

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. Speaking

Speaking is significant to an individual's living processes and experience as are the ability of seeing and walking. Speaking is also the most natural way to communicate. Without speaking, people must remain in almost total isolation from any kind of society. For most people, the ability to speak a language is the same with knowing a language since the speech is the most basic means of human communication. When we speak, a great deal more than just mouth is involved such as nose, pharynx, epiglottis, trachea, lungs and more. But, speaking is not just making sound. Below the writer discusses about everything related to speaking itself.

2.1.1. The Understanding of Speaking

In the process of writing this paper, the writer has tried to find out the meaning of speaking as one of skills in English language. She has finally found several resources that explain speaking as follows.

According to Webster (1980) as quoted by Wijarwadi (2008), speaking has a variety of meanings:

- a. To tell, to say, to make known or as by speaking, to declare; to announce
- b. To proclaim; to celebrate
- c. To use or be able to use (a given language) in speaking
- d. To address

In addition, *Oxford Dictionary* states that "speaking is to make use of language in an ordinary, not singing, to state view, wishes etc or an act of spokesman"(Hornby:1987) as quoted by Wijarwadi (2008). Based on the previous definitions, it can be synthesized that speaking is the process of sharing with another person, or with other persons, one's knowledge, interests, attitudes, opinions or ideas. Delivery of ideas, opinions, or feelings is some important aspects of the process of speaking which a speaker's idea become real to him and his listeners.

2.1.2. The Elements of Speaking

Almost entire libraries have been written on speaking, however space provided here does not allow covering all the theories and notes in this work. Speaking, together with writing, belongs among productive skills.

Many language learners regard speaking ability as the measure of knowing a language. These learners define fluency as the ability to converse with others, much more than the ability to read, write, or comprehend oral language. They regard speaking as the most important skill they can acquire, and they assess their progress in terms of their accomplishments in spoken communication.

(Harmer, 2001) Gower *at al.* (1995, 99-100) note down that from the communicative point of view, speaking has many different aspects including two major categories :

- a. Accuracy, involving the correct use of vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation practised through controlled and guided activities.

- b. Fluency, considered to be ‘the ability to keep going when speaking spontaneously’. This is, however, rather a superficial view of this skill.

According to Burkart (1998) language learners need to recognize that speaking involves three areas of knowledge:

- a. Mechanics (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary): Using the right words the right order with the correct pronunciation
- b. Functions (transaction and interaction): Knowing when clarity of message is essential (transaction/information exchange) and when precise understanding is not required (interaction/relationship building)
- c. Social and cultural rules and norms (turn-taking, rate of speech, length of pauses between speakers, relative roles of participants): Understanding how to take into account who is speaking to whom, in what circumstances, about what, and for what reason.

2.1.3. The Functions of Speaking

Several language experts have attempted to categorize the functions of speaking in human interaction. According to Brown and Yule, as quoted by Jack C. Richards, .The functions of speaking are classified into three; they are talk as interaction, talk as transaction and talk as performance. Each of these speech activities is quite distinct in term of form and function and requires different teaching approaches. Below are the explanations of the functions of speaking:

- a. Talk as Interaction

Being able to interact in a language is essential. In fact, much of our daily communication remains interactional. This refers to what we normally mean by conversation. The primary intention in talk as interaction is to maintain social relationship.

Meanwhile, talk as interaction has several main features as follows:

- It has a primarily social function
- It reflects role relationships
- It reflects speaker's identity
- It may be formal or casual
- It uses conversational conventions
- It reflects degrees of politeness
- It employs many generic words
- It uses conversational register

Some of the skills (involved in using talk as interaction) are:

- opening and closing conversation
- choosing topics
- making small-talk
- recounting personal incidents and experiences
- turn-taking
- using adjacency pairs
- interrupting
- reacting to others

Mastering the art of talk as interaction is difficult and may not be a priority for all learners. In talk as interaction, the ability to speak in natural way is required in order to create a good communication. That is why some students sometimes avoid this kind of situation because they often lose for words and feel difficulty in presenting a good image of them selves. This can be a disadvantage for some learners where the ability to use talk as interaction can be important.

b. Talk as Transaction

This type of talk or speaking refers to situations where the focus is on what is said or done. The message is the central focus here and making oneself understood clearly and accurately, rather than the participants and how they interact socially with each other. In transaction, talk is associated with other activities. For example, student may be engaged in hand-on activities (e.g. in language lesson) to explore concept associated with tenses and derivations.

Anne Burns, as cited in Jack C. Richards, distinguishes talk as transaction into two different types. One is a situation where the focus is on giving and receiving information and where the participants focus primarily on what is said or achieved. Accuracy may not be a priority as long as information is successfully communicated or understood. The second type is transactions which focus on obtaining goods or services, such as checking into a hotel. In this type of spoken language, students and teachers usually focus on meaning or on talking their way to understanding.

Meanwhile, talk as transaction has several main features as follows:

- It has a primarily information focus

- The main focus is the message and not the participants
- Participants employ communication strategies to make them understood
- There may be frequent questions, repetitions, and comprehension checks
- There may be negotiation and digression
- Linguistic accuracy is not always important

Some of the skills involved in using talk for transactions are :

- explaining a need or intention
- describing something
- asking questioning
- confirming information
- justifying an opinion
- making suggestions
- clarifying understanding
- making comparisons

Compared with talk as interaction, talk as transaction is easier for some student because it only focuses on messages delivered to the others. Also, talk as interaction is more easily planned since current communicative materials are a rich resource of group activities, information-gap activities and role plays. It can provide a source for practicing how to use talk fro sharing and obtaining information as well as for carrying out the real-world transactions.

C. Talk as Performance

This refers to public talk or public speaking, that is, talk which transmits information before an audience such as morning talks, public announcements, and speeches. Talk as performance tends to be in the form of monolog rather than dialog. Often follows a recognizable format and is closer to written language than conversational language. Similarly it is often evaluated according to its effectiveness or impact on the listener, something which is unlikely to happen with talk as interaction or transaction. Examples of talk as performance are giving a class report about a school trip, conducting a class debate, making a sales presentation, and giving a lecture. The main features of talk as performance are:

- There is a focus on both message and audience
- It reflects organization and sequencing
- Form and accuracy is important
- Language is more like written language
- It is often monologic

Some of the skills involved in using talk as performance are:

- using an appropriate format
- presenting information in an appropriate sequence
- maintaining audience engagement
- using correct pronunciation and grammar
- creating an effect on the audience
- using appropriate vocabulary

- using appropriate opening and closing

It is clearly seen from the features and skill involved in using talk as performance that initially talk as performance needs to be prepared in much the same way as written text. Therefore, this kind of talk requires a different teaching strategy. This involves providing examples or models of speeches or oral presentation.

Therefore, question such as the following are needed in order to guide this process:

- What is the speaker purpose?
- Who is the audience?
- What kind of information does the audience expect
- Is any special language used?

2.1.4. The Kinds of Speaking Activities

To help students develop communicative efficiency in speaking, there are some activities are used in the classroom to promote the development of speaking skills in our learners. The discussions below centres on the major types of speaking activities that can be implemented as follows:

a) Discussion

Discussion is probably the most commonly used in the speaking skills classroom activity (Celce and Murcia:2001). It is a common fact that discussion really useful activity for the teacher in order to activate and involve student in classroom teaching. Typically, student are introduced to a topic via reading, listening passage, or a video tape and are then asked to get into pairs or groups to discuss a related topic in order to come up with a solution, a response, or the like. Normally,

people need time to assemble their thought before any discussion and that is something needs to consider.

b) Information gap/problem solving

One type of speaking activity involves the so-called .information gap.- where two speakers have different parts of information making up a whole. Because they have different information, there is a .gap. between them (Harmer:1990) in Wijarwadi (2008). In this activity, students are supposed to be working in pairs. One student will have the information that other partner does not have and the partners will share their information. Information gap activities serve many purposes such as solving a problem or collecting information.

c) Jigsaw

Jigsaw activities are more elaborate information gap activities that can be done with several partners. In a jigsaw activity, each partner has one or a few pieces of the "puzzle," and the partners must cooperate to fit all the pieces into a whole picture. The puzzle piece may take one of several forms. It may be one panel from a comic strip or one photo from a set that tells a story. It may be one sentence from a written narrative. It may be a tape recording of a conversation, in which case no two partners hear exactly the same conversation.

d) Speeches

Another common activity in the oral skills class is the prepared speech. Topics for speeches will vary depending on the level of the students and the focus of

the class, but in any case, students should be given some leeway in determining the content of their talks (Celce and Murcia:2001) .

e) Role plays

One way of getting student to speak in different social context and to assume varied social roles is to use role-play activities in the classroom. Role plays can be performed from prepared scripts, created from a set of prompt and expression or written using and consolidation knowledge gained from instruction or discussion of the speech act and its variations prior to the role plays themselves (ibid).

f) Conversations

One of the recent trends in oral skills pedagogy is the emphasis on having students analyze and evaluate the language that they or others produce. In other word, it is not adequate to have students produce lots of language; they must become more metalinguistically aware of many features of language in order to become competent speakers and interlocutors in English. One speaking activity which is particularly suited to this kind of analysis is conversation, the most fundamental form of oral communication.

Those activities are grouped in two categories of activities, they are :

a) Structured output activities

It is designed to make learners comfortable producing specific language items recently introduced, sometimes in combination with previously learned items.

Students complete a task by obtaining missing information, a feature the activities have in common with real communication. In this respect they are more like drills

than like communication. Structured output activities can form an effective bridge between instructor modeling and communicative output because they are partly authentic and partly artificial.

b) Communicative output activities

They are kinds of activities that give students opportunities to practice language use more freely. Communicative output activities allow students to practice using all of the language they know in situations that resemble real settings. In these activities, students must work together to develop a plan, resolve a problem, or complete a task. The criterion of success is whether the learner gets the message across. Accuracy is not a consideration unless the lack of it interferes with the message.

2.1.5. Factor Affecting Student Speaking Ability

According to Jack C. Richards and Willy A. Reynanda as quoted by Wijarwadi (2008), there are four factors that affect student oral communication ability that are age or maturational constraints, aural medium, socio-cultural factors and affective factors. Below are the explanations of the four factors that affect student speaking skill:

a) Age or Maturational Constraints

Age is one of the most commonly cited determinant factors of success or failure in foreign language learning. Several experts such as Krashen and Scarcella in Wijarwadi (2008) argue that acquires who begin learning a second language in early childhood through natural exposure achieves higher proficiency than those beginning

as adults. Many adults fail to reach native-like proficiency in a second language. Their progress seems to level off at certain stage. This fact shows that the aging process itself may affect or limit adult learner's ability to pronounce the target language fluently with native-like pronunciation.

b) Aural Medium

The central role of listening comprehension in foreign language acquisition process is now largely accepted. It means that Listening plays an extremely important role in the development of speaking abilities. Speaking feeds listening, which precedes it. So, speaking is closely related to or interwoven with listening which is the basic mechanism through which the rules of language are internalized.

c) Socio-cultural Factors

Many cultural characteristics of a language also affect foreign language learning. From a pragmatic perspective, language is a form of social action because linguistic communication occurs in the context of structured interpersonal exchange and meaning is thus socially regulated. Thus, to speak a language, one must know how language is used in a social context. It is well known that each language has its own rules of usage as to when, how, and what degree a speaker may impose a given verbal behaviour of their conversational partner. In addition, oral communication involves a very powerful nonverbal communication system which sometimes contradicts the messages provided through the verbal listening channel.

Because of a lack of familiarity with nonverbal communication system of target language, EFL learners usually do not know how to pick up nonverbal cues.

So, it is an important point to understand that sociocultural factor is another aspect that greatly affects oral communication.

d) Affective Factors

The affective side of the learner is probably one of the most important influences on language learning success or failure. The affective factors related to foreign language learning are emotions, self-esteem, empathy, anxiety, attitude and motivation. Foreign language learning is a complex task that is susceptible to human anxiety which is associated with feeling of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt and apprehension. Speaking a foreign language in public, especially in front of native speakers, is often anxiety provoking.

Besides, Hedge (2003) listed factors that influence whether a learner can be successful in learning language especially speaking. They are :

- a. Aptitude as talent or ability of learners to master foreign language they learn.
- b. Learning style and learning strategy including how learners learn language and how they try to enlarge their knowledge about language.
- c. Affective factors including personal characteristics, attitudes, and emotional responses to language learning.
- d. Motivation for learning language as the reason why learners are learning foreign language which will affect such things such as anxiety, or attitude, or willingness to try new learning strategies.

Those mentioned factors play an important role in determining the success and the failure of student in learning speaking. Learning to speak a foreign language requires more than knowing its grammatical and semantic rules. Factors affecting

Adult EFL learners oral communication is the thing that need to be considered by EFL teacher in order to provide guidance in developing competent speaker of English. Once the EFL teachers are aware of these things, he will teach in more appropriate way and it will help them to develop student speaking skill.

2.2. Learning Strategy

One of things affects language learning process is learning strategy used by learners. The term language learning strategy has been defined by many researchers. Wenden and Rubin (1987:19) define learning strategies as "... any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information. According to Stern (1992:261), "the concept of learning strategy is dependent on the assumption that learners consciously engage in activities to achieve certain goals and

Every language learner uses language learning strategies either consciously or unconsciously when processing new information and performing tasks in the language classroom. As language classroom is like a problem-solving environment in which language learners are likely to face new input and difficult tasks given by their instructors, learners' attempts to find the quickest or easiest way to do what is required, that is, using language learning strategies is important. Language learning strategies used by language learners during the act of processing the new information and performing tasks have been identified and described by researchers. One of the researcher experts in learning strategy is O'Malley. As quoted in Hismanoglu (2000),

O'Malley divided language learning strategies into three main subcategories; metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and socio-affective strategies.

Metacognitive is a term to express executive function, strategies which require planning for learning, thinking about the learning process as it is taking place, monitoring of one's production or comprehension, and evaluating learning after an activity is completed. Among the main metacognitive strategies, it is possible to include advance organizers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, functional planning, self-monitoring, delayed production, self-evaluation.

Metacognitive strategies can be applied to virtually all types of learning tasks, whereas cognitive strategies are more directly related to a specific task and learning objective and may not be applicable to different types of learning tasks. Cognitive strategies are more limited to specific learning tasks and they involve more direct manipulation of the learning material itself. Repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, contextualization, elaboration, transfer, inferencing are among the most important cognitive strategies. As to the socioaffective strategies, it can be stated that they are related with social-mediating activity and transacting with others.

Cooperation and question for clarification are the main socioaffective strategies (Brown 1987:93-94). The definition of O'Malley's language learning strategies is shown in the following table:

Table 2.2.1 Learning Strategy Definition quoted from Wenden and Rubin (1987)

Learning Strategy	Description
<i>Metacognitive</i>	
Advance Organizers	Making a general but comprehensive preview of the concept or principle in an anticipated learning activity.
Directed Attention	Deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distractors.
Selective Attention	Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of language input or situational details that will cue the retention of language input.
Self-management	Understanding the conditions that help one learn and arranging for the presence of those conditions.
Advance Preparation	Planning for and rehearsing linguistic components necessary to carry out an upcoming language task.
Self-monitoring	Correcting one's speech for accuracy in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, or for appropriateness related to the setting or to the people who are present.
Delayed Production	Consciously deciding to postpone speaking to learn initially through listening comprehension.
Self-evaluation	Checking the outcomes of one's own language learning against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy.
<i>Cognitive</i>	
Repetition	Imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal.
Resourcing	Defining or expanding a definition of a word or concept through use of target language reference materials.
Directed Physical Response	Relating new information to physical actions, as

	with directives.
Translation	Using the first language as a base for understanding and/or producing the foreign language.
Grouping	Reordering or reclassifying and perhaps labelling the material to be learnt based on common attributes.
Note-taking	Writing down the main idea, important points, outline, or summary of information presented orally or in writing.
Deduction	Consciously applying rules to produce or understand the second language.
Recombination	Constructing a meaningful sentence or larger language sequence by combining known element in a new way.
Imagery	Relating new information to visual concept in memory via familiar easily retrievable visualizations, phrases, or locations.
Auditory representations	Retention of the sound or similar sound for a word, phrase, or longer language sequence.
Key Word	Remembering a new word in second language by (1) identifying a familiar word in the first language that sounds like or otherwise resembles the new word, and (2) generating easily recalled images of some relationship between the new word.
Contextualization	Placing a word or phrase in a meaningful language sequence.
Elaboration	Relating new information to other concepts in memory.
Transfer	Using previously acquired linguistic and/or conceptual knowledge to facilitate a new language learning task.
Inferencing	Using available information to guess meanings of

	new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information.
<i>Social-affective</i> Cooperation	Working with one or more peers to obtain feedback, pool information, or model a language activity.
Question for Clarification	Asking a teacher or other native speaker for repetition, paraphrasing, explanation and/or examples.