds of learning strategies have been stated, it implies that learning strategies are crucial toward students, and students should be aware of it. On the other hand, teacher as the mediator and motivator need to give the information and also teach the students about learning strategies underlying their students' learning process.

### **C. Good Language Learner**

Edge (1993: 9) gave description that all learners are the same. Outside class, they have a family, friends, work, study or play, responsibilities, a place to live, and all the joys and sorrows that come with those things. Into class, they bring with them their names, their knowledge, experience, intelligence, skills, emotions, imagination, awareness, creativity, sense of humor, problems, purposes, dreams, hopes. aspirations, fears, memories, interests, blind spots, prejudices, habits,

expectations, likes, dislikes, preferences, and everything else that goes with being a human being, including the ability to speak at least one language.

Above statements are the similarity of learners, but in many other things they are different. All learners are different. No two individuals have the same knowledge, or skills, or expectations, or any of the other things listed in the last paragraph. Learners are also influenced by their age and by their educational, social and cultural backgrounds, which they may or may not share with their fellow students and teacher. The differences are then clear.

Some learners are more successful than others. These characteristics are typical of good language learners, although no learner would have them all:

1. They have a positive attitude about the language they want to learn and about speakers of that language,
2. They have a strong personal motivation to learn the language.
3. They are confident that they will be successful learners,
4. They are prepared to risk making mistakes and they learn from the mistakes that they make.
5. They like to learn about the language
6. They organize their own practice of the language.
7. They find ways to say things that they do not know how to express correctly.
8. They get into situations where the language is being used and they use the language as often as they can,
9. They work directly in the language rather than translate from their first language.



10. They think about their strategies for learning and remembering and they consciously try out new strategies

Teachers try to teach all our students, but the successful ones are usually those who take on some responsibility for their own learning.

Elis (1997: 77) stated:

There have been various attempts to discover which strategies are important for L2 acquisition. One way is to investigate how 'good language learners' try to learn. This involves identifying learners who have been successful in learning an L2 and interviewing them to find out the strategies that worked for them.

One of the main findings of such studies is that successful language learners pay attention to both form and meaning. Good language learners are also very active (i.e. they use strategies for taking charge of their own learning), show awareness of the learning process and their own personal learning styles and, above all, are flexible and appropriate in their use of learning strategies. They seem to be especially adept at using metacognitive strategies.

Other studies have sought to relate learners' reported use of different strategies to their L2 proficiency to try to find out which strategies are important for language development.

Such studies have shown, not surprisingly, that successful learners use more strategies than unsuccessful learners. They have also shown that different strategies are related to different aspects of L2 learning.

Thus, strategies that involve formal practice (for example, rehearsing a new word) contribute to the development of linguistic competence whereas strategies involving functional practice (for example, seeking out native speakers to talk to)

aid the development of communicative skills. Successful learners may also call on different strategies at different stages of their development. However, there is the problem with how to interpret this research does strategy use result in learning or does learning increase learners' ability to employ more strategies. At the moment, it is not clear yet.

Jones, et al. (1987) in Nunan (1999:57) set out to determine whether there were differences between effective and ineffective learners in terms of their awareness of different types of strategy. They found that effective learners are aware of the processes underlying their own learning and seek to use appropriate learning strategies to control their own learning. Nunan (1991: 57) also found that one of the characteristics of the “good” language learner was an ability to reflect on and articulate the processes underlying their own learning. O’malley and Charnot (1990) in Nunan (1999:57) found indication that more effective learners differed from less effective ones in their use of strategies. In particular, they found that students who were designated by their teachers as more effective learners use their strategies more frequently, and use a greater variety of strategies, than students who were designated as less effective.

In their study of the good language learners, Rubin and Thompson (1983) in Nunan (1999:57) suggest that good or efficient learners tend to exhibit specific characteristics, as they go about learning a second language. The characteristics of the good learners:

1. Find their own way
2. Organize information about language

3. Are creative and experiment with language
4. Make their own opportunities, and find strategies for getting practice in using the language inside and outside the classroom.
5. Learn to live with uncertainty and develop strategies for making sense of the target language without wanting to understand to every word.
6. Use mnemonics (rhyme, word associations, and so forth) to recall what has been learned.
7. Make errors work.
8. Use linguistic knowledge, including knowledge of their first language in learning a second language
9. Let the context (extralinguistic knowledge of the world) help them in comprehension.
10. Learn to make intelligent guesses
11. Learn chunks of language as wholes and formalized routines to help them perform “beyond their language”
12. Learn certain production techniques (e.g., techniques for keeping conversation going)
13. Learn different styles of speech and writing and learn to vary their language according to the formality of the situation

From the characteristics of the good language learners above, it implies that practice makes perfect and formal classroom instruction was insufficient for developing skill. Moreover for conversation, learners need to practice it inside and outside the classroom. In addition, the opportunities for activating

English outside class is more facilitate development and lead to achievement of communicative objective.