I. FRAME OF THE THEORY

This chapter discusses some concepts of theories related to this research, such as Psychological characteristics contribute to successful foreign language acquisition, cognitive style in EFL, characteristic of field independent, speaking in EFL, Speaking ability in EFL, learning strategies in speaking, and Rubin’s learning strategies theory.

1.1 Psychological Characteristics Contribute to Successful Foreign Language Acquisition

Since language is used in social exchanges, the feelings, attitudes and motivations of learners in relation to the target language itself, to the speakers of language and to the culture affected how learners responded to input to which they are exposed.

Corder (1967) stated that the language input on which they based their hypothesis interacts with on learners’ affective and social characteristics. In a sense, it was the factors that determine how much of input was. The language which the learner exposed to become intake language was used to develop the L2 system. Corder called the affective variables as personal characteristic of learner including cognitive and learning strategies.

Based on the statement above, the researcher could see that Corder did not separate affective factor from cognitive. It showed that affective has close relation with cognitive type. It meant that affective factor influence persons’s cognitive factor in foreign language learning. This statement was supported by Brown (1980) who said that the way students learnt things in general and particular attacked us to make on
a problem seem to hinge on a rather amorphous link between personality and cognition. This link was referred to cognitive style. In relation to foreign language learning, cognitive style of individual influenced his success in foreign language learning. To support his theory, Brown (1980) said that in the enormous task of learning of foreign language one which so deeply involves affective factors, a study of cognitive style brings a very important variable to the forefront. Such style could contribute significantly to the construction of a unified theory of foreign language acquisition.

1.2 Concept of Cognitive Style in English as A Foreign Language

Slamet (1991:162) says that cognitive style is attitudes, choices or strategy that firmly determines the typical ways of someone in accepting, remembering, thinking and problem solving. It was clear for us that every individual have their own way in constructing the things which are seen, remembered, and thought by him/her. The differences among individuals constantly in constructing and treating the information and experiences are called cognitive style.

According to Ausabel (1968 : 170) cognitive style is self-confident and enduring individual differences in cognitive organization and functioning. The term refers to individual differences in general principles of cognitive organization. It also refers to various self consistent idiosyncratic tendencies which are not reflective of human cognitive functioning in general, it is difficult to argue that cognitive style is strictly cognitive manner. It really mediates between emotion and cognition, for example, reflective cognition style invariably grows out of reflective personality or reflective mood. An impulsive cognitive style, on the other hand, usually arises out of an impulsive emotional state. A persons’ cognitive style is determined by the way
he or she internalizes his or her total environment. Since the internalization process is not strictly cognitive, we find the physical, affective, and cognitive domain merge in cognitive style. Considering the statement above, it is obvious that affective and cognitive domain are the factor of cognitive style.

This statement was supported by Witkins (1979) who said that cognitive style is the cognitive characteristic modes of functioning that was revealed throughout our perceptual and intellectual activities in highly consistent and pervasive way. Vernon (1979) explained what cognitive style is. Cognitive style is a super ordinate construct which is involved in many cognitive operations, and which accounts for individual differences in a variety of cognitive, perceptual, and personality variables. The explanation about cognitive style was added by Messick (1976:14) who said that cognitive style represents a person’s typical modes of perceiving, remembering, thinking, and problem solving.

According to Syah (1995) cognitive style is one of human psychological fields that consist of mental behaviour which is related to understanding, considering, information sorting, problem solving and confidence. It is clear for us that every one has own way in his/her cognitive operations. Everyone has his own or her way in remembering, perceiving, thinking, and solving his/her problem. It meant that every individual approached a problem and learnt a set of facts or organized a combination of feeling from a unique perspective. Based on the statement, The researcher could see that cognitive style is one of factors human psychology. This fact realizes that in second language learning, everyone has different cognitive style. It means that every human in the world has cognitive style, even though there is a distinction in each person. Therefore, cognitive style can be called as universal unique. In relation to foreign
language learning, Brown (1980) stated that there are three major cognitive variations, namely, type of learning, strategies of learning, and style of learning.

Nasution (1987) described style of learning as consistent style done by a student in grasping stimulus or information, remembering, thinking, and problem solving.

In learning style, Brown (1980) said that there are five cognitive styles that are relevant to second language learning. There are cognitive style which are focused on this research are field independence and field dependence. Relation to this research, the difference of cognitive style, that is field independent and field dependent, causes differences of students speaking ability, because they are different in perceiving, remembering, thinking, and problem solving.

1.3 Characteristics of Field Independent Students

Schumani (1976) said that a field independent learners is one who perceives a visual field and detect sub pattern within the field. This definition was explained explicitly by Brown (1977) who pointed out that the field independent person is generally thought to be more analitical, precise, and affectively independent.

Nasution (1987) made a list of field independent stucents characteristics to help us grasp the characteristic of field independent student. He said that field independent students are less influenced by circumstances and the educational system in past(a), educated to be independent and to control his or her action (b), doest not care of the norms of society (c), speaking quickly without considering comprehensive ability of others (d), less socialized (e), found primarily in male but can be overlapping (f), faster in choosing his or her major field (g), able to appreciate humanity and social science even though there is tendency to Mathematic and Physics (h).
The researcher could see above that the expert did not separate the definition of field independent learners in affective domain from cognitive domain. Klausmeier (1985:136) classified field independence in affective domain and cognitive domain. In addition, he focused deeper on the characteristics of field independent students in accordance to foreign language learning. He said that in cognitive domain, students from field independent group have high analytical ability in solving problem. Analytical ability here meant the ability of dividing point of the problem and finding the relationship between the points, so that the answer of the problem is found. Because of having analytic ability, students in this group tend to solve a problem quickly.

In affective domain, field independent students more generally more competitive, self respect, self confident, and prefer self study to come in a group discussion. Since they have self respect, it could be said that they would be succes in their study.

In relation to the research of students speaking ability which was held in the classroom, the researcher saw the result of research of Naiman, Frochlich, and Stern (1975) who found that field independence correlated positively and significantly with language-learning succes in the classroom. According to Brown (1985) one must be analytical and precise in distinguishing phonology and syntatic pattern in language and the rules that underline them. Moreover in classroom one needed to be able to master exercise, drills, and other analytical oral and written activities. Brown (1977) speculated that field independent might more be more important an the classroom setting where learning is measured by test.
Based on the statement above, The researcher could see that field independent students tended to be successful in second language learning in classroom. It meant that in this situation the students were led by the teacher how to practise speaking in foreign language.

1.4 Concept of Speaking in English as A Foreign Language

Tarigan (1985) said that speaking is the ability to utter sound of articulation of words for expressing as well as sending thought, ideas, and feelings. Rivers (1970 : 162) stated that through speaking, one can express his ideas, emotions, attentions, reactions, to other person and situation, and influence other person.

From the statement, the researcher could see that the ability to express one’s thought, emotions, feelings, etc

According to Murcia (1978 : 91) speaking is the primary element of language. Regarding with foreign language learning, it is obvious that speaking is very important. Therefore, those who study English as a foreign language must be able to speak in the language, at least in the simple form. The researcher had determined taking the data of research in SMP N 2 Bandar Lampung. That school was chosen due to its benefit as one of Pioneering International School (RSBI) in Bandar Lampung. One of the benefits of RSBI School is to require its students be able to speak English well. Each student has to speak English during teaching learning process not only in English lesson but also in every subject in that school. School environment was designed in to English Zone which compel each person in that school be able to speak English, even in the canteen. English was considered as foreign language which should be spoken dominantly in school environment. Teacher, in this contextual situation acts as the model of students to communicate using English with both their mutual friends and their teacher in the school.
1.5 Concept of Speaking Ability in EFL

In English as foreign language testing, speaking ability is the way of students show their speaking ability in the context of some aspects which could be assessed involving grammar, pronunciation, diction, fluency etc. Brown (2004: 140) defined speaking as a productive skill that can be directly and empirically observed; those observations are invariably colored by the accuracy and effectiveness of a test takers listening skill, which necessarily compromises the reliability and validity of an oral production test. From those statements above, the researcher can conclude that speaking is an activity involving 2 or more people in which the participants are both the listeners and the speakers having to act what they listen and make their contribution at high speed. In addition, related to speaking ability, Tarigan (1981:15) states that speaking ability is a skill to communicate a speech articulation or to speak a talk for expressing an idea and a message. Lado (1961: 240) points out that speaking ability is described as the ability to report acts or situation, in precise words, or the ability to converse or to express a sequence of ideas fluently. It can be concluded that speaking ability is a skill, which is communicating speech sound for expressing and conveying a messages or ideas. Lado (1989: 66) says that: language teaching successfully may be examined by analyzing a series of lesson plans over a period of time which can tell us the procedures of presentation, the predominance of skills and the frequency of reviews, how much by the method, what the teacher has omitted or added to text aim, include a lesson plan. Lado (1977: 200) says also that either four or five components are generally recognized in analysis of speech process. They are: a) Pronunciation (including the segmental features-vowels and consonant and the stress and intonation/ pattern), b) Grammar, c) Vocabulary, d) Fluency (the case and the speech of the flow of speech), and e) Comprehension.
1.6 Relation Between Field Independent and Speaking Ability

Someone needed to master exercise, drills, and other analytical oral and written activities. Considering the characteristic of field independent, it was generally thought to be more analytical, precise, and affectively independent. Brown (1977 ) speculated that field independent may be more important in the classroom setting where learning is measured. Meanwhile, field dependent person has low analytical ability. Yet, Brown (1977 ) suggested that field independent may be more beneficial if he comes to tutored second language learning because successful second language learning was determined by how well the learner can communicate with speaker of the target language.

Meanwhile, field independent person could be well structured speaking ability due to their competence in analyzing unrelated discrete-point into overall context they occur. It is based on Bachman (1990) who stated that the persons with a high degree of field independence would perform well on discrete point test in which the items are unrelated to each other and to the overall context in which they occur. On the other hand, persons with low field independence might be expected to perform well on integrative tests such as speaking test in which they are required to process the test in a global manner.

The researcher saw field independent student could be considered having a potential ability to perform speaking ability well. Their speaking ability is supported by their way of thinking about certain topic in global manner then analyze it into specific topic to see in detail. It can help field independent student to produce a well structured speaking performance as one aspect of better speaking ability.
Field independent students basically have a global ability in learning second language. Based on Genesee and Hamayan (1980) field independence, in particular, has been found to correlate positively and significantly with L2 learning in school settings where the target language was taught formally, in their study of first grade English speaking students of French immersion program in Canada. It was reported significant and positive correlations between FI and both general ability in French and French listening comprehension skills.

1.7 Learner Strategies in Speaking

Learning strategy is the technique of learning used by the learners in gaining knowledge. It is needed by the learners since by using strategy, it would improve their skills in language and also can make some plans about what they should do next. Therefore, learning strategy is the tactics in understanding and achieving a knowledge. Rigney (1978) pointed out that learning strategies are operations used by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage or retrieval of information, according to one familiar definition. It meant that learning strategies are behaviours or language actions which learners use to make language learning more successful and enjoyable.

Wenden (1987 : 26) stated that learning strategies refer to the language learning behaviours learners actually engaged into learn and regulate the learning of second or foreign language. The language learning behaviours are called strategies. He also pointed out that a learner who used learning strategy become a more effective learner. In addition, Candlin (1987 : 271) described some steps in defining a learning strategy, they are:

1. Learner can choose how to use resources
2. Learners can priorities the aspects of language that they want to learn.
3. By choosing and prioritizing, learners set their own learning goals.

4. Learner may plan what their learning strategies should be and change them if they are not successful.

From the previous description it could be obviously stated that by using proper strategies, student seemed to know what they were doing, what they were supposed to do in the process of learning. They have made steps or systematic frameworks to anticipate any problem they probably faced. By this way, the learning is likely to be more effective and systematic.

Rubin (1975: 45) stated there are seven strategies used by good language learners in learning language skills, they are:

a. The good language learner is a willing and accurate guesser. A good guesser is one who gathers and stores information in an efficient manner. The good guesser uses all the clues, which the setting offers him and thus is able to narrow down from the meaning and intent of the communication might be. In this sense, he is carrying over into his second language behaviours something that all of us do in or first language interactions. Guessing emphasizes on what we know about the social relationship between the researcher, the setting, the event, the channels and all of the other parameters.

b. The good language has strong drive to communicate or to learn from communication. He really to do many things to get his message across. He would practise sending the message by writing letter, diary, note in English. Having this strong motivation to communicate, the good learner uses whatever knowledge he has to get his message across.

c. The good language learners is often not inhibited. He would appear foolish toward reasonable communication result. He would make mistake in order to learn and to communicate.
d. The good language learner is prepared to attend to form. He was constantly looking to pattern in the language. He had practice in attending to the important formal feature of language.

e. The good language learner practises, he may practise writing sentences, paragraph, imitate the sound of native speaker, listening to what the native said etc.

He usually took advantages of every opportunity to write in class as well as in home.

f. The good language learner always monitor his development. That is constantly attending to how well is he writing being received and whether it has made standards he has learnt.

g. The good language learners attends to meaning how knows that in order to understand the message, it is not sufficient to pay attention to the grammar of the language or to the surface from of writing. He attended to the context of writing act and attended to the rules of speaking and the mood of the writing act.

On the other hand, Hammond (1983) stated that there are some strategies students might employ in learning writing and they would become better writing learners if they always want to know new thing (a), would be accurate observers (b), can respect accurate information (c), always try to learn writing with specific purpose (d), continually questions their sentences, asking themselves whether they have been specific enough (e), be confident with their own voice (f) always try to so avoid researchers’ block (g), try to use various useful methods of organization (h), begin to write from the first draft attending only to facts, ideas, and structure, saving matters of expression, spelling and punctuation for revision (i), be confident in their ability to revise their own writing (j).

1.8 Rubin’s Learning Strategies in English Speaking
The researchers quoted from Asrori the evidences that let our brainstorming to Oxford’s strategy systems be easier. The Oxford’s classification of learning strategies was introduced first by O’malley (1985) and Rigney (1978). He stated that in an attempt to produce a classification scheme with mutually exclusive categories, he developed their own identifying learning strategies which they divided into three categories. They are *metacognitive*, *cognitive* and *social*. In the following years, this categories was developed more by Rubin into *indirect strategies and direct strategies*. Indirect strategies was classified in to metacognitive, social and affective strategies. Meanwhile, direct strategies was developed in to memory strategies, cognitive strategies and compensative strategies.

Based on the previous research by Asrori (2000: 26) finding showed good learning strategies used by good language learners, they were:

1. Good learners practise as often as possible especially after they got new material from their teacher. This type is called as *metacognitive strategy*.
2. They have high motivation and self confidence. This type is belonging to *affective strategy*.
3. They enjoy studying alone or together with their friends. It refers to *social strategy*.
4. They tend to memorize new structure or vocabularies they just have. It refers to *memory strategy*.
5. They like to try practicing new patterns of structure by writing it directly in the sentences or short paragraph. It refers to *cognitive strategy*.
6. They like to guess the words they do not know. It is called as *compensantory strategy*.

Asrori’s research finding (2000: 32) also showed us that poor learners lack strategies in learning English as follows:
a. Poor learners do less English practise. They seldom write anything in English. They lack metacognitive strategy.

b. Most of them do not have high motivation in learning English. They do not like English. They lack affective strategy.

c. Some poor learners do not like studying together. They lack social strategy.

d. Some poor learner do not like to memorize the subject they just have. They lack memory strategy.

e. Only few poor learners like to practise new pattern of structure by writing it directly in paragraph. They lack cognitive strategy.

f. Most of the poor learner do not like to guess the words they do not know. They lack compensantory strategy.

![Diagram 2.1 Oxfords' Learning Strategies](image)

Generally, Rubin’s learning strategies are divided into two major classes of learning strategies, they are:

### 1.8.1 Direct Strategies

Direct strategies dealing with the new language is like the performer in stage play, working with the language itself in variety of specific tasks and situations. The direct class is composed of memory strategies for remembering and retrieving new information, cognitive
strategies for understanding and producing the language and compensation strategies for using the language despite knowledge gaps.

The performer work closely with the director for the best possible outcome.

1.8.1.1 Memory Strategies

Memory strategies are the strategies of which the learners manage their own learning process by Creating Mental Linkages, Applying Images and Sound, Reviewing Well and Employing Action.

Diagram 2.2 Memory Strategies

a. Creating Mental Linkage

The process involve in this step are:

1. **Grouping**, such as gathering the words into the same classification
2. **Associating**, the students are trying to review their English words into sentences.
3. **Placing** new words into context, the students use the new English words into sentences.

b. Applying Images and Sounds

This process is divided into four strategies, they are:

1. **Using imagery**, the students try to remember their native language vocabularies to remember their target language.
2. **Semantic mapping using keywords**, the students use some words to remember the words they want to learn

3. **Representing sound in memory**. Remembering new language information according to its sound. This is a broad strategy that can use any number of technique, all of which create a meaningful sound based association between the new material and already known material. For instance, you can link a target language with other words in any language that sound like the target language

c. **Reviewing Well**

The category just contains one strategy, structured reviewing. Looking at new target language information once is not enough; it must be reviewed in order to be remembered. Reviewing in carefully speed intervals, this strategy sometimes is called as “spiralling” because the learners keep spiralling back to what has already been learnt at the same time. This strategy might start with a review 10 minutes after initial learning, then 20 minutes later, an hour or two later, a day or two day, a week and so on.

d. **Employing Action**

The two strategies in this set, using physical response or sensation and using mechanical tricks, both involve some kind of meaningful movement or action. These will appeal to learners who enjoy the kinesthetic or tactile modes of learning.

1. **Using Physical Response or sensation**, physical acting out a new expression (e.g. going to the door) or meaningfully relating a new expression to a physical feeling or sensation).

2. **Using Mechanical Technique**, using creative but tangible techniques, especially involving moving or changing something, which is concrete. In order to remember new
target language information. Examples are writing words in cards or moving cards from one stack to another when a word is learnt, and putting different types of materials in separate sections of a language learning notebook.

1.8.1.2 Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies are essential in learning a new language. Such strategies are varied a lot, ranging from repeating to analyzing expression to summarizing. With all their variety, cognitive strategies are unified by a common function, manipulating or transformation of the target language by the learners.

![Diagram 2.3 Cognitive Strategies](image)

Strategies for practiseing are among the most important cognitive strategies. Language learners do not always realize how essential practice are. During class, potential practice opportunities are often missed because one person recites while the other sits idle. Practicing involves repeating, formally practising with sounds and writing system, recognizing and using formulas and patterns recombining and practising naturalistically.
Language learners commonly use analysing and reasoning strategies. Many learners, especially adults, tend to reason out of the new language. They construct formal models in their minds based on the analysis and comparison, create general rules, and revise those rules when the new information is available. This process is extremely valuable. The process beyond this strategy are: *Reasoning Deductively, Analysing Expression, Analysing Contrastively, Translating, and Transferring*. The final strategy included in cognitive strategies is *Creating Structure for Input and Output*. The following three strategies are ways to create structure, which is necessary for both comprehension and production in the new language.

1. **Taking Notes**, writing down the main idea or specific points. This strategy can involve raw notes, or it can compromise a more systematic from of note taking such as the shopping list format, semantic map or the standard outline form.

2. **Summarizing**, making a summary or abstract of a longer passage.

3. **Highlighting**, using a variety of emphasis technique (such as underlining, starring, or color coding) to focus on important information in a passage.

1.8.1.3 Compensatory Strategies
Compensatory strategy enables learners to use the new language for either comprehension or production despite limitation in knowledge. Compensatory strategies are intended to make up for inadequate repertoire grammar and especially vocabulary. Ten comprehension strategies exist, clustered into two sets: (a) guessing intelligently in listening and (b) reading overcoming limitations in speaking and writing.

Guessing strategies, sometimes called “interfencing” involve using a wide variety of clues linguistic and non-linguistic to guess the meaning when the learner does not know the words. Good language learner when confronted with unknown expression, make educated guesses. On the other hand, less adept language learners often panic, tune out, or the dog eared dictionary and try to look up every unfamiliar word harmful responses which impede progress toward proficiency.

Beginners are not only ones who employ guessing. Advanced learners and even native speakers use guessing when they have not heard something well enough.

1.8.2 Indirect Strategies

Indirect strategies for general management of learning can be likened to the director of the play. This class is made up of metacognitive strategies for coordinating the learning process, affective strategies for regulating emotions and social strategies for learning with others. The director serves a host of functions, like focusing, organizing, guiding, checking, correcting, coaching, encouraging, and cheering the performer works cooperatively with other actor in the play. The director is an internal guide to the performer and it means that indirect strategies are beyond the direct strategies.

1.8.2.1 Metacognitive Strategies
Metacognitive means beyond, beside or with the cognitive. Therefore, metacognitive strategies are actions which go beyond purely cognitive devices, and which provide a way for learners to coordinate their own learning process. Metacognitive strategies include three strategies sets: *Centering Your Learning, Arranging and Planning Your Learning and Evaluating Your Learning.*

![Diagram 2.5 Metacognitive strategies](image)

Metacognitive strategies are essential for successful language learning. Language learners are often overwhelmed by too much “newness” unfamiliar vocabulary, confusing rules different writing system, seemingly inexplicable social customs, and non traditional instructional approaches. With all this novelty, any learners lose their focus, which can be only regained by the conscious use of metacognitive strategies such as paying attention and over viewing/linking with already familiar material.

Other metacognitive strategies like organizing, setting goals and objectives, considering the purpose, and planning for a language task, help learners to arrange and plan their language learning in efficient way. The metacognitive strategy of seeking practice opportunities is especially important. Learners who are seriously interested in learning a new language must
take responsibility to seek as many practice as possible, usually outside of the classroom. Even in a second language situation, ripe with opportunities for practice, learners must actively search for and take advantage of these possibilities.

Sometimes language learners have problems in realistically monitoring these errors. Students may become traumatized when they made errors. This failing is to realize that they would undoubtedly make them and should therefore try to learn from them. Student may also underrate their proficiency. The academic grading system which generally rewards discrete point of ruled learning rather than communicative competence, make confusion about overall progress worse. Using the metacognitive strategies of self monitoring and self evaluating can ameliorate these problems unrealistically monitoring of errors and inadequate evaluation of progress, can be ameliorated by using the metacognitive strategies of self monitoring and self evaluating.

1.8.2.2 Affective Strategies

The term of affective refers to emotions, attitudes, motivations, and values. It is impossible to overstate the importance of the affective factors influencing language learning. Language learners can gain control over these factors through affective strategies exist: lowering your anxiety, encouraging yourself, and taking your emotional temperature. Brown (1994) stated that the affective domain is impossible to describe within the definable limits. It spreads out like a fine sput net, encompassing such concepts as self esteem, attitudes, motivation, anxiety, culture shock, inhibition, risk taking and tolerance for ambiguity. The affective side of the learners is probably one of the biggest influences on language learning success or failure. Good language learners are often those who know how to control emotions and attitudes about learning.
On the other hand, positive emotions could make language learning far more effective and enjoyable. Teachers could exert a tremendous influence over the emotional atmosphere of the classroom in three different ways: by changing the social structure of the classroom to give students more responsibility, by providing increased amounts of naturally occurring communication and by teaching learners to use affective strategies. Self-esteem is one of primary affective elements. It is a self-element of worth or value, on feeling of interaction effectively with one's own environment.

Diagram 2.6 Affective Strategies

The sense of efficacy that underlies self-esteem is reflected in attitude (mental disposition, beliefs, or opinion) which influence the learning motivation in any area of life and especially in language learning. Working together among other friends can influence language learning performance itself, including both language proficiency and proficiency in specific language skills, such as listening comprehension, reading comprehension and oral production.

1.8.2.3 Social Strategies

Language is a form of social behaviour. It is means of communication, and then communication occurs between and among people. Learning a language that involves other
people and appropriate social strategies are very important in this process. Three sets of
social strategies. Each set comprising two specific strategies are included in three social
strategies. They are *asking questions, cooperating with others, and empathizing with others.*

![Diagram 2.7 Social Strategies]

One of the most basic social interactions is asking questions, an action from which learners
get closer to the intended meaning and their understanding. It also helps learners encourage
their conversations partner’s response to the learner’s question indicates interest and
involvement. Moreover, the conversation partner’s response to the learner’s questions
indicates whether the question itself was understood, thus providing indirect feedback about
the learner’s production skills. The content of questions is important. One social strategy
concerns asking questions for clarification or verification. Other related social strategy is to
ask for correction, which is especially useful in the classroom. The classroom setting
provides much more overt correction than do natural, informal social settings.

This is also like what Rubin (1987) stated that learning theory would suggest that it is the best
to build on what the students know or better still, to help them what they know. Since each
student’s knowledge differs, it is essential for students to be able to assess their own
knowledge. This knowledge includes about what they know their own learning process, about what they know about language (language and any second or foreign language) and what they know about the communication process.

Moreover, Candlin (1987:133) pointed out that learner who uses learning strategy become more effective learner. This means that by using learner strategy, learners would be able to learn more effectively.

In addition, Hossenfeld (1978) and Wenden (1986) in Candlin (1987:71) gave some steps in defining a learning strategy, they are:

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

Learning strategy is the operation used by the learner in gaining their success in learning. Oxford (1989:236) has found six broad groups of strategy system used by good language learners, they are metacognitive, affective, social, memory, cognitive and compensatory. The example are good language learners manage their own learning process through metacognitive strategies, such as paying attention, self-evaluating, and self-monitoring (1), they control their emotion attitude through affective strategies, such anxiety reduction and self-encouragement (2), they work with others to learn the language, using social strategies like asking questions and becoming culturally aware (3), they use memory strategies, such as grouping, imagery, structured review, to get information into memory and to recall it when needed (4), they employ the new language directly with cognitive strategies, such as practising, naturally, analysing contrastively and summarizing (5), they overcome
knowledge limitation through compensantory strategies, like guessing meanings intelligently and using synonyms or others production tricks when the precise expression is unknown. The learners could involved in those strategies system and in what group of strategy they are.

1.7 Hypothesis

To see any correlation in this research, the researcher formulated hypothesis as follows:

H0 : There is no significant correlation between mostly learning strategies of field independent student and student’s speaking ability.

H1 : There is a significant correlation between mostly learning strategies of field independent student and student’s speaking ability.