

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, the literature review for the research is provided. The discussion will cover writing, speaking, writing-speaking relationship, conversational writing, interactional speaking, review of relevant research, and theoretical assumption.

2.1. The Concept of Language

In their lives, humans always intend to share what they have and influence one another. Sharing and influencing might mean conveying the intended meanings through certain medium. Goldstein (2008) suggests that language is a system consists of two media, sound and symbol, for expressing feelings, thoughts, ideas, and experiences. In addition to that, a definition from Weiten (2007) that language contains symbols that convey meanings, plus rules for combining them that are used for generating infinite variety of messages.

However, the symbols in language are purely human and non-instinctive and produced voluntarily (Sapir, 1921). They are often used by social groups for cooperating (Bloch and Trager, 1942). Such symbols are often regarded and understood not exactly as they are. Searle (1979) believes that there are some things lie behind the literal meanings of an utterance called the illocutionary force.

An example he provided was the statement ‘Can you reach the salt ?’ that is not produce by means of asking about someone’s ability, but it brings a force that turns it into a request (Searle, 1979).

In conclusion, language is a system of human communication that consists of sound and symbols that are expressed and perceived in various ways.

2.2. The Nature of Writing

Writing is a skill in which we express the ideas, feelings, and thoughts arranged in words, sentences, and paragraph using eyes, brain, and hand (Raimes, 1983). It is a difficult skill to teach as it requires not only of grammatical devices (dealing with the devices used to create writing based on the correct grammar; the set of structural rules that govern the composition of clauses, phrases, and words in language), and the rhetorical or cohesive devices used to manipulate the language to effectively transmit the author’s message to the reader; such the using of analogy that compares two pairs which have the same relationship, but also of conceptual and judgmental elements (Heaton, 1991 : 135).

When someone is writing, s/he is actually creating an effort to create a dialogue with the readers, and it involves exploring our relationship to our readers in much the same way that we explore our relationship to people we talk to (Gould, 1989 : 3) that is why writing involves rational thinking or commonly called as logic which has a predominant role in it (Hairston, 1986 : 5).

To create a good piece of writing that can bring writer's idea into readers' minds, there are some elements for the writer to pay a close attention to. An effective composition should meet the qualities in some terms proposed by Jacobs (1981 : 90) below :

1. Content :

The substance of writing, the experience of the main idea, i.e., groups of related statements that a writer presents as unit in developing a subject. Content paragraph do the work of conveying ideas rather than fulfilling special function of transition, restatement, and emphasis.

2. Organization :

The logical organization of contents. It is scarcely more than an attempt to place together all condition of fact and jumble ideas. Even in early drafts it may still be searching for order, trying to make out patterns in its materials and working to bring particulars of its subject in line with what is still only a half-formed notion of purpose.

3. Vocabulary :

The selection of words that are suitable with the content. It begins with the assumption that the writer wants to express the ideas as clearly and directly as he/she can. As a general rule, clarity should be his/her prime objective. Choosing words that express his/her meaning is precisely rather than skews it or blurs it.

4. Language Use :

The use of correct grammatical form and synthetic pattern of separating, combining, and grouping ideas in words, phrases, clauses, and sentences to bring out logical relationship in paragraph writing.

5. Mechanic :

The use of graphic conventional of the language, i.e., the steps of arranging letters, words, paragraphs by using knowledge of structure and some other related to one another.

Therefore, writing can be seen as a fluency activity, because in writing, someone tries to use cohesive device, choose various structures to develop meaning, and raises his awareness of parallelism (Hedge, 2000). In short, writing can be sort of preparation for facing the speaking situation in which everything is fast and direct. Writing is also a good activity for improving language accuracy. According to Raimes (1983), writing reinforces grammar, structures, idioms, and vocabulary; it is a unique way to reinforce learning.

In writing, the language used is, by some linguists, believed to be different from the language spoken in some terms. Writing is permanent, clearly delineated, and readily available for inspection (Hughes, 1996). van Lier (1995) also argues that writing is visible, permanent, and delayed. When it comes to the matter of structure, Halliday (in Nunan, 1991) implies that the written language is more complex compare to the spoken language that is, according to him, more basic. The written language is also indirect, considering that writing is distant and writers have to make inferences about the relevant knowledge possessed by the readers (Nunan, 1991).

To sum up, writing involves many similar components and also different components to speaking. Despite the way they are different, the writing may produce characteristics of utterances which are similar to those in speaking.

2.3. The Nature of Speaking

Speaking is encoding process whereby, we communicate our ideas, thought, and feeling through, one or the other forms of language (Harris, 1974 : 9). Very often people talk in order to tell people things they do not know, or to find things out from other people (Doff, 1987) or maybe to express oneself in life situation, or converse, to report acts or situation in practice words or the ability to express ideas fluently (Lado, 1961).

Speaking is also one of the four basic skills of language and it has an important role in daily life, because it is the main skill in communication (Welty and Welty, 1976). Whenever we need something, we interact with others through language as a medium. In short, when we speak, we have an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing and receiving and processing information (Burns and Joyce, 1997).

Therefore, in speaking, it is suggested that the speaker deals with some aspects (Harris, 1974 : 75) :

1. Pronunciation : Person's way of pronouncing words. One who learns English as a foreign language must be able to use English pronunciation as well as the other skills (Ostler, 1985 : 431).

2. Grammar : A study of rules of language inflection. It is a system of units and patterns of language (Lado, 1970).
3. Vocabulary : The words used in language. Phrase, clauses, and sentence are built up by vocabulary. In short, vocabulary is very important because without words we cannot speak at all (Wilkins, 1972 : 111).
4. Fluency : Language production and it is normally reserved for speech. It is the ability to link units of speech together with facility and without strain or inappropriate slowness, or undue hesitation (Hedge, 2000 : 54).
5. Comprehension : The ability of understanding the speakers' intention and general meaning (Heaton, 1991 : 35).
6. Accuracy : The use of correct forms where utterances do not contain errors affecting the phonological, syntactic, semantic, or discourse features of a language (Byrne, 1988).

The language used in speaking situation can be somewhat similar to the written language especially in places where a language is learnt through textbooks. The language learners, who will turn into language users, who are exposed to the book language rather than the authentic language would often use the language which resembles the features of written language in speaking situation as they are lack of language awareness and repertoire. This may happen because what get included in materials largely defines what may count as 'legitimate' knowledge (Young, 1971 in Nunan, 1991). Therefore, learning materials' organisation, presentation, content, and activities will shape the learners' view of language (Nunan, 1991).

In conclusion, the way people speak always provides some possibilities, a talk breakdown or an agreement. The directness of speaking may become the main cause of someone gets hampered when he is about to express his intended meanings due to the lack of experience in using the forms.

2.4. Writing-Speaking Relationship

Speaking, together with writing, belongs among productive skills (Harmer, 2001). Writing is simply a way of preserving speech and may be referred to metaphorically as ‘frozen speech’ (Moxley, 1990 : 127). Although language and writing are two distinct systems of signs; the second exists for the sole purpose of representing the first (de Saussure, 1915/1966 : 23 in Moxley, 1990).

Writing is an effort to create a dialogue with readers, and it is when exploring our relationship to our readers in much the same way that we explore our relationship to people we talk to (Gould, 1989 : 30.) While in speaking, we do not merely know how to assemble sentences in the abstract: we have to produce them and adopt to the circumstances. This means making decisions rapidly, implementing them smoothly, and adjusting our conversation as unexpected problems appear in our path (Bygate 1987, 3). There are also several differences in language structure: the grammar and vocabulary of writing is by no means the same as that of speech, nor do the contrasts available in the writing system correspond to those available in the sound system (Crystal, 2005 : 1).

Once a visual word code makes contact with the phonological word code in reading, we assume that the meaning of the word can be elicited by means of a direct associative connection between the phonological unit...and the semantic meaning unit (LeBerge & Samuels, 1985 : 703 in Moxley, 1990). When someone writes something, he deals with written words by, at least, comprehending the meanings. As the result of that process, someone can enrich his knowledge on meanings. With the acquisition of new words, the breadth and depth of semantic knowledge also increases (Landauer and Dumais, 1997 in Gleason, 2005). Following the increase, he will somehow be able to use the same forms in a speaking action, because words spoken are symbols or signs of affection or impressions of the soul; written words are the signs of words spoken (Aristotle, 1938 : 115 in Moxley, 1990).

The table of comparison below might clearly show how writing is similar to speaking up to certain extents.

Writing	Speaking
Promotes fluency in : using cohesive device, choosing various structures to express meanings. (Hedge, 2000 : 326)	Is communicating ideas through forms of language. (Harris, 1974 : 9)
Gives writers chance to try to communicate with readers in similar way to spoken situation. (Gould, 1989 : 30)	Means attempting to get understood or to give permission to communicate. (Jespersen, 1894)

<p>Lets people be adventurous with the language, and therefore it is a unique way reinforce the learning that covers : grammar, structure, vocabulary. (Raimes, 1983 : 3) Writing is a medium for input.</p>	<p>Forces someone to make decisions rapidly, implement them smoothly, and adjust conversation. (Bygate, 1987 : 3) Speaking is a medium for output.</p>
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It can be simply concluded that writing and speaking is influencing each other and therefore, the influences should be defined and characterised by finding the similarities between the products of both and by analysing the perception of someone who uses the language in writing and speaking evenly.

2.5. Interactional Speaking

Interactional speech is communicating with someone for social purpose (Bailey, 2006). It is something different from the transactional speaking in which someone only speaks in order to get what he wants to get. Nunan (1991) states similar opinion that transactional speaking will usually contain highly predictable pattern and very restricted in kinds, while interactional speaking is more fluid and unpredictable. Considering that interactional speaking is intended for social purpose, there must be a need for providing more expressions and different ways to use them. The language that is used would be very rich, a lot more dynamic, compare to the language that is well-planned and made as brief as possible in

transactional speaking, because the most important is that the purpose is achieved, nothing to do with the social relationship.

In interactional speaking, the speaker needs to be aware of the factors that make the talk effective and interactive. Someone needs to know not only linguistic knowledge, but also the culturally acceptable ways of interacting with others in different situations and relationships (Hymes, 1971). Following that statement, there are things to be taken into account.

The first thing to deal with is grammar and structure, simply say, accuracy. Dealing with accuracy, a thing to think about is that irritating errors can result in impatience (Why can't s/he get it right?) or negative judgements about the intelligence or social class of the speaker. Another consequence could be that the listener decides not to make the extra effort required to interpret non-standard forms (Allen & Waugh, 1986).

The next thing to get on with is discourse matter. In a talk for interaction, the language used by both speakers must cover a wide range of repertoire as there are need to choose which form to use and which one not, based on the situation in which the talk takes place. To make the speech effective, the speakers should acquire a large repertoire of structures and discourse markers to express ideas, show relationships of time, and indicate cause, contrast, and emphasis (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992).

The last thing to discuss is the sociolinguistic matter. The required language is the one that meets the rules and norms governing the appropriate timing and realisation of speech acts (Shumin, 2002 in Richards & Renandya,

2002). Understanding the sociolinguistic side of language helps learners know what comments are appropriate, how to ask questions during interaction, and how to respond nonverbally according to the purpose of the talk (Shumin, 2002 in Richards & Renandya, 2002).

As a conclusion, interactional speaking requires at least three aspects, the grammar, discourse, and sociolinguistics. The three are really essential as they play an important role in keeping the continuity of a talk for maintaining the social relationship.

2.6. Conversational Writing

Conversational writing was actually the term proposed by Thornbury (2005) as paper conversation in which writing can be an attempt to slow down the process from learning to using the language. In this activity, learners have a 'conversation' with their classmates, but instead of speaking, they write the conversation on a shared sheet of paper (Thornbury, 2005 : 68).

In the real life setting, this activity can be found on chat rooms as what has been a trend among people nowadays. Thornbury also used a term computer-mediated chat. Many people do this activity on their cell phones (like messenger and short message service), computers (on websites). There is a study with an interesting finding related to this matter. The result shows that people who spend two hours in a week in chat rooms get their oral fluency increased (Payne & Whitney in Thornbury, 2005 : 68).

However, an emphasis here should be on the product of the activity itself. The increase of fluency in oral communication that is affected by the conversational writing must cover some areas of similarities, and therefore, how the product of this practice is similar to the spoken product must be an interesting thing to analyse.

2.7. Review of Relevant Research

Previously, there were three studies focusing on writing-speaking and speaking-writing relationship found by the writer :

The first one is an undergraduate research done by Rizki Amalia from University of Muhammadiyah Gresik. The research was focused on providing an empirical evidence in support of a theory of foreign language acquisition and development addressing the correlation between writing and speaking proficiencies in foreign language learners. The approach taken was a descriptive quantitative and therefore there were four kinds of data : nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio. The collected data were then analysed by using Pearson Product Moment Formula with SPSS 17.00. The result shows a significant positive correlation between writing and speaking skill at the secondary year at SMA NU 1 Gresik (Amalia, 2011).

The next one is a dissertation of Ph.D program conducted by Michael David Hubert from Purdue University that was focused on characterizing the relationship between concurrent development of second language writing and

speaking proficiencies. Native speakers of English who were learning Spanish as foreign language at beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels were involved as participants in the research. The findings show a weak correlation between speaking and writing at beginning levels of study, and a much stronger correlation at the intermediate and advanced levels. Also, writing was found to be the modality in which more newly-presented grammatical forms were produced at the beginning and intermediate levels. Lastly, almost all subjects self-reported as not engaging in Spanish writing outside the classroom (Hubert, 2008).

And last, the research done by Utami Widiati and Sri Widayati that was presented at SEAMEO RELC 1997 indicates a presence of a chance for further research on the effect of increased oral skills on students' writing or vice versa (Widiati & Widayati, 1997).

Some older research, as cited in Chafe and Tannen (1987), shows that there are no big difference between the language in speaking and writing. Lull (1929) recorded both spoken and written language of children in grades one to eight then classified the data into : content, grammar, and diction. The conclusion is that children start to write better than speaking i the first half of fifth grade. A minor conclusion here is that children under fifth grade are unaware of the spoken and written language.

Blankenship in the early 1960s research recorded a campus lectures by Allan Nevits, Margaret Mead, Frances Perkins, and Adlai Stevenson then compared the recording with that of their writings. Only little difference was found between speeches and writings in terms of sentence length and complexity.

A more unique finding is found when the speed and ways of writing are compared. Horowitz & Newman (1964) compared the handwriting, typing, and stenotyping and they found that the faster the mode of writing, the more spoken-like the language. This phenomenon might have something to do with the writing strategies. 'Basic writers' rely on oral strategy in writing (Cayer and Sacks, 1964). It was proven in their research when the record of discussion on a controversial topic among eight college freshmen was compared to their written composition about the same matter. Ochs (1979) also states that certain communicative strategies used by children are retained by adults in their unplanned communication situation (typically spoken language).

A clearer evidence was found by Hidi and Hillyard (1983) when they asked children in grade three to five to talk or write about whether children should be allowed to choose what they watch on TV, and to complete a narrative for which the researchers provided an introduction. Their findings are : no clear difference between genre (opinion and narratives), no difference between spoken and written language in terms of semantic well-formedness, cohesion, and discourse structure. This result is in line with Biber's (1984) findings. He applied a factor analysis to the very large data base from London-lund (spoken) and Lancaster Oslo-Bergen (written corpora) in terms of the distribution of 67 different syntactic and lexical features in several hundred text samples representing 23 genres. The result shows that there is no single absolute difference between speech and writing in English.

2.8. Direct and Indirect Speech Acts

The last thing to deal with is the speech acts used in both speaking and writing, because speech act exists in every utterance. Austin (1962, in Geis 1995) implies that speech act is kinds of meaning in utterances. When someone says something, there are three kinds of act s/he produces : locutionary (literal meaning), illocutionary (social function), and prelocutionary (the effect).

In addition, Searle (in Geis, 1995) provides an example of indirect speech, which is a part of illocutionary act, as follows :

Student X : "Let's go to the movies tonight."

Student Y : "I have to study for an exam."

By using this example, Searle suggests two illocutionary acts. The first one is that student Y rejects the invitation, and the second one is that student Y has to study (Searle in Geis, 1995). Levinson (1983) also provides an example, that he says beyond theories, of speech act in classroom interaction :

Teacher : "What are you laughing at ?"

Child : "Nothing."

By using this example, Levinson explains that the illocutionary force behind the literal meaning of the teacher's utterance is a command for the child to stop laughing.

More classification was promoted by Parker (1986 in Nadar, 2009). It is said that an utterance can be literal or non-literal, direct or indirect. Based on the theories, some examples are made by the writer as follows :

1. Literal and direct act

An utterance “*Close the door. I do not want to have any visitor now.*” that is said by a lecturer to an office boy has a literal meaning. It is also an imperative sentence that is directly addressed to the office boy.

2. Non literal and direct act

An utterance “*We have a full house tonight, break a leg.*” said by a backstage staff to the play artists does not mean an order to really break a leg, rather than that, the true meaning is ‘good luck’ that has a telling function directly addressed to the stage actors.

3. Literal and indirect act

An utterance “*Can you bring me a lunch ?*” said by a boy to his roommate has a literal meaning that he wants a lunch. But the indirectness here lies on the use of an interrogative sentence with an illocutionary force that means ‘bring me my lunch’ rather than only asking for the roommate’s ability to do so.

4. Non literal and indirect act

An utterance “*Can you close the door from the outside ?*” said by a teacher to a student is not a literal utterance as the teacher does not actually have a problem whether the door is closed or not. This utterance is also indirect because it is an

interrogative sentence that brings a command for the student to leave the class rather than a real question about the student's ability.

2.9. Theoretical Assumptions

In the practice of conversational writing, the language used is closer to the spoken one because the communication required is the direct one, but not too direct as there is always plenty of time that can be used for typing and thinking. However, for some non-native speakers of English who are more accustomed to having contacts with fabricated language in text books, there is no big gap between their spoken and written language.

Conversational writing also gives chances for people to deliver the meanings in a more planned and slower way, the subjects involved in that practice will be able to 'play' with some language features they have learnt, generate more ideas, provide further elaboration for certain topic, select a more appropriate way of expressing meanings by using speech acts.

As interactional speaking has many elements that are related to those in conversational writing, there is a possibility that people use the language with similar features in both writing and speaking, somewhat like restating what they have written previously.

In terms of speech acts, there could be something sort of habit in using the acts, the subjects will possibly be able or tend to produce similar speech acts to

those in their conversational writing when they want to express similar meanings in speaking situation.