II. FRAME OF THEORIES

This chapter discusses the concepts covered in this research. The concepts, which come from experts’ and previous researchers’ theories, underlie the assumption formulated here, and are expected to contribute to the findings of the research.

A. Concept of Writing

Writing is a mode of communication between the writer and the reader. The writer writes his message and sends it to the reader, while the reader reads and catches the writer’s message. Writing is also defined as a process of expressing the writer’s ideas, thoughts and feelings using a conventional system. The writer should follow the rule about the structures of sentences, paragraphs, and so on, that have been conventionally established, so that the reader is able to understand the message or information being sent.

Papilia (1969: 116) describes writing as a system of graphic symbols used to convey a message and record ideas on paper. Writing is the representation of language in a textual medium through the use of a set of signs or symbols (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Writing). It is distinguished from illustration, such as
cave drawing and painting, and the recording of language via a non-textual medium such as magnetic tape audio. In short, those two statements significantly tell us that writing activity deals with graphic symbols such as punctuations and words on sentences. The graphic symbols are used to send the message to the reader.

Murcia in Noprianto (2007: 10) states that there are principles of writing in order to write. They include what to say, how to sequence what to say, and how to express what is said. It implies that in writing, the writer must be able to express and sequence their ideas in a good order by using words and correct grammatical rules.

Linderman (1983: 11) also defines writing as a process of communication, which uses conventional graphic system to convey a message to the reader. It means that writing is a process of sending the message using letters, punctuation, words or sentences as a graphic system. Thus, the process of writing is said to be successful if the reader and the writer mutually understand the language being used in the written communication.

In short, it can be stated that writing is a process of transferring ideas into written form. Therefore, in transferring ideas, someone must be skilful in using graphic symbols, structure, and other language aspects. The writer must be able to express and sequence their ideas in a good order, so both writer and reader can understand the language used in the writing.
B. Narrative Text

School-Based Curriculum (KTSP) asserts that the learners are to learn various types of texts, one of which is narrative text. Narrative is closely related to experience or story of past time. Marahamin (1999:96) defines narrative as a story based on the plot, with the plot consisting of events, person, and conflict. Events tell about what happens in the story; person tells about the character(s) that is involved in the story; and conflict tells about the problem that needs to be resolved.

Semi (2003:29) in Hasani (2005:22) states that narrative is a conversation or writing with the purpose of telling about actions or human experience based on the development of time. According to D’Angelo (1980:196), narration is a pattern of thought, comprising the act of following a sequence of actions or events in time. It is a recounting of the facts or particulars of some incidents or experiences. It means that there are several actions or events in a narrative. Yet, the action is as a sequence. The chronological factor is the important aspect in the narrative text.

Narrative has the elements that can make the story more interesting to the reader such as a conflict and conclusion of the story. In addition, Wishon and Burk in Noprianto (2007: 17) points out that narration is the form of writing used to relate the story of acts or events. Narration places occurrences in time and tells what happened according to natural time sequence. Here is an example of narrative:
One day, Bill went down to do shopping. Then he went to a restaurant for lunch. After having the lunch, he asked for the check. But unfortunately, he found that he did not have enough money. He was so embarrassed. He asked the waiter to make a phone call. First, he called his parents, but they were out. After that, he tried his roommate, but he was out too. Finally, he phoned his boss at home. He was very nice and brought him some money. (Al Aida, 2000: 16)

This is a narrative paragraph which tells us about what Bill did one day. It mentions what Bill did in such chronological order, from having lunch in a restaurant, feeling embarrassed since he did not have enough money until making a phone call to ask some money. In this paragraph, we can also notice the use of some connecting words, such as ‘first’, ‘after that’, and ‘finally’ which are frequently used in narration. There are also some other connecting words, such as ‘next’, ‘then’, which are possibly used. The use of these words is aimed at making the story flow in chronological order that in turn will ease the reader to follow the flow of the writer’s ideas. From the explanation above, it can be confirmed that narrative paragraph also tells about action that moves in time and is organized in chronological order.

The problem comes when we want to differentiate narrative text and recount text. Something which happened in the past is the main resource to compose both recount and narrative text. In the writer's point of view, the thing is an experience. It can be what the writer has done, hear, read, and felt. Composing recount and
narrative is retelling the experiences of the past event to be a present event. The easiest way to catch the difference is by analysing the generic structure. Recount text presents the past experiences in order of time or place; what happened on Sunday, then on Monday, then on Tuesday. In simple way, recount describes series of events in detail. It does not expose the struggle on how to make them happen. The events happened smoothly. On the other hand, narrative introduces crises and how to solve them. Narrative text always appears as a hard portrait of the participant's or the writer’s past experience. It reveals the conflict among the participants. The conflict is the most important element in a narrative text. Narrative without conflicts is not narrative any more.

C. Characteristics of Narrative Text

According to the explanation of narrative text, we can take the idea that the characteristics of narrative text are: (1) it is a story or it is usually human experience; (2) it has a conflict and the resolving or resolution of the problem; (3) it is systematic. Keraf (2000: 136) states that the characteristics of narrative are 1) concerned to actions, 2) set in the time sequences, 3) trying to answer the question: what happened? 4) having conflicts. Semi in Hasani (2005:27) states that another characteristic of narrative is aesthetics; it should have imagery to increase the reader’s interest. In short, conflict and resolution (the way to solve the problem) are the important points of narrative. It can differ narrative from other texts such a descriptive, spoof, and so on. But as well as bearing those two
elements, narrative also needs time sequences in order to make the story systematic and run in chronological order.

**D. Types of Narrative Text**

Keraf (1991: 136) defines two types of narrative: expository and suggestive. Expository narrative usually tells the information about the event based on factual data. It also tells about the steps of the event to the reader. The object in expository narrative is beginning the first until the end; it means that the writer tells the story from the first until the end. The purpose of expository narrative is to make the reader’s knowledge about the object of a story deeper. For example, the story about your experience, but still it should contain orientation, complication, and resolution. This kind of story is based on factual data that happened to you.

Different from expository narrative, suggestive narrative can be unsuitable with factual data, because it emphasizes the suggestive sense. So, the purpose of suggestive narrative is to increase the reader’s imagination. Hasani (2005:290) writes that suggestive narrative is narrative that tries to give a certain purpose, telling an explicit message to readers or listeners, so they feel that they are involved in the story. Fairytales like Cinderella, Sangkuriang, and Malin Kundang can be categorized as suggestive narrative because the stories are unsuitable with factual data.
E. Concept of Learning Strategy

Schumaker and Deshler (1992) as quoted by Hiswiarti (2005:10) state that a learning strategy is an individual’s way of organizing and using a particular set of skills in order to learn content or accomplish other tasks more effectively and efficiently in school as well as in non-academic setting. Oxfords (1989:235) points out those learning strategies are operations used by the learners to aid the acquisition, short age, or retrieval of information. It means that a learning strategy is the way by which the student gathers information in teaching-learning process.

In addition, Hosenfield and Wenden (1987:71) as quoted by Asrori (2000) describe some steps in defining a learning strategy, they are:

1. Learners can choose how to use resources.
2. Learners prioritize the aspects of language that they want to learn.
3. By choosing and prioritizing, learners set their own learning goals.
4. Learners may plan what their learning strategies should be and change them if they are not successful.

In brief, it can be obviously stated that by using proper strategies, language learners seem to know what they are doing and what they are supposed to do in the process of learning. They have made steps to anticipate or to overcome the problems they find in language learning process. By this way their learning will be more effective and systematic.
F. Categories of Learning Strategies

There are several categories of learning strategies. According to Chamot in Wenden and Rubin (1987: 77), categories of learning strategies include:

a. Metacognitive strategies

Metacognitive is a term used in information-processing theory to indicate an “executive” function, strategies that involve 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.

Characteristics of metacognitive strategies cover the following elements:

a) Advance organizers: making a general but comprehensive preview of the organizing concept or principle in an anticipated learning activity.

b) Directed attention: deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distracters.

c) Selective attention: deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of language input or situational details that will cue the retention of language input.

d) Self management: understanding the conditions that help one learn and arrange for the presence of those conditions.

e) Advance preparation: planning for and rehearsing linguistic components necessary to carry out an upcoming language task.

f) Self monitoring: correcting one’s speech for accuracy in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, for appropriateness related to the setting or to the people who are present.
g) Delayed production: consciously deciding to postpone speaking in order to learn initially through listening comprehension.

h) Self evaluation: checking the outcomes of one’s own language learning against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy.

b. Cognitive strategies

Cognitive strategies are more limited to specific learning tasks and involve more direct manipulation of the learning material.

Characteristics of cognitive strategies include the following elements:

a) Repetition: imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal.

b) Resourcing: defining or expanding a definition of a word or concept through the use of target language reference material.

c) Directed physical response: relating new information to physical actions, as with directive.

d) Translation: using the first language as a base for understanding and/or producing the second language.

e) Grouping: reordering or reclassifying, and perhaps labelling, the material to be learned based on common attributes.

f) Note taking: writing down the main idea, important points, outline, or summary of information presented orally or in writing.

g) Deduction: consciously applying rules to produce or understand the second language.
h) Recombination: constructing a meaningful sentence of target language sequence by combining known elements in a new way.

i) Imagery: relating new information to visual concepts in memory via familiar, easily retrievable visualizations, phrase, or locations.

j) Auditory representation: retention of the sound of similar sound for a word, phrase, or longer language sequence.

k) Keyword: remembering a new word in the 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 words.

l) Contextualization: placing a word or phrase in a meaningful language sequence.

m) Elaboration: relating new information to other concepts in memory.

n) Transfer: using previously acquired linguistic and/or conceptual knowledge to facilitate new language learning task.

o) Inference: using available information to guess meaning of new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information.

c. Socio-affective strategies

Socio-affective strategies have to do with social mediating activity and interacting with others.

Characteristics of socio-affective strategies cover the following elements:

a) Cooperation: working with one or more peers to obtain feedback, pool information, or model a language activity.
b) Question for clarification: asking the teacher or native speakers for repetition, paraphrasing, explanation, and/or examples.

Based on the explanation above, the characteristics of socio-affective strategies are related to social activities or interaction with other people. Whereas, metacognitive strategies 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. Different from the two domains of learning strategies, cognitive strategies are more limited to specific learning tasks and involve more direct manipulation of the learning material.

**G. Learning Strategies in Writing**

Since we use language in our communication both in spoken and written form, writing, of course, is different from speaking because both bring about different results. In speaking, the result might be identified at nearly the same time after it has been taught. But in writing, the result could be gained somewhat longer than speaking.

Writing is indirect communication. The term writing is different to different people. Sometimes we find that the learners do not know what to write or how to begin, or sometimes they are not capable of expressing themselves in written form. This is because the learners do not know the appropriate strategy that they
can employ in learning writing. Therefore they should have a plan for writing a narrative.

**A plan for writing**

Preparing a writing plan for a specific text type can help the learners in composing narrative text. From this example, they can put a plan for writing a narrative in the future:

1. Title of the narrative
2. Setting of the narrative
3. The main characters of the narrative and how they develop
4. The main background of the narrative
5. The events that lead up to the problem or challenge (the complication)
6. The events that lead up to the solving of the problem/challenge (the resolution)
7. The ending (the conclusion)

Learners may use a range of strategies, which may include the following:

- Learners describe their action plan for writing, and the actions they use to achieve their goals or purpose of writing.
- Learners use idea generation and collation strategies, orientation strategies, and idea organization strategies, for example, brainstorming and semantic mapping (including computer and graphic organizer in planning and
collecting knowledge for writing different text types) and strategies for narrative or expanding a topic prior to drafting.

- Learners use drafting strategies in which they; (1) use the idea and perspectives generated to write the first draft; (2) elaborate initial ideas and identify subordinate ideas; and (3) focus on developing ideas, details and organizing them.

- Learners use revising strategies such as rereading the draft to check whether there is consistency between the main and supporting ideas, language use and style, and modify the draft accordingly.

- The learners use editing strategies to check the use of spelling, punctuation, grammar, and capitalization; learners use several resources such as a dictionary, computer and style guides.

- Learners use publishing strategies such as; 1) selecting a format for publication appropriate for the audience for example a letter, a poster, an essay, a report; and 2) using technology to support the publishing process.


From the explanation, it is evident that by establishing a writing plan, the learners’ can be good at writing if they use various valuable strategies in composing a narrative text. Hence, the following subtopic will describe good and poor language learners.
**H. Good and Poor Language Learner**

A good and a poor language learner mean a learner who is successful or unsuccessful in using some effort in order to improve their language skill. Fedderholdt (1998) points out that successful language learners use different types of learning strategies. The language learner, who is able to use a wide variety of language learning strategies appropriately, is better-equipped to improve her language skills. In this point, we can see that good learners know what they should do to improve their language skills than the poor ones.

Similarly, Rubin in Oxford (2001) suggests that good L2 learners are willing and accurate guessers; have a strong drive to communicate; are often uninhibited; are willing to make mistakes; focus on form by looking for patterns and analysing; take advantage of all practice opportunities; monitor their writing as well as that of others; and pay attention to meaning. Meanwhile, according to Naiman in Apriyanti (2001: 16), the good language learners have five strategies as follows:

1. Being actively involved in the language learning process by identifying and seeking environment and exploring it.
2. Develop an awareness of language as a system.
3. Develop an awareness of language as a means of communication and interaction.
4. Accept and scope out with effective demands of second or foreign language.
5. Extend and rise second or foreign language system by inferring and monitoring.

Moreover, Rubin in Wenden and Rubin (1987: 15) assume that successful learners will differ to some extent in the particular sets of cognitive processes and behaviours which they use to enable them to be successful. Related to the previous assumption, O’ Malley in Wenden and Rubin (1987: 133) suggests that less competent learners should be able to improve their skills in second language learning through training on strategies evidenced among more successful language learners. With successful training, less competent learners should be able to apply strategies to the acquisition of a variety of different language skills and transfer the strategies to similar language tasks.

Still in the same idea with Rubin, Hamalik in Asrori (2000: 1) points out that the use of proper (good) strategies is believed to bring satisfying learning outcomes for the learner. On the other hand, improper strategies will lead into failure. In this case, the teachers should be aware that the learners do not just need their explanation about the materials, but they also need to know how to learn. As Wenden in Griffiths (2004: 1) reminds us, there is an old proverb which states: “Give a man a fish and he eats for a day; teach him how to fish and he eats for a lifetime”. Applied to the field of language teaching and learning, this proverb might be interpreted to mean that if learners are provided with answers, the immediate problem is solved. But if they are taught the strategies to work out the answers for themselves, they are empowered to manage their own learning.
Based on the previous statement we can say that good language learners will differ from the poor ones. They tend to use a variety of learning strategies to improve their language skill and they know exactly when they should apply the right strategy in learning. On the other hand, the poor language learners are confused about the way to improve their language skills. They are better to know how the good language learners do in learning then train themselves those kinds of strategies. It is expected to help the poor learners to be more successful in language learning.

I. Hypothesis

To see whether there is any correlation between students’ learning strategies and students’ writing competence, the following hypothesis was formulated:

\[ H_0 \] = there is no significant correlation between learning strategies used by students in writing narrative text and their writing competence \( (r_{xy} \neq 1) \)

\[ H_a \] = there is significant correlation between learning strategies used by students in writing narrative text and their writing competence \( (r_{xy} = 1) \)