II. FRAME OF THEORIES

This chapter discusses about some theories that support the writer in composing her research. They are concept of interaction, concept of communication strategies, negotiation of meaning in the interaction, interaction analysis, tasks in study of negotiation of meaning and concept of listening and speaking.

2.1 Concept of Interaction

Interaction in language learning refers to the condition in which students achieve facility in using language. When their attention is focused on conveying and receiving authentic message, that is, message that contain information of interest to speaker and listener in a situation of importance (Rivers: 1987). In addition, Rivers (1987: 4-5) stated through interaction students could increase their language store as they listen to or read authentic linguistics material or even the output of the fellow students in discussion, problem solving tasks or dialogues journals.

Further, Rica, Kanagy, and Fallout (1993:10) in Yufirizal (2001:87) stated that language had been best learned and taught through interaction. It means that by taking interaction students can improve their language ability well.
In other hand, Interaction also can be defined as the ability to render the underlying meaning of a message, comprehend cultural references, use strategies to keep communication from breaking down, and apply the rules of grammar-develops in a second language. Here, it talks about how language is learned and the factors that influence the process.

Empirical research with second language learners supports the contention that engaging in language interactions facilitates second language development. Mackey (1999) stated that the affect of conversational interaction to acquisition is used to indicate the increasing pace of acquisition by taking interaction. Interaction is treated as one of the most important things that influences the success or failure of the second or foreign language acquisition. Long (1996) stated that second language development and more active involvement is led by interactional modification in negotiated interaction leads to greater development.

Krashen (1985) in Bastomi (2005, p.15) confirmed that by understanding messages, or by receiving comprehensible input target language could be acquired by second language learners. Furthermore, Krashen argued that the key element for language acquisition is slightly advanced input. This implies that learners will use English to understand the conversation or messages.

It can be concluded that interaction is the effective way in learning language by rendering underlying meaning of a message, comprehend cultural references, use strategies to keep communication. Interaction is important both in learning language and second language acquisition.
2.2 Concept of Communication Strategies

Students who learn foreign language will usually have difficulties in expressing their ideas smoothly in oral language. Since English grammar is far different from Indonesian grammar, foreign language student commonly make errors.

In language learning, learner’s error are caused by several different processes. There are several types of communication strategies according Thomas and Nation (1991):

1. Strategy that is used by a speaker to make up for gaps in the speaker’s mastery of the language.
2. Strategy that is used by a listener to make up for gaps in the listener’s mastery of language.
3. Strategy that is used by a speaker to keep a conversation going on.
4. Strategy that is used by one speaker to help a less proficient speaker.

Faerch and Casper in Bialystock (1990) assisted communication strategies as potentially conscious plans for solving what to individual present itself as a problem in reaching a particular communication goal. This means that communication strategy can be identified when speaker aware of having a problem.

Furthermore, Richard et al (1998) defined that communication strategies is a way used to express a meaning in a second or foreign language, by learner who has limited command of the language. In trying to communicate, a learner may have to make up for a lack of knowledge of grammar and vocabulary.
In simple words, it can be explained that communication strategies are ways that are very important to overcome problems that commonly occur in learner’s interaction.

### 2.3 Negotiation of Meaning in the Interaction

Negotiation of meaning is defined as a series of exchanges conducted by addressors and addressees to help themselves understand and be understood by their interlocutors (Yufrizal, 2007, p.14). In this case, when native speakers and non-native speakers are involved in an interaction, both interlocutors work together to solve any potential misunderstanding or non-understanding that occurs, by checking each others’ comprehension, requesting clarification and confirmation and by repairing and adjusting speech (Pica, 1991).

According to Pica et al (1991) there are basically four components in negotiation of meaning, namely:

1. **Trigger**

   Trigger is the utterance that contains elements that create communication breakdown. It can also be defined as prime of negotiation of meaning which invokes or stimulate incomplete understanding on the part of the hearer (Varonis and Gass: 1985), e.g.:

   **Student A:** And I need a very energetic person that uh…can what it can….

   **Student B:** Can attract.
2. Signals

This component refers to an indicator from a listener that understanding is not complete. Gass and Varonis (1985) defined signal as an indicator from a listener that understanding is not complete. This indication is triggered by a speaker’s previous utterance. In many studies of negotiation of meaning signals have been closely linked to two concepts: confirmation checks and clarification of requests (Varonis and Gass: 1985).

Signals are divided into confirmation check and clarification request. The detail explanation is discussed below.

a. Confirmation check.

It is defined as listener’s inquiry as to whether or not their expressed understanding of the speaker’s previous is correct. It could occur in three ways:

a) The interlocutor repeats all of parts of the speaker utterance. It is called confirmation check through repetition, e.g.:

   Student A: Café it’s too in South Street

   Student B: South Street?

   Student A: Next to grocers

b) The interlocutor corrects or complete what the previous speaker has said, e.g.:

   Student A: Uh the story it tell about the man who wants to.....

   Student B: To trap?

   Student A: To trap a bear but he...
c) The interlocutor elaborates or modifies what the speaker has said in order to confirm whether his/her understanding of what speaker has said is correct, e.g.:

_Student A_: He see a frog the frog is on the water..., yeah, it seems it’s on uh...what is it kind of leafs on the water and then just...she just smile the girl is stand on the left side of the picture.

_Student B_: Do you mean that she’s watching the frog?

_Student A_: Yeah she was watching the frog

b. Clarification request.

A clarification request is a request for further information from an interlocutor about a previous utterance (Foster: 1998). Unlike confirmation checks where the listener listened to the speaker’s utterance with some degree of non understanding clarification request refers to an indicator that shows the listener has totally not understood what the speaker has said, e.g.:

_A_: She is Rihanna. Hair style Rihanna curly uh....her colour is black eh...little bit red. Eyes ...big

_B_: Beg pardon?

_A_: Eyes are big. Size of earrings ares like balloon and lipstick colour is red.

3. Response

It refers to a speaker’s attempt to clear up what the listener has said (unaccepted input). In many studies of negotiation of meaning responses were related to the discussion of the repair, that is, corrections made by non-native speaker as a response to a modification of input action by native speaker (Foster: 1998).
There are five categories of response. They are self–repetition response, other–repetition response, self modification, other-modification response, and confirm or negate response.

a. Self – Repetition Response

It refers to a response produced by a speaker in the form of part or all an utterance produced in the trigger (Pica: 1989) e.g.:

*Student A: Now I in pub.*

*Student B: What...pub?*

*Student A: Pub*

b. Other – Repetition Response

In this category, the speaker repeats what the listener says in the signal (Pica: 1989). Therefore, it is called other-repetition. In the speaker’s response to the signal, we can see that the speaker has changed his output based on the input from the listener. Since the listener’s signal is triggered by inability to interpret the speaker’s utterance, the signal always modifies the trigger toward the listener’s assumed interpretation. Therefore, the speaker in this case has produced modified output e.g.:

*Student A: I think like a suit, us, usual*

*Student B: Like usual suit*

*Student A: Yes, usual suit.*
e. Self Modification Response

In this category, the speaker modifies the trigger as a response to the listener’s signal of negotiation of meaning. In this category, the speaker modifies the trigger as a response to the listener’s signal of negotiation of meaning (Pica: 1991). The modification made by the speaker can be at level phonology, morphology, or syntax, or at the semantic level, e.g.:

*Student A:* And then uh.....I think this picture tell tell us about ironic ironic picture.

*Student B:* Can you spell it.

*Student A:* Ironic ironic ironic in Indonesia ironi.

d. Other-Modification Response

Other-modification response is a modification by the speaker to reflect the signal given by the listener, e.g.:

*Student A:* Uh...uh...what they have done?

*Student B:* What has she done...

*Student A:* What has she done to the frog.

e. Confirm or Negate Response

It refers to a response in form of confirmation or negation. A ‘yes’ confirmation response is usually short e.g.:

*Student A:* Yes I see.....what about his hair?

*Student B:* His hair...

*Student A:* Yes.
4. Follow-Up

It refers to information about whether the communication modifications have been successful or not. In a long negotiation of meaning, interlocutors usually repeat the signal-response exchange until an agreement is achieved, e.g.:

*Student A:* On the top of cooker

*Student B:* Pardon?

*Student A:* On the top of the cooker.

*Student B:* Yes, on the top of the cooker.

Varonis and Gass (1985) proposed a simpler model for exchanges that create negotiation of meaning. The model consists of four primes called:

a) Trigger (T) which invokes or stimulates incomplete understanding on the part of the hearer.

b) Indicator (I), which is hearer’s signal of incomplete understanding.

c) Response (R) is the original speaker’s attempt to clear up the unaccepted-input.

d) Reaction to the response (RR), which is an element that signals’s hearer acceptance or continued difficulty with the speaker’s repair.

In the development of studies in negotiation of meaning, Alcon, Shortreed, Martyn and Van Den Branden have broadened the concept of negotiation of meaning, such as by inserting some ideas from studies in communication strategies into the basic concept of negotiation of meaning. Alcon (1996) in Yufrizal (2007 p.19), for instance, included some elements of communication strategies in their studies of negotiation of meaning, such as appeals for
assistance, appeals for verification of meaning, definition requests, appeals indicating lexical uncertainty for the component of signals; foreignization, literal translation, code switching, approximation for responses. Another extension of negotiation of meaning is by van den Branden (1997) who distinguished three definitions of negotiation: negotiation of meaning, negotiation of form and negotiation of content.

Firstly, Branden (1997) in Yufrizal (2007, p.19) defines negotiation of meaning as side sequences to the main flow of conversation aimed at signalling and solving problems of message comprehensibility that is aimed at restoring mutual understanding. Under this category, Branden divides the negotiation of meaning into two elements: indicator and response. The indicator includes clarification request, confirmation of request with trigger unmodified, confirmation of request with trigger modified, non verbal indicator. The response includes switch to the new topic, repetition of trigger, modification of trigger, repetition of indicator, modification of indicator, confirm of negate indicator, inability to respond, ignore the indicator, response unnecessary.

Secondly, Branden (1997) defined the negotiation of form as side sequences to main flow of conversation aimed at drawing the participant’s attention to formal aspect of description, and encouraging ‘self repair’ or, at the very least, acknowledgement of the formal modifications that the listener suggested. The negotiation of form also consists of two elements: indicator and response. The indicator includes request of rephrasal, prompt, confirmation request unmodified, confirmation modified, and metalinguistic comment. The response includes
repetition of trigger, modification of trigger, repetition of indicator, modification of indicator, confirmation or negation of indicator, inability to respond, ignore indicator, and response unnecessary. Thirdly, Branden negotiation of content as stretches of interaction aim at pushing the participants to provide more information spontaneously offered in the description. This type of modification also consists of two elements: indicator and responses. The indicator includes clarification request, confirmation request unmodified, confirmation request modified, and confirmation request elaborated. The response includes giving additional information, repetition of trigger, modification of trigger, repetition of indicator, modification of indicator, confirm or negate indicator, inability to respond, ignore indicator, response unnecessary, and switch to a new topic.

Here the example of negotiation of meaning in real student’s interaction:

Students are provided two pictures about woman in different hair style and accessories (see picture A and picture B). Then students are required to identify five differences from the pictures. The first student tries to distinguish first picture from the second picture as following conversation below:
Student 1: In the first picture uh…her lips are wet uh…uh… (What the first student has said is called trigger, it stimulate the listener to give the signal of unclear information)

Student 2: Red you mean? (Because what the first student has said is not clear the second student gives the signal by giving correction to the first student’s utterance.

Student 1: Red oh…. I’m sorry and her hair is uh…uh…uh… (After receiving the correction from the second student the first students repeats by say “red oh” it shows self-repetition response then first student shows other trigger as expression of getting difficulties.)

Student 2: Wavy? (The second student shows signal by completing what the first student want to express. It is classified as confirmation of check through completion).

Student 1: Yes wavy (the first student responds the second’s student signal by repeat the same utterance)

2.3.1 The Roles of Negotiation of Meaning in Second Language Acquisition

Pica (1996) in Yufrizal admited that although there has been no empirical evidence of a direct link between negotiation of meaning and second /foreign language development, research studies in negotiation of meaning for the last two decades have shown that there are two obvious contributions of negotiation of meaning to second language acquisition. Firstly through negotiation of meaning
(particularly in interactions involving native speakers) non native speaker obtain comprehensible input necessary for second language acquisition much more frequently than in interaction without negotiation of meaning. Secondly, negotiation meaning provides opportunities for non native speaker to comprehensible output necessary for second language acquisition much more frequently than in interactions without negotiation of meaning. Another important role of negotiation of meaning which may not have a direct impact on second language acquisition but it is also an important element for second language learning through communication is that negotiation of meaning can function as an indication of pursuit of communication.

2.3.2 Negotiation of Meaning in Second and Foreign Language Setting

The majority of interaction studies deals with interactions involving native speakers and non native speakers have been conducted in the target language setting. A set of research papers by Pica (1985a;1985b; Pica and Doughty, 1985, 1986; Pica, Young and Doughty, 1987; Pica et al, (1989); Pica et al, 1991 and Pica et al (1996) has shown than when non native speakers indicate that they do not understand message, expressed through comments such as ‘pardon me’, _uuh_? ‘What?’ ‘Excuse me?’ ‘I ...don’t understand’, the native speaker helps non native speakers to comprehend by modifying their utterances.

A communicative interaction in a foreign language setting, in which non native speakers interact with other non-native speakers from the same L1 background, might result in different pattern of interaction from those in a second language
setting and from interaction which involves a native speaker. In the former setting, the interaction takes place for the sake of language practice rather than for communicative purpose. Language input is usually confined to classrooms and communication with foreign language teachers. The participants usually have a shared L1 knowledge, which some time hinders them from negotiating of meaning and/or permits them to use an alternative channel of communication. In the latter setting, the participants are usually geared toward purely communicative purpose, i.e. to understand or be understood by their interlocutors. Language input is not confined to teachers and classroom situation but is abundant from social life outside the classroom. The participants in conversation usually have a gap in linguistic knowledge, the native speakers being in the position of superior and non native speakers being in the position of inferior. Consequently, there are some strategies applied by either the speaker or interlocutor in order to understand or to be understood.

2.4 Interaction Analysis

Interaction analysis focuses on ways of tracking individual acts of communicators. Scholars studying interpersonal and small-group communication have often looked at such communication examples. The method involves recording group as it deliberates and listening to each statement a person makes. Those statements, in turn, are counted in each categories listed on the figure. Bales himself moved to an increasingly complicated system called SYMLOG (Bales & Cohen, 1979), and researchers in communication have been also interested in developing uses of the SYMLOG system (e.g., Cegala, Wall, &
Yet the notion of interaction analysis can be demonstrated by looking at Bale’s initial approach. Bales was able to explain that successful groups of people need to balance the task dimension of their work with the social-emotional dimension. Bales used chart which allowed us to identify sorts of activities that take place from one phase of group decision making to another.

B. Aubrey Fisher and his associates contributed a variation of interaction Process Analysis approach (Fisher & Drexel, 1983). They urge that interaction between people, especially people taken two at time (called dyads), be studied by looking at what were called “interacts” and “double interacts.” The researcher looks at one person’s conversation and reaction of another-an interact. Researcher also looks at the first person’s response to the other’s reaction- the double interact. Though the concept was originally associated with the management theorist Karl Weick (esp.1969, p.46), Fisher’s work extended this method to discover how people develop a sense of belongingness in groups and how leader emerge in groups (Fisher, Glover & Ellins, 1977; Fisher & Hawes, 1971) as well as how people conduct themselves during formal interviews (Hawes, 1972). Taken as a whole, the method of interaction analysis has taken researchers in some interesting directions.

2.5 Tasks on the Study of Negotiation of Meaning

Research on the task type has resulted in various findings showing the effects of particular task toward patterns of interaction in and outside classroom, both in second language context and foreign language context. Pica and Doughty in Yufrizal (2007,p.100) investigated three classroom ESL communication activities
involving group work task. The focus of their study was to find out the interactional features of conversation between teacher fronted and group decision making activities. They found more grammatical input was available during teacher fronted than during group activities. However, most of these grammatical inputs are from teacher while student’s production were ungrammatical in both situation. In conclusion, Pica and Doughty, stressed individual students appeared to have more opportunities to use target language in group than in teacher fronted activities though either taking more turn or producing more samples of their interlanguage.

On the continuation of the first study, Pica and doughty in Yufrizal (2007) added another variable in their study, that is dyad. So, the second study compares three interactional pattern: teacher-fronted, small group and dyads. The study found that there were significant different of information exchange between teacher-fronted, group work and dyads and between required exchange task and optional exchange task. Modification in the interaction was found to be higher in group than in the teacher fronted participation pattern. However there was no difference in interactional modification between group and dyad interaction patterns.

In different study, Pica, Holliday, Lewis and Morgenthaler (1989) in Yufrizal applied three different tasks to investigate the pattern of comprehensible output of their subjects. Three tasks were given a jigsaw in which the participants were assigned to sequence a series of house, an information gap in which the one participant act describer of a picture and other draw the picture and the last task was a discussion task. The study found that the information gap task offered the
largest percentages of opportunities for the non native speaker to modify their output response to native speaker signals of request for clarification and confirmation. This result in fact in contrary to the theoretical consideration offered Pica, Kanagy and Fallout (1993) who suggested that jigsaw is the most ideal tasks that call elicit the L2 interaction. Bygate (1989) explained the students’ conversation pattern in communication game task, looking at the tactics of small group oral interaction. Bygate suggested students interaction may help language development in two ways: Firstly, the flexibility for learners to choose and to collaborate in the choosing the most efficient syntactic units of communication enables them to follow their own path toward integrating the grammar of language into the oral skill. Secondly, group interaction can contribute by the mechanism it activates in order for communication to take place.

More recently, Foster (1998) found that required exchange tasks produced more negotiation of meaning and modification of input than optional exchange tasks. However, she suggests that it is the participant setting (dyadic or small grouping), not the task which influence the negotiation of meaning. The tasks only made a little difference in the modification and negotiation made.

Some common results of the relations between tasks and negotiation can be summarized as follows:

1. One way task (e.g. Brown and yule, 1983) produce more individual output, but much less negotiation work than do two-way-tasks (e.g. Long, 1981; Doughty and Pica, 1986).
2. Required information tasks produced more negotiation than optional information exchange (Pica and Doughty, 1986).

3. Convergent, problem solving tasks produced more turn taking and questioning that do divergent, debate style tasks (Duff, 1986).

4. Small group arrangement produced more interaction negotiation than do whole class setting (Pica and Doughty, 1985).

5. Increased familiarity with particular tasks and interlocutor resulted more frequent negotiations work (Gass and Varonis, 1984).

6. Non native speaker- non native speaker partners produced more frequent negotiation of meanings than do native speaker with non native speaker partner (Varonis and Gass, 1985).

7. Non native speaker dyads from different L1 background produced more meaning negotiation than non native speaker dyads from the same L1 background (Yule and Mcdonald, 1990).

2.6 Concept of Listening and Speaking

*Listening* is an active process where listener plays very active parts in constructing the overall message that eventually exchanged between listener and speaker (Lukong, 1998). It can also be defined as a receptive skill comprising both physical process and an interpretive, analytical process. Listening comprises the steps of hearing and interpreting. Hearing is a physiological process that involves the reception of sound waves by ear. It is only the first element of listening, which also includes the interpretation of those sound waves (and other signal). A person with acute hearing may be a poor listener who does not interpret other statements
accurately or respond appropriately. In contrast, someone with considerable hearing loss may be a good listener who is motivated to understand others the way they want to be understood.

In other hand speaking can be described as an ability to converse or to express a sequence of ideas fluently (Lado, 1972:240). It means that in speaking someone can transfer her/his idea or thought to other people. Furthermore, speaking is the instrument of language and primary aim of speaking is for communication (Tarigan, 1982:5). From this definition, it is clear that students learnt to speak in order to be able to communicate.

Speaking is one of the central elements of communication. It is an aspect that needs special attention and instruction. Speaking is productive skill in which the speaker produces and uses the language by expressing a sequence of ideas and at the same time she/he tries to get the ideas or the message across. In this case, there is a process of giving message, which is called the encoding process. At the same time, there is a process of understanding the message of first speaker.