CHAPTER II

THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Review of Related Theories

1. The Concept of Speaking

Speaking skill is an important part of the curriculum in language teaching, and it makes an important object of assessment as well.[1] Assessing speaking is challenging, however, because there are so many factors that influence our impression of how well someone can speak a language, and because we expect test scores to be accurate, just and appropriate for our purpose. This is an order, in different contexts of teachers and testers who have tried to achieve all this through a range of different procedures. Let us consider some scenarios of testing speaking.

1.1 The sound of speech

When people hear someone speak, they pay attention to what the speaker sounds like almost automatically. On the basis of what they hear, they make some tentative and possibly subconscious judgements about the speaker's personality, attitudes, home region and native/non-native speaker status. As speakers, consciously or unconsciously, people use their speech to create an image of themselves to others. By using speed and pause, and variations in pitch, volume and intonation, they also create a texture for their talk that supports and enhances what they are saying.

The sound of people's speech is meaningful, and that is why this is important for assessing speaking. The sound of speech is a thorny issue for

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[1] Sari Lauma. 2004. *Assessing Speaking.* Cambridge University Press: UK. P. 1

language assessment. However, this is first of all because people tend to judge native/nonnative speaker status on the basis of pronunciation. This easily leads to the idea that the standard in which learner pronunce should be judged as the speech of a native speaker.

The native speaker standard for foreign language pronunciation is questioned on two main accounts. Firstly, in today's world, it is difficult to determine which single standard would suffice as the native speaker standard for any language, particularly so for widely used languages. All languages have different regional varieties and often regional standards as well. The standards are valued in different ways in different regions and for different purposes, and this makes it difficult to choose a particular standard for an assessment or to require that learners should try to approximate to one standard only. Secondly, as research into learner language has progressed, it has become clear that, although vast numbers of language learners learn to pronounce in a fully comprehensible and efficient manner, very few learners are capable of achieving a native-like standard in all respects.

Communicative effectiveness, which is based on comprehensibility and probably guided by native speaker standards defined in terms of realistic learner achievement, is a better standard for learner pronunciation.

Pronunciation or, more broadly, the sound of speech, can refer to many features of the speech stream, such as individual sounds, pitch, volume, speed, pausing, stress and intonation. An important question is whether all of these can be covered under one rating criterion. Moreover, should the focus be on accuracy of pronunciation or expressiveness of the speaker's use of voice, or both? The

solutions depend on the purpose for which the scores will be used and the importance of the sound of speech for that purpose. If there are many other rating criteria besides pronunciation, fitting accuracy and effectiveness into a criterion like 'naturalness of pronunciation' that may be the only option. If the sound of speech is a main focus in the assessment, evaluating aspects of it separately gives material for more detailed feedback.

1.2 Spoken Grammar

Learner's grammar is handy for judging proficiency because it is easy to detect in speech and writing, and because the fully fledged grammars of most languages are well known and available for use as performance standards. However, the grammar that is evaluated in assessing speaking should be specifically related to the grammar of speech.

1.2.1 Written sentences, spoken idea units

A major difference between speech and writing is that speakers do not usually speak in sentences. Rather, speech can be considered to consist of idea units, which are short phrases and clauses connected with and, or, but or that, or not joined by conjunctions at all but simply spoken next to each other, with possibly a short pause between them. The grammar of these strings of idea units is simpler than the written language with its long sentences and dependent and subordinate clauses.

1.2.2 Grammar in planned and unplanned speech

There are of course some situations where complex grammatical features and a high degree of written language influence are not only common but also expected and highly valued. Examples of this include speeches, lectures,

conference presentations, and expert discussions where speakers represent their institution or their profession. These situations involve planned speech, where the speakers have prepared and possibly rehearsed their presentations in advance, or they express well-thought-out points and opinions, which they may have voiced many times before. Unplanned speech, in contrast, is spoken on the spur of the moment, often in reaction to other speakers. It is particularly in unplanned speech that short idea units and 'incomplete sentences' are common, although even in planned speech, idea units are usually shorter than in writing, because the speakers know that their talk has to be understood by listeners in real time.

The concepts of planned and unplanned speech are closely connected to another factor that affects the grammar of speech, namely the level of formality of the speaking situation. Situations that involve planned speech tend to be relatively formal, whereas unplanned speech situations can range from formal to informal. Formal situations require more written-like language with more complex grammar, whereas informal situations call for more oral-like language with strings of short phrases and short turns between speakers.

1.2.3 The internal structure of idea units

Many spoken idea units are clauses, grammatically speaking, but the way that idea units are structured is often slightly different from standard written clauses. Two structures that clearly belong to spoken-like language use are topicalisation and tails.

Topicalisation, or thematic fronting, gives special informational emphasis to the initial element of a clause in informal speech for example: My name is John. It is mean that the sentence talk about John. Topicalisation breaks the

standard word order of written language. In speaking, the word order does not seem 'broken' in any sense, however, since the aim is to emphasise the topic. It is a very frequent feature of informal talk, McCarthy and Carter suggest that the explanation is that it has significant interpersonal meaning.[2] It often indicates that an important topic of conversation is to follow. Thus, their example of that house in the corner, is that where you live? Is presumably an introduction into a discussion on the house or the neighborhood, something that the speaker is reminded of upon seeing the house.

Tails, in turn, are noun phrases that come at the end of a clause. In a way they are the mirror image of topicalisation, in that they repeat a pronoun that has been used earlier in the clause. By using tails, speakers can emphasize the comment they make at the beginning of the clause, and still make it clear what they are talking about, as in it is very nice, that road through Skipton to the Dales. The comment that the speaker expresses at the beginning of the clause is often an evaluation, such as: He's quite a comic, that fellow, you know, but not always, as in otherwise they tend to go cold, don't they. Tails emphasis the point made at the beginning of the clause, and at the same time, they create an informal tone in the talk. Both topicalisation and tails follow clear patterns, which can be formed into 'rules' for talk. The patterns are characteristically spoken-like, but not traditionally taught in language classes or talked about in grammars. They create an impression of naturalness and interpersonal involvement in spoken discourse, and if examinees use them appropriately they could be rewarded for it. However,

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[2] Ibid. p. 15

they cannot be punished for not using them, because they are not obligatory in any context.

To summarise the discussion on spoken grammar, speech is organized into short idea units, which are linked together by thematic connections and repetition as well as syntactic connectors. The most frequent connectors are coordinating conjunctions (and, or, but, etc.). Some speaking situations call for more literate grammar with complete clauses and subordination. These are typically formal speaking situations, which may involve prepared talk such as a presentation.

Speakers may emphasize points by topicalisation, which means starting their turn with the main topic and making the word order unusual, or tails, which means using the natural emphasis of the beginning of their turn for a comment or an evaluation and putting the noun that they are making their comment on at the end of the clause. This gives talk a spoken flavour. It adds interpersonal and evaluative tones, which is typical for spoken discourse.

1.3 Speaking as meaningful interaction

Teaching and testing experts often talk about speaking as a technical term to refer to one of the various skills that language learners should develop and have. This type of speaking tends to be seen as something that individuals do. It is legitimate, and for educational purposes useful, to see speaking in this way too, because it is true that individuals speak, and an important part of language use is personal. Nevertheless, it is also important to remember that speaking forms a part of the shared social activity of talking.

In a typical spoken interaction, two or more people talk to each other about things that they think are mutually interesting and relevant in the situation. Their

aim can be to pass the time, amuse each other, share opinions or get something done, or they can aim to do several of these and other things at once. The point in their interaction is that they do these things together. Each participant is both a speaker and a listener; they construct the event together and share the right to influence the outcomes which can be both shared and individual.

1.4 The openness of meanings in interaction

When people talk and listen to each other, they are driven by a quest for meaning, but meanings are not always clear and explicit. Moreover, people know that anything that is said has not just one meaning but many: it says something about some topic or other, but it also indicates the speaker's attitude towards the topic and towards the other participant(s) and reflects the speaker's knowledge about the history of the topic, his or her views about what might be happening next, and more. As discussed earlier in this chapter, this kind of non-explicitness appears in many verbal forms, and it has many motivations.

The openness of meanings is not only a convenience in speech; it is also an effective strategy for speakers. They can avoid committing themselves to a statement or attempt to find out how the listener feels about the topic before proceeding. They can try to find out what the listener already knows, what he or she is prepared to accept or understand, and what the best strategy might be to persuade the listener to accept their point of view. For example, someone may introduce the topic of going to the movies and listen for reactions before raising the idea that this group of people might want to go out to a particular show that weekend. A member of the group who has other commitments may then say that she likes the idea but does not know yet because something urgent may come up

with work or something. This is strategically a highly skilful way of using language, and speakers, at least in a language that they live in, use vague expressions for these purposes automatically, because they are a fundamental part of spoken communication which can be both shared and individual.

1.4 Types of Classroom Speaking Performance

1. Imitative

A very limited portion of classroom speaking time may legitimately be spent penetrating "human tape recorder" speech, where for example, learners practice an intonation contour or try to pin point a certain vowel sound. Imitation of this kind is carried out not for the purpose of meaningful interaction, but for focusing on some particular element of language form.

2. Intensive

Intensive speaking goes one step beyond imitative to include any speaking performance that is designed to practice some phonological or grammatical aspect of language.[3] Intensive speaking can be self-initiated or it can even form part of some pair work activity, where learners are "going over" certain forms of language.

3. Responsive

A good deal of students speech in the classroom is responsive; short replies to teacher- or student-initiated questions or comments, These replies are usually sufficient and do not extend into dialogues. Such speech can be meaningful authentic: T: How are you today?

S: Pretty good, thanks, and you?

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[3] Brown, H. Douglas. 2000. Teaching by Principle Second Edition. Longman.p 271

4. Transactional (dialogue)

Transactional language carried out for the purpose of conveying or exchanging specific information, is an extended form of responsive language. Conversations, for example, may have more of a negotiative nature to them than does responsive speech:

T: What is main idea in this essay?

S: The United Kingdom should have more authority.

T: More authority than what?

S: Than it does right now.

T: What do you mean?

S: Well, for example, the UN should have the power to force a country like Iraq to destroy and it is nuclear weapons.

T: You don't think the UN has that power now?

S: Obviously not. Iraq is still manufacturing nuclear bombs.

Such conversation could readily be a part of group work activity as well.

5. Interpersonal (dialogue)

To the other conversation mentioned in the previous chapter was interpersonal dialogue, carried out more for the purpose of maintaining social relationships than for the transmission of facts and information. These conversations are a little trickier for learners because they can involve some or all of the following factors: a casual register, colloquial language, emotional charged language, slang, ellipsis, sarcasm, and a convert agenda.

According to Hughes there were some components that should be considered in giving students' speaking ability score.[4] Hughes describes as follows:

Table 4

Speaking Assessment

a. **Accent**

Score	Requirement
1	Pronunciation frequently unintelligible
2	Frequent gross error and a very heavy accent make understanding difficult, require frequently repetition
3	"foreign second" requires concentrated listening, and mispronunciations lead to occasional misunderstanding and apparent errors in grammar of vocabulary
4	Marked "foreign accent" and occasional mispronunciation which do not interfere with understanding
5	No conspicuous, mispronunciations, but would not be taken for a native speaker
6	Native pronunciation, with no trance of "foreign accent"

b. **Grammar**

Score	Requirement
1	Grammar almost entirely inaccurate except in stoke phrase
2	Constant errors showing control of view major patterns and frequently preventing communication
3	Frequent errors showing some major pattern uncontrolled and causing occasional irritation and misunderstanding
4	Occasional errors showing imperfect control of some pattern but no weaknesses that causes misunderstanding
5	Few errors, with no patterns of failure
6	No more than two errors during the interview

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[4] Arthur Hughes, *Testing for Language Teacher*, (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003), p. 131

c. **Vocabulary**

Score	Requirement
1	Vocabulary in adequate for even the simple conversation
2	Vocabulary limited to basic personal and survival areas (time, food, transportation, family, etc.)
3	Choice of word sometimes in accurate, limitations of vocabulary prevent discussion of some common professional and social topics.
4	Professional vocabulary adequate to discuss special interest, general vocabulary permit discussion of any non-technical subject with some circumlocution
5	Professional vocabulary broad and precise; general vocabulary adequate to cope with complex practical problems and varied social situation
6	Vocabulary apparently as accurate and extensive as that an educated native speaker

d. **Fluency**

Score	Requirement
1	Speech is no halting and fragmentary that conversation is virtually impossible
2	Speech is very slow and uneven except for short or routine sentence
3	Speech is frequently hesitant and jerky; sentences may be left uncompleted
4	Speech is occasionally hesitant, with some unevenness caused by rephrasing and grouping for words
5	Speech is effortless and smooth, but perceptively non-native in speed and evenness
6	Speech on all professional and general topics are effortless and smooth as a native speaker

e. **Comprehension**

Score	Requirement
1	Understand to little for the simplest type of conversation
2	Understands only slow, very simple speech on common social and touristic topics; require constant repetation and rehashing
3	Understand careful, somewhat simplified speech when engaged in a dialogue, but may require considerable repetation and pephasing

4	Understand quite well normal educated speech when engaged in a dialogue, but occasional repetation or rephrasing
5	Understand everything in normal educated conversation except for very colloquial or low frequency items, or exceptional rapid or slurred speech
6	Understand everything in both formal and colloquial speech to be expected of an educated native speaker

The result of speaking was scored by using five components and each component had score or level. Each component had 20 as the highest score. The total of all components is 100. The specification of the test is at follows:

Table 5

The Specification of the Test

No	Speaking Skill	The Highest Score
1	Accent	20
2	Grammatical	20
3	Vocabulary	20
4	Fluency	20
5	Comprehension	20
	Total	100

2. The Concept of Experiential Language Teaching Strategy

Experiential language teaching (ELT) strategy initially grew out of educational and psychological theories proposing that a subject is learned best if students are involved in concrete, hands-on experiences with the subject. The American educator Dewey was one advocate of the method. The belief is that students will learn better if they use the language as opposed to being passive receptors of artificial language. It is also thought that students will be able to analyze and discover their own information about the topic and language use as they are involved with tasks or projects. In language teaching, ELT creates

situations in which students use their new language in stead of just learning about it. This method is seen as particularly well suited for use with children but is now being practiced with students of all ages in many learning situations.

Experiential Language Teaching Strategy is also called Task Based Teaching Strategy or Project Based Teaching Strategy.[5] ELT's main strategy is to have students be involved in doing. An experiential language lesson can be conducted in multiple ways, and a number of different activities can be included under the umbrella of ELT. For example, realia, show-and-tell, games, and videos are examples of teacher-fronted ELT activities. Some of the successful activity in classroom involve of spontaneous activity exchange of meaning. Perhaps the teacher stars by telling the personal story which immediately engage learner interest.[6]

Because the focus of ELT is more of ten on the students than on the teacher, however, student-centered activities such as hands-on projects, cross-cul tural experiences, field trips, role-plays, and simulations are frequently used ELT activities. In addition, poetry, songs, and drama may also be considered ELT activities.

Experiential Language Teaching procedure:

1. The teacher identifies a task or activity that will help students learn the language needed in their particular context.

2. The teacher plans how the task should be implemented including any necessary language items that may need to be introduced or reviewed for the students to perform the task activity.

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[5] Opcit. p. 25
[6] Dave Willis and Jane Willis. 2007. *Doing Task-Based Teaching.* Oxford University Press. P. 13

3. The teacher explains the task to the students.

4. The students discuss the task and identify their roles.

5. The students do their task or activity.

6. The students perform or demonstrate what they have learned or accomplished.

2.1 Examples and Applications

If a student needs to know how to do a job interview in English, the following activities might be executed:

1. The student does an exercise in which he or she is asked to com prehend questions with question words such as what, where, how, who, when, and so on.

2. The student listens to examples of job interviews.

3. The student and teacher analyze the grammar, vocabulary, and discourse of the interviews.

4. The teacher or the students (or both together) create the dialogue for their own interview.

5. The students practice and then role-play interviews.

The concept of task has become an important element in syllabus design, classroom teaching and learner assessment. In underpins several significant research agendas and it has influence educational policy-making both ESL and EFL setting.

Pedagogically, experiential language teaching (task based teaching) strategy has strengthened and the following principles and practices:

1. A need-based approach to content selection.

2. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.

3. The introduction of authentic texts in the learning situation.

4. The provisions of opportunities for learners to focus not only on language but also in learning itself.

5. An enhancement of learners own personal's experiences as important contributing elements of classroom learning.[7]

6. The linking of classroom language learning with language use outside the classroom.

The important conceptual of conceptual basis for Experiential/Task Based Language Teaching is Experiential Language Learning. Experiential nature is "Learning by doing". The most articulate application of experiential learning to language teaching is provided by Kohonen. In many respects, his model can be seen as a theoretical blue print for TBT, as can be seen of the following list of percepts of action derived of his work:

1. Encourage the transformation of the knowledge within the learner rather than the transmission of knowledge from the teacher to the learner.

2. Encourage learners to participate actively in small, collaborative groups.

3. Embrace a holistic attitude towards subject matter rather than a static, atomistic and hierarchical attitude.

4. Emphasise process rather than product, learning how to learn, self-inquiry, social and communication skills.

5. Encourage self-directed rather than teacher-directed learning.

6. Promote intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivation.

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[7] David Nunan. 2005. *Task-Based Language Teaching*. Cambrige University Press: UK.p.1

The key assumptions of Task Based Teaching are summarized by Feez:

1. The focus is in process rather than the product.

2. Basic elements are purposeful activities and tasks that emphasize communication and meaning.

3. Learners learn language by interacting communicatively and purposefully while engaged in the activities and tasks.[8]

4. Activities and tasks can be either:

   - Those that learners might need to achieve in real life.

   - Those that have pedagogical purpose specific to the classroom.

5. Activities and tasks of a task based syllabus are sequenced according to difficulty.

6. The difficulty of a task depends on a range of factors including the previous experience the learner, the complexity of the task, the language required to undertake the task, and the degree of support available.

Experiential learning as a philosophy is based on the ideals of active and reflective learning, building on previous learning experiences and requiring the personal involvement of the learner. In the field of second-language acquisition (SLA), the experiential approach encourages learners to develop the target language skills through the experience of working together on a specific task, rather than only examining discrete elements of the target language. The reflection phase requires learners to engage actively with their own past acquisition experiences and focuses them on the future. Experiential methodology holds many

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[8] Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers. 2001. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching Second Edition.* Cambridge University Press: UK. P. 224

potential benefits for SLA in terms of motivation, investment, and cultural understanding.

Experiential learning has been applied to a wide variety of learning situations, from business team-building seminars, to orienteering, to math and science classes. The method is easily adaptable to a wide variety of educational settings, especially to classrooms where project-based and task-based learning already form the core of the curriculum. All classroom activities form a part of student experience. An activity can be done in a group or individually and successfully mined for affective value through questioning techniques and student reflection. The division of the learning process into experiential phases helps sequence the learning activities toward the achievement of the desired learning outcomes.

Experiential learning challenges all learner domains holistically, rather than fragmenting the learning process into cognitive, affective, and psychomotor skill acquisition. Rogers said that a staunch proponent of experiential learning, describes this basic philosophy: It has a quality of personal involvement-the whole person in both his feeling and cognitive aspects being in the learning event. It is self-initiated. Even when the impetus or stimulus comes from the outside, the sense of discovery, of reaching out, of grasping and comprehending, comes from within. It is pervasive. It makes a difference in the behavior, the attitudes, perhaps even the personality of the learner.

Experiential learning encourages personal input, initiative, and self-direction in the learning process. Activities begin with accessing the specific past experiences of students, and then building on these experiences to construct a

framework for learning unique to the requirements and learning style of each student. In practice, experience-based, project-based, and task-based learning become experiential when elements of reflection, support, and transfer are added to the basic experience, transforming a simple activity into an opportunity for learning. Koenderman provides an experiential model based on these elements, a series of phases that outline the sequencing of classroom activities from the introduction of a topic or theme to the conclusion. In the exposure phase a topic is introduced, and students are given the opportunity to reflect on their own experiences in this area and to relate the topic to their personal learning goals; in the participation phase the students become personally involved as they participate in an activity, either in the classroom or outside, intended to build on or enhance their previous experience; in the internalization phase a debriefing exercise is initiated by the teacher, and the students have the opportunity to reflect on their participation in the activity and discuss potential effects on their future behavior or attitudes; and finally, in the dissemination or transfer phase the students apply and present their learning, linking it with the world outside the classroom.

The philosophical concepts of experiential learning can provide the basis for all instructional practices, including the creation of the learning environment, the setting of objectives, the choice of projects, the sequencing of activities, and the assessment of learners. The facilitator can debrief each day's activities, or debrief only at the conclusion of the project. Groups can work through all the experiential phases during a 10-minute activity or during a five-week course: The phases remain the same despite the length or complexity of the activity.

Experiential learning is accepted and even promoted in the field of education, as educators have "finally begun to recognize the complexity of the educational process" said Hendricks. However, despite acknowledged benefits, experiential methods are still far from being universally accepted by educators themselves. There are several reasons for this, including classroom time constraints, difficulties with assessment, and lack of training in how to meet course outcomes experientially.

2.2 Experiential Strategy in the Teaching of English as a Second Language

The teaching practices currently being taught to future ESL practitioners reflect the current educational trend toward cooperative and collaborative learning. As ESL methods developed through the years, According to Brown, "each new method broke from the old, but took with it some of the positive aspects of previous practices". ESL classes today are set up differently from traditional grammar-translation classes. Language use and language-learning are social activities.

They occur best in situations which encourage negotiation of meaning and learner collaboration with other learners. Language learning necessarily involves active participation through taking risks, testing hypotheses, making plans and decisions, and making judgements about one's own progress. When these approaches are implemented, students learn to help themselves learn, ask for help from each other and from the teacher, learn language by using it in real settings, explain what they are learning and how they are learning, and grade themselves as a way to measure their strengths and weaknesses. Through collaboration on a project, students use and manipulate language in a natural language environment.

Experiential learning in the ESL classroom builds on the principle that language-learning is facilitated when students are cooperatively involved in working on a project or task, and when the project includes the phases of exposure, participation, internalization, and dissemination. Projects that are challenging, communicative, and meaningful, and that provide opportunities for student ownership and participation in their own language-learning, create an environment conducive to sustaining motivation to learn the target language. By looking more closely at the individual phases of experiential learning in the light of some past methods and research into SLA, a theoretical foundation for incorporating experiential phases into ESL classrooms can be established.

2.2.1 Exposure phase

Beginning with a creatively presented exposure phase, students are initiated into the project in a manner that will activate background schema, past experiences, and previous knowledge about the subject of the project. This activation of background knowledge before launching an activity is not unique to the field of ESL; teachers have long been aware of the value of this type of activity. Schema theory recognizes that each student brings "information, knowledge, emotion, experience, and culture" to each classroom activity. Accessing background knowledge before launching an activity helps enrich the learning experience by preparing the groundwork for new experiences to build on top of old ones. The exposure phase of experiential learning offers explicit and effective techniques for activating schemata. These techniques include an opportunity for students to understand the objectives of the activity and set goals for themselves. The teacher can then direct the class through the use questions to

encourage reflection on past experiences with the topic or activity. A well-structured exposure phase also clearly lays out for students the pedagogical purpose and rationale for the project, and can lead to greater learner awareness of, and involvement in, their own learning process.

2.2.2 Participation phase

The participation phase of experiential learning is the actual activity or experience. Because it is project-based, the communicative experiential syllabus uses a collaborative, holistic approach to language learning, which again is not unique to the field of ESL. Vygotsky's theory of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) refers to the gap between the students' current ability and their potential ability with peer or mentor guidance. This theory provides strong support for the inclusion of cooperative learning strategies in SLA. Research into applications of Vygotsky's theory in SLA contexts has shown that learner interaction is indeed beneficial to ESL learners. Since, the early 1980s, second-language teachers have been deluged with research into SLA that supports the communicative approach to language- learning. However, the contradictory ways in which communicative teaching is viewed have led to some confusion. Some educators see it as teaching "how to communicate" and focus on the teaching of explicit grammar forms and formulaic discourse; others understand communicative teaching as involving the learner as a participant in classroom communication and do not focus on explicit language forms. The term communicative-experiential syllabus was coined by Tremblay, Duplantie, and Huot to define and distinguish a syllabus, based on both experiential learning and communicative theory, in which the focus is on the linguistic interaction that

occurs between learners as they work on a project. The communicative and integrated aspects of experiential learning are supported by research into the advantages of a holistic approach to SLA.

2.2.3 Internalization phase

The internalization phase of a communicative-experiential syllabus is accomplished through skillful questioning on the part of the facilitator to help draw learners' attention to their own feelings and participation in the language-learning experience. This reflection on the experience seeks to involve the emotions and identity of the learner. The philosophy of experiential learning as it relates to SLA can also be seen in some of the innovative, yet now rarely employed, ESL methods of the 1970s.

Although these methods have been overlooked by many mainstream ESL practitioners, they were based on some important research in language acquisition theory and psychology. The Silent Way, developed by Gattegno, promoted the ideal that learners should take responsibility for their own language acquisition and should be taught not only information about the language, but also how to learn a language. In his method, similar to the role of a facilitator in an experiential classroom, the teacher plays a background role, allowing students' time to try to work out answers on their own. During the debriefing phase of experiential projects, students are questioned about their own language-learning and how they feel it progressed, as well as how they feel they contributed to their own progress.

Although the teacher sets up the questions, no answers are provided, and the teacher responds in a nonjudgmental way to any and all students'

contributions. Community Language Learning (CLL), developed from work by Curran, was based on the notion that language, being a social activity, should develop in a supportive social context. "CLL is an attempt to put Carl Roger's philosophy into action and overcome some of the threatening affective factors in second language learning". CLL has clear links to experiential philosophy; its belief in the positive power of group dynamics, especially in the debriefing phase, is also a component of experiential learning.

Suggestopedia, developed by Lozanov, introduced the idea that students should be relaxed and open to experiencing the language, even to the point of taking on a new identity as a successful language-learner. The Silent Way, CLL, and Suggestopedia were founded on learner-centeredness, self-discovery, reflection, social interaction, and positive self-concept. These principles are central to experiential learning and reinforced during the internalization phase.

2.2.4 Dissemination phase

The importance of the final phase of experiential methodology, linking the classroom learning with the real world outside the classroom, came to the forefront of developments in ESL with the Notional Functional syllabus. ESL researchers and practitioners came to recognize the need for language-learners to be able to transfer their classroom experiences into their day-to-day contexts. The Canadian Language Benchmarks, a federally developed framework for assessing communicative and performance levels of newly arrived ESL students enrolled in federally funded programs, recognized a national need for real-life competences. Instead of basing proficiency levels on knowledge of grammatical forms, proficiency is now based on notional-functional tasks founded in real-life

situations. Teachers in these programs are encouraged to make a clear link between the classroom and the world outside. These tasks are experiential by nature, and transfer may occur in genuine ways. Projects may culminate in a role-play of a social situation in class or in students going on a field trip to practice newly acquired skills. This type of specific transfer is received positively by students, who feel that their practical language needs are thus successfully being met.

Metaphoric transfer can also be used effectively, if links are clearly made between the class activity and its real-life parallel. For example, students could be asked to explain how they think that group work and the responsibility to take on leadership roles might help them on the job. Thus the dissemination phase, the conclusion of an experiential activity, provides the student with a clear link to his or her real needs and goals and can be highly beneficial and motivational.

2.3 Potential of Experiential ESL

The potential themes for project-based learning are endless and can be adapted to any level: from literacy ESL to university academic ESL. Teachers can adapt projects to suit the individual needs and interests of their particular students, and by sequencing the activities through the phases of experiential learning teachers can help ensure that the activities result in an optimal environment for learning. ESL teachers have used many types of projects: from debates, to video projects, to computer technology-based products. Projects can be adapted to any level and any age of ESL learners. Children can be involved in writing and illustrating their own versions of classic fairy tales for display. In high school classes, drama or video projects can help adolescents to feel more comfortable

with oral production tasks and to learn teamwork skills. Adult ESL students can participate in community based projects or form job or book clubs to assist each other with social and cultural information. Advanced students can work in small teams to design, research, and present lessons on important issues dealing with everything from coping in the new culture to writing a research paper. University bound international students in programs oriented to academic ESL can create class Web pages and Power-Point presentations on their field of study.

The implications of experiential learning are profound for the field of SLA. It is rare that a language-learner learns in isolation; on the contrary, language use is social, requiring learners to adapt not only to a new code for expressing themselves, but also to become aware of new and different cultural expectations, social norms, and practices. Research into the social construction of language, social identity of the language learner, and theories of investment and motivation need to be further explored in the context of experiential learning.

Experiential learning, with its emphasis on critical self-reflection, may prove to be a beneficial approach for helping learners to negotiate social meaning and their own shifting identities in a new culture. Other aspects of experiential ESL curriculum that need to be studied include: the effect of creating a product for a wider audience; the choosing of team roles and organizing of team work; the benefits arising from having a voice and a forum in which to express opinions and ideas; and the empowerment that arises from just simply hearing one's own voice expressing ideas in a social context in another language.

Teaching practices derived from experiential philosophy have the potential to give public voice to those who have been marginalized, to empower those who

are fearful or shy, and to increase learners' ownership and responsibility for their own learning. Practitioners currently involved in teaching ESL can make use of its potential to help students negotiate far more than just the linguistic code. Through adapting experiential learning methods to current ESL teaching situations, teachers can help learners to form positive identities of themselves as successful language learners and thus perhaps ease the often frustrating task of learning a new language.

B. Relevant Research

According to Syafi'i et al, relevant research is required to observe some previous researches conducted by other researchers in which they are relevant to our research. The writer has to analyze what the point that was focused on, inform the design, findings and conclusions of the previous researchers. It aims at avoiding plagiarism toward the design and findings of previous researchers,[9] which was done by one previous writer, Percival Santos entitled Evidence-Based Teaching: Implications for Task-Based Language Teaching. There was significant difference between the students who were taught by using Experiential Language Teaching Strategy (Task Based Teaching).

The same title in the research, then the writer shows the relevant research done by Collin J. Thompson and Neil T. Millington entitled Task-Based Learning for Communication and Grammar Use. Experiential Language Teaching Strategy or Task – Based Teaching is resources to have and can be useful to motivate someone.

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[9] M. Syafi'I et al. *From Paragraph to a Research Report: a Writing of English for Academic Purposes.* (Pekanbaru: LBS, 2007). P. 122

C. Operational Concept

Operational concept is a concept that guides the readers to avoid misunderstanding. It should be interpreted into particular words in order to be easier measured. There are two variables in this research; they are variable X as Experiential Language Teaching Strategy and variable Y as Speaking Ability. And the other variable is an extraneous variable. Thus, the researcher determines some indicators of both variables as follows:

1. Indicators of X variable or Experiential Language Teaching Strategy

    a. Teacher ask to the students read the text about narrative text.

    b. Teacher give opportunity to the students for understanding the text.

    c. Teacher ask to the students to show their ability in front of class.

    d. Teacher give some clues for making the students easy to understanding about telling the narrative text by using their own words.

    e. Teacher ask the students to make a long story about narrative text based own their own words and will tell in the next meeting in front of class.

    f. The teacher evaluate the students ability and give some suggestion for improve students ability.

2. Indicator of Y variable or Speaking Ability as the dependent variable. According to syllabus of SMPN 17 Pekanbaru. The indicator are:

    a. The Students' ability to speak clearly and spontaneously.

    b. The Students' ability to remember much vocabulary.

    c. The Students' ability to speak grammatically.

    d. The Students' ability to speak fluentcy.

D. Assumption and Hypothesis

1. **Assumption**

In this research, the researcher assumes that students speaking ability is various and the application of Experiential Language Teaching Strategy can influence students' ability in speaking.

2. **Hypotheses**

   a. Alternative Hypothesis 1 (Ha 1)

   Students' speaking ability taught by using experiential language teaching strategy is high.

   b. Null Hypothesis 1 (Ho 1)

   Students' speaking ability taught without using experiential language teaching strategy is low.

   c. Alternative Hypothesis 2 (Ha 2)

   There is significant effect of using experiential language teaching strategy on students' speaking ability of the eight grade at junior high school 17 Pekanbaru.

   d. Null Hypothesis 2 (Ho 2)

   There is no significant effect of using experiential language teaching strategy on students' speaking ability of the eight grade at junior high school 17 Pekanbaru.