CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, the scope of literature reviewed includes the following topics which are learning training, learner autonomy and oral presentation. This chapter also describes the theoretical framework bases for language learning strategies namely metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and social affective strategies and describes some related research in the area of implementing language learning strategies in language classrooms.

2.1 Learner Training

"Give a Man a Fish, Feed Him for a Day.

Teach a Man to Fish, Feed Him for a Lifetime"

(Lao Tzu)

The above proverb has been used widespread as an educational slogan or principle by many educational institutions. It is a great axiom for the modern world. "Teaching a man to fish" metaphorically refers to training or assisting someone to be able to work and do things independently. This research review also aims to discover how different researchers suggest ways to train foreign language students to become more autonomous or more

independent in their own search for a lifelong learning experience through language learning strategies.

"It has been said that teaching is nothing more than showing someone that something is possible, and learning is merely discovering that something is possible." (McCarthy, 1998)

The concept of training students to become more independent or more autonomous implies a significant shift in how teachers should teach. Many researchers see that learner training is essential in order to develop autonomous students. Benson (2001) cited Holec (1980) on learner training saying that "The basic methodology for learner training should be that of discovery; the students should discover, with or without the help of other students or teachers". He also cited Dickinson and Carver (1980) and Holec, (1980) that "learner training began life as a mechanism to support self-directed learning.

Researchers, such as Tudor (1996), state that a learner-centered approach differs from traditional approaches because a learner-centered approach, as opposed to a teacher-centered approach, requires students to take charge of their own learning. Even though Tudor (1996) raised a question of whether such training can be "realized in practice", he combines the suggestions on the three main target areas which would seem to emerge for students training instruction made by three researchers: Dickinson, Ellis and Sinclair which include:

1. Language learning and language learning processes

2. Language structure and language use

3. The students themselves as language students.

The first two processes refer mainly to language learning and language used while the third process refers to "students' psychological and affective involvement in the learning process." Tudor (1996) also tries to define learner training as the following processes:

1. Students are helped to deepen their understanding of the nature of language learning.

2. To acquire the knowledge and skills they need in order to pursue their learning goals in an informed and self-directive manner.

Wenden (1991), McCarthy (1998), Chamot, Barnhardt, El-dinary and Robbins (1999) see the importance of explicit training in learning strategies. McCarthy (1998) suggests that an explicit training in strategies will help students become more aware of strategies used. Wenden (1991) models five principles derived from strategy training research in non-ESL settings which are informed, self-regulation, contextualized, interactive and diagnosis.

Similar to Wenden (1991), Chamot, Barnhardt, El-dinary and Robbins (1999) designed the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) which provides "explicit instruction in learning strategies that will assist students in becoming independent students who can evaluate their own learning. The table below is to compare guidelines for strategy training suggested by Wenden (1991) and strategy training framework and its definition designed Chamot, Barnhardt, El-dinary and Robbins (1999)

Benson (2001) also proposed that there are various modes in learner training. For example, strategies can be taught separately or an integration of the strategy instruction with language tasks.

This section on literature review shows us the value in learner training and many of the researchers mentioned in this section see the importance of students training in the area of strategy training which aims to develop students to become more autonomous or more independent in their own learning.

Wenden (1991) explains that "Training should be in the context of the subject matter content and/or skill for which it is appropriate. It should be directed to specific language learning problems related to the students' experience." It is also very relevant and important to keep training in giving oral presentations "contextualized." It is one of the skills that Thai students find difficult.

While some researchers such as Wenden (1998) or Chamot, Barnhardt, El-dinary and Robbins (1999) see the importance of explicit instruction, Benson makes an interesting point that "a number of studies indicate that less successful students actually employ the same strategies as those used by successful students."

Therefore, learner training can be useful for explicit or integrated instruction. Teachers have to be aware, however, that in some situations there are factors which may render these learning strategies ineffective. These factors include culture, situation, age, gender, personal learning style and

teachers' attitudes and beliefs (Benson, 2001). The next section in this chapter will therefore discuss "autonomy" and how it can be related to training and language learning strategies.

2.2 Autonomy

According to Benson (2001), the concept of autonomy within the field of language education was actually begun in 1960s by the Council of Europe. Since John Dewey suggests the principle of "learning by doing", there has been a significant shift in learning and teaching theory from teacher-centered to learner-centered (Khammanee, 2007).

It is very important for teachers, researchers, institutions, schools, and etc. to understand the value in viewing students as individuals. Each student comes from a different background of learning experiences. Thus, they have different beliefs and different attitudes towards language learning. The diversity among the students emphasizes the different styles of learning. Students may have different goals and different preferences on how they learn the English language. A challenge is how educational systems can develop the flexibility they will need to apply environments for autonomous learning. The trend towards autonomous learning should be implemented in the educational system. Students and teachers should be educated to understand the value of autonomous learning which can be one of the main paths towards successful language learning.

Many researchers have seen that the concept of autonomy is an "ideal, rather than reality. (Gardner D. and Miller L. 1999 cited Nunan D. 1997). Gardner and Miller agree that the concept of 'autonomy' is difficult to define. They suggest, however, that "the definitions are continuing to mature as more discussion takes place." From their studies of the definition of autonomy Gardner and Miller categorized the definitions of autonomy into three "school of thought": a personal characteristic, a political concept and educational practices. Gardner and Miller (1999), however, see autonomous students as a centre of focus, and they define autonomous language students as those "who initiate the planning and implementation of their own learning program."

Wenden (1991) believes that learner autonomy is developed through strategic training. She sees the autonomous student as one who knows how to learn, has knowledge about learning, acquires learning strategies, and acts independently from teachers.

From other studies cited by Gardner D. and Miller L., the researchers define learner autonomy as a "situation in which the student is totally responsible for all of the decisions concerned with his (or her) learning and the implementation of those decisions" (Dickinson, 1987). Dam et al (1990) defined an autonomous student as "an active participant in the social processes of classroom learning....someone who knows how to learn and can use this knowledge in any learning situation."

Scharle and Szabo (2000) suggest that students become more autonomous through the three learning processes: raising awareness, changing attitudes, and transferring roles. Firstly, students acknowledge that

they would be better students if they took responsibility in their learning. Secondly, students need to change their attitudes, and finally, they become more independent from the teacher.

Similar to Wenden (1991), Scharle and Szabo (2000) also see that students should be trained or exposed to learning strategies which will assist them in managing their own learning. Scharle and Szabo also see that self-monitoring incorporated in metacognitive strategies will bring about autonomous learning. It is apparent that researchers such as Wenden, Scharle and Szabo see that strategic training is one way in promoting autonomous learning.

Benson (2001) cited Little (1990) on what autonomy is not

- Autonomy is not a synonym for self-instruction; in other words, autonomy is not limited to learning without a teacher.
- In the classroom context, autonomy does not entail an abdication of responsibility on the part of the teacher; it is not a matter of letting the students get on with things as best they can.
- On the other hand, autonomy is not something that teachers do to students; that is, it is not another teaching method.
- Autonomy is not a single, easily described behavior.

Autonomy is not a steady state achieved by students. While Little (1990) proposed that "autonomy is not a single easily described behavior," many researchers have attempted to profile the autonomous learner by building up lists of characteristics associated with autonomy in the literature (Benson, 2001). Benson also cited Candy (1991) who has listed over 100 competencies which leads to autonomous learning. Below are some of the characteristics suggested by Candy:

- be methodical and disciplined.

- be logical and analytical

- be reflective and self-aware

- demonstrate curiosity openness and motivation.

- be flexible

- be persistent and responsible

- be venturesome and creative

- show confidence and have a positive self-concept

- be independent and self-sufficient

- have developed information seeking and retrieval skills

- have knowledge about, and skill at, learning processes

- develop and use criteria for evaluating.

Little (1991), however, argues that "it is true, of course, that we recognize autonomous students by their behavior; but that can take numerous different forms, depending on their age, how far they have progressed with their learning, what they perceive their immediate learning needs to be, and so on. Autonomy, in other words, can manifest itself in very different ways.

The term 'learner autonomy' cannot be easily defined. Nevertheless, many researchers agree that within the concept of learner autonomy students are involved with and responsible for their own learning process. The degree of autonomy also demonstrates the complexity of this concept. Students may attain a high degree of autonomy in the skills of reading, but could remain teacher dependent while learning writing (Gardner D. and Miller L., 1999). In summary, there are no students who will be completely autonomous or completely teacher dependent. The results, however, from different studies indicate that students who attain higher degree of autonomy, in other words, are more independent, become more successful students. The level of autonomy which lies within individual student will reflect the responsibility of students who actively take charge of one's own learning which could later on lead them to develop their language competency.

According to Benson (2001), the term 'autonomy' and 'autonomous learning' can cause confusion when the educational community asks questions about their effectiveness. Benson suggests way in clarifying these terms through making a distinction between three aspects of autonomy. He stated that "autonomy as an attribute of the learner, autonomous learning as a mode of learning, and educational practices are designed to foster autonomy.

From the review of the definition of the three terms suggested by Benson (2001): autonomy, autonomous learning and practice in relation to this research leads to the conclusion that students can be become more autonomous students through training them how to use different strategies in developing their language skills or learning skills. The next study therefore is

about language learning strategies and how can it relate to learner training

and learner autonomy as a whole.

2.3 Language Learning Strategies

The most common definition of learning strategies is that it is a process

or way that helps students learn how to learn. The process in learning

strategies is considered primarily cognitive. O'Malley and Chamot (1990)

define learning strategies as a special way of processing information that

enhances comprehension, learning, or retention of the information.

Nunan (1999) defines strategies as, "the mental and communicative

procedures students use in order to learn and use the language." Chamot,

Barnhardt, El-Dinary and Robbins 1999 cited the National Standards in

Foreign Language Education Project (1996) which clearly states that,

"Learning strategies are an integral part of language programs, providing

students with the tools for a lifetime of learning." Chamot, Barnhardt, El-

Dinary and Robbins (1999) refer to the statement made by the National

Standards in Foreign Language Education Project (1996) that learning

strategies is a 'mean to help students become better language students.' In

other words, learning strategies use helps students become self-regulated

language students."

Many research studies on learning strategies among the successful and

less successful students discover that students who know how to learn are

more successful. In other words, students who implement a wider variety of learning strategies become more successful in learning the language (Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, Robbins 1999, Wenden A. 1991). There are different types of learning strategies classified by different researchers. Wenden (1991), O'Malley and Chamot, (1990) classify learning strategies under two main types: cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

In addition to Wenden's ideas towards different types of learning strategies, (1991), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, Robbins (1999), and Pitt (2005) see that the social or social affective is another essential for learning strategies. Rebecca Oxford, cited by Nunan (1999), classified learning strategies with more detail than other researchers. Rebecca Oxford classifies learning strategies under two types: direct and indirect strategies.

"Oxford draws a distinction between *direct* strategies and *indirect* strategies. Direct strategies include such things as memorizing, analyzing and reasoning, and guessing intelligently. As the name suggests, these are specific procedures that students can use to internalize the language. Indirect strategies, on the other hand, include things such as evaluating one's learning, (taking steps to power one's anxiety,) and cooperating with others." (Nunan 1999 cited Rebecca Oxford, 1990)

From the above quotation, direct and indirect strategies can be seen as cognitive processes which focus on the mental method of how students learn.

Indirect strategies can also be summarized in that they focus on the social affective or metacognitive knowledge about language learning which deals with personal knowledge.

The example below gives the explanation of Oxford's (1990: p.17) taxonomy of language learning strategies.

Direct strategies are classified into: (also see Appendix 1 for SILL, version 7.0)

- Memory strategies are used for entering new information into memory storage and for retrieving it when need for communication. (e.g., grouping, representing sounds in memory, structured reviewing, using physical response).

- Cognitive strategies are used for linking new information with existing schemata and for analyzing and classifying it. Cognitive strategies are responsible for deep processing, forming and revising internal mental models and receiving and producing messages in the target language (e.g., repeating, getting the idea quickly, analyzing and taking notes).

- Compensation strategies include such strategies as guessing and using gestures. Such strategies are needed to fill any gaps in the knowledge of the language. (e.g., switching to the mother tongue, using other clues, getting help and using a synonym).

On the other hand, **indirect strategies** are divided into Metacognitive, Affective and Social:

- Metacognitive strategies are techniques used for organizing, planning, focusing and evaluating one's own learning. (e.g., linking new information with already known one, seeking practice opportunities, and self-monitoring).

- Affective strategies are used for handling feelings, attitudes and motivations. (e.g., lowering anxiety by use of music, encouraging oneself and discussing feelings with others).

- Social strategies are used for facilitating interaction by asking questions, and cooperating with others in the learning process, (e.g. asking for classification, cooperating with others and developing cultural understanding). (Shmais, 2003)

From the above example, direct strategies consist of memory strategies, cognitive strategies and compensation strategies while indirect strategies consist of metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. To sum it up, even though different researchers classify different types of strategies under different names, the scope of this study in promoting oral presentation skills will focus only on the three main strategies and their sub-strategies which are cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies and social affective strategies (also know as social mediation).

2.3.1 Metacognitive Strategies

Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary and Robbins (1999) believe that "metacognition, or reflecting on one's own thinking and learning is the hallmark to the successful student". Wenden (1991) sees metacognitive knowledge about language learning as a help in developing learner autonomy. Wenden (1991) states that,

"In a broad sense, metacognitive knowledge includes all facts students acquire about their own cognitive processes as they are applied and used to gain knowledge and acquire skills in varied situation." (p.34)

In defining and separating metacognitive from cognitive strategies is rather difficult and confusing. However, literature reviews from a number of studies helps in differentiating them. In metacognitive strategies, the students select the information that interests them, and then plan, monitor and evaluate language production after it has taken place (see figure 1). Metacognitive strategies can be classified under procedural knowledge which deals with how

students use the language. Therefore, cognitive strategies are declarative knowledge procedures which are concerned with what students know about the language and the mental processes.

Figure 2.1: Metacognitive Processes

Plan

⇩

Monitor

⇩

Evaluate

As shown in figure 2.1 the whole process of metacognitive strategies is involved with selective attention, planning and monitoring and evaluation. To some students, however, they may not use all of these processes while they are learning the language. For example, in O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) study, ESL students use planning, monitoring, and evaluating in carrying out tasks or trying to understand tasks. On the other hand, EFL students only use the planning process in their own language learning strategies. The results from O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) show a lower degree of metacognitive strategies used among EFL students.

In year 1999, Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary and Robbins (1999) presented an updated version of metacognitive model of strategic learning

which is useful for students. They say that "these are the strategies used by good students; all have been successfully incorporated by teachers into second language instruction." The model consists of four metacognitive processes which are planning, monitoring, problem solving, and evaluation. They see the importance of these processes in strategic training.

Wenden (1991) suggests the three kinds of metacognitive knowledge; personal knowledge, strategic knowledge and task knowledge. These three kinds of metacognitive knowledge, according to Wenden (1991) are essential in learning. She believes that students should be trained how to use these strategies. Additionally, Singhal (2001) states that metacognitive strategies are behaviors undertaken by the students to plan, arrange, and evaluate their own learning.

To conclude, metacognitive strategies can be very useful for oral presentation because in conducting an oral presentation, the presenters must plan, monitor, and evaluate their own presentations which show that students need the knowledge on how to apply metacognitive strategies in conducting an oral presentation.

2.3.2 Cognitive Strategies

From the literature review, it is important to understand how cognitive theory applies to second language acquisition. Cognitive theory has been viewed as a primary theory in learning strategies for second language acquisition. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) argue that "second language

acquisition cannot be understood adequately without reference to the interaction between language and cognition."

Ellis (1985), Wenden (1991) and Pitt (2005) view cognitive strategies as a mental step that students use to process linguistic and sociolinguistic content. Chamot and O'Malley, however, follow Anderson's study and other studies who classified learning. Anderson (1983, 1985) distinguishes between what we know about and what we know how to do under two categories of knowledge: declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge. Declarative knowledge consists of information that we know about, such as facts, beliefs, and events. Procedural knowledge is the knowledge of how to perform skills and processes, such as reading, writing, math, computation, and conducting science experiments. (Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, Robbins, 1999)

Cognitive strategies are processes that students use in selecting, retrieving, storing, and using information. These processes are concerned with how language is stored in short term and long term memory. Different researchers describe the process of how students learn and use the new information that they have learned or experienced. For example, in the cognitive psychology paradigm, students first select the information that interests them and then transfer it into working memory. The information will then be acquired and stored in long term memory. Thirdly, they connect the new idea from their working memory and link it with other new ideas. Finally, students search for prior knowledge in their long term memory and then transfer it to their working memory (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). The table below is an illustration and definition of sub strategies under cognitive

strategies which students use to process both linguistic and sociolinguistic

content suggested by O'Malley and Chamot (1990)

Table 2.1: Cognitive Strategies and their description by O'Malley and Chamot

(1990: p.119-120)

Strategies	Description
Resourcing	Using target language reference materials such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, or textbooks.
Repetition	Imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal.
Grouping	Reordering or reclassifying and perhaps labeling the material to be learned based on common attributes.
Deduction	Applying rules to understand or produce the second language or making up rules based on language analysis.
Imagery	Using visual images (either mental or actual) to understand or remember new information.
Auditory representation	Playing back in one's mind the sound of a word, phrase, or longer language sequence.
Keyword method	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
with the first language homonym and the new word in the
second language.

Transfer   Using previous linguistic knowledge or prior skills to
                  assist comprehension or production.

Inference   Using available information to guess meanings of new
                  items, predicts outcomes, or fill in missing information.

Note taking   Writing down key words or concepts in abbreviated
                  verbal, graphic, or numerical form while listening or
                  reading.

Summarizing   Making a mental, oral, or written summary of new
                  information gained through listening or reading.

Recombination   Constructing a meaningful sentence or larger language
                  sequence by combining known elements in a new way.

Translation   Using the first language as a base for understanding
                  and/or producing the second language.

The above table demonstrates a clearer view of cognitive strategies and
its functions which students can utilize them in conducting oral presentations.
While O'Malley and Chamot follow Anderson's study and describe the

processes of how students learn or use the language under declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge, Wenden (1991) follows the information processing theorists. The four stages of the act of human learning are 1) Selecting information from incoming data 2) comprehending it (3) storing it and 4) retrieving it for use.

We can somehow compare the four stages of how humans learn with the two types of knowledge suggested by Anderson (1985). There are some similarities that these two processes share of how humans learn. The first three stages described by information processing theorists are the acquiring process, comprehending and storing process which can be classified under declarative knowledge which deals with static information in memory or what we know about (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). The last stage, retrieving and using process can be classified under procedural knowledge which deals with "dynamic information in memory or what we know how to do" (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990).

Though many theorists base their ideas on declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge, Oxford's (1990a) taxonomy of language learning strategies are classified as direct and indirect strategies (see the example below). In contrast to other researchers, Oxford sees memory strategies as separate from cognitive strategies while other studies see memory strategies as incorporated into cognitive strategies.

According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990) or Oxford (1990a), it is evidential that memory strategies are sub-strategies under cognitive

strategies. Memory, either short term or long term, is one part of the mental process. There are other important sub-strategies which have already been mentioned that students use under cognitive strategies such as resourcing, repetition, grouping, deduction, imagery, auditory representation, keyword method, elaboration, transfer, inference, note-taking, summarizing, recombination and translation (see the definitions from table). EFL students may not use all of these sub-strategies and some strategies may be used more frequently than others in conducting oral presentations.

Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, and Robbins (1999) see the relationship between cognitive and metacognitive strategies. They see that cognitive strategies also involve in the metacognitive processes. For example, note-taking strategy also involve in the metacognitive processes of planning, monitoring, problem-solving and evaluating while summarizing strategy is also under evaluating process of metacognitive strategies. The table below presents individual cognitive strategies according to the metacognitive processes described by Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, and Robbins (1999)

Table 2.2: A comparison between cognitive and metacognitive processes by

Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, and Robbins (1999)

Cognitive Strategies	Metacognitive processes
Set Goals	Planning
Organizational Planning	Planning
Taking Notes	Planning Monitoring Problem-solving Evaluating
Cooperation	Planning Monitoring Problem-solving Evaluating
Using Resources	Problem-solving
Summarizing	Evaluating

The above table demonstrates that in training students how to use

strategies in giving an oral presentation, students need to be able to apply

both cognitive and metacognitive strategies in conducting an oral presentation. Even though there are many cognitive strategies which can be used for conducting an oral presentation, not all of the strategies under cognitive strategies can be useful for giving an oral presentation.

2.3.3 Social Affective Strategies

Out of the three main strategies, cognitive, metacognitive and social affective strategies, the researchers pay the least attention to social affective strategies. Oxford (1994) cited Oxford (1990b) that social and affective strategies are found less often because they pay attention to moods and social relationships that students are in.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) see social affective as involved interaction with another person or intentional control over the emotional effect. Shamais (2003) cited Oxford (1990a) who saw affective and social as separate strategies. Affective strategies are used for processing emotions, attitudes and motivations. Altering social environments with music or plants or animals, or discussing them with other are examples. Social strategies are used for facilitating interaction by asking questions, and cooperating with others in the learning process, (e.g. asking for clarification, cooperating with others and developing cultural understanding).

O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) preliminary classification of learning strategies, the representative strategies under social and affective strategies are cooperation, questioning for clarification and self-talk.

Motivation, student's beliefs, attitude, and culture can also be categorized under social or social affective strategies. Motivation is essential in any kind of learning, especially in language learning. Young (1999) cited findings from Clement's (1980, 1986) study on the social effects saying that self-confidence is one of the keys which motivates students to communicate with native speakers of the language. Gardner and Miller (1999) state that, "In language learning beliefs and attitudes are shaped not only by the education environment but also by family and societal values." Learning a language is beyond just learning in the classroom. Social affective, and society as a whole play an important role in the way a person learns, and 'shapes' how people learn. Wenden (1991) summarizes this by saying, "students whose evaluation towards autonomy is positive will try to become more responsible in their learning and those whose evaluation is negative will not."

In conclusion, social or social affective can be seen as separate strategies. These two strategies, however, support each other. Students who are confident are more likely to become more socialized, which will enable them to use the language more than students with low-self esteem. Even though social affective strategies have a lower degree of usage among students of ESL and EFL, these strategies are vital in training students to understand the importance of communication and also help students to become more independent in learning languages. In other words, social affective strategies will move students towards becoming more autonomous students.

The three strategies domains cognitive, metacognitive and social affective strategies are useful tools in training students to be better in learning

English especially. The researcher believes that they are especially useful in training students to give oral presentations. These strategies explicitly train students about the importance of the specific strategies needed for oral presentation skills.

2.4 Oral Presentation

Oral presentation is seen by researchers as one of many study skills in the area of EAP (English for Academic Purposes). Jordan (1997) describes that EAP has two divisions which are 'common core or subject-specific'.

Jordan (1997) also describes that "many students, whose mother tongue is not English, already possess study skills to an advanced level in their own language. They may simply need help to transfer their skills into English and, possibly, to adjust them to a different academic environment."

Oral presentation skills have been used extensively by language teachers in promoting speaking skills. Researcher such as Jordan (1977) sees that oral presentation is one of the important language learning skills, English for academic purposes. Phuwipadawat (2001) sees that oral presentation is one area of project based learning.

Nantachaipan cited Mandel (1995) saying that "oral [presentations] are speeches that are usually given in business, technical, professional or scientific [environments]. Business and technical presentations are generally either informative or persuasive. In an informative presentation, the presenters are simply delivering the facts. In a persuasive presentation, on the other hand,

the presenters are trying to change some aspects of audience's behavior, attitude or beliefs.

Wongsatian (2007) describes oral presentation as a communication skill essential for education and career. King (2002) sees that oral presentation is an "effective communicative activity that has been widely adopted by EFL conversation teachers to promote oral proficiency". Jordan (2000) cited Nesi and Skelton (1987) who also express that oral presentation is a communication skill. Different from other researchers, Nesi and Skelton (1987), concur that oral presentation is not a language skill. "They are not concerned with total accuracy or fluency."

Talberg (2006), an assistant professor at the faculty of engineering in Norway, suggests that students enjoy doing oral presentations because they can choose topics relevant to their area of study. He sees that oral presentations also activate other skills such as writing and reading.

Similar to Talberg, Yamashiro and Johnson (1998) mention that their students enjoy public speaking through oral presentation "for its practical real-world application and the opportunities it provides for expressing personal ideas."

Jordan (2000) cited Price (1977) who proposed five possible stages in the presentation topic which are 1) general introduction 2) statement of intention 3) information in detail 4) conclusion 5) invitation to discuss. Wongstian also suggests five stages in oral presentation but she uses the word delivery instead of information in detail.

King (2002) proposes important stages for teachers in training students how to give oral presentation as followed:

1. Hand out guidelines

2. Grouping scheduling presentations

3. Choosing topic and gather information

4. Handling technical problem

5. Holding Q/A session

Wongsatian (2007) suggest five main steps in giving presentation which are:

1. Presentation Plan

2. Introductions

3. Delivery

4. Concluding the presentations

5. Handling questions

Otoshi and Heffernen (2008) cited Rust et al (2003) and suggest that students should be taught in detail about the criteria of assessment used for oral presentation in order to build awareness, and their own benefits.

Criteria of assessment for oral presentation suggested by many researchers such as King (2002), Brown (1998), Wongsatian (2007) and etc. focus mainly on content and organization, delivery including voice and postures, visual aids, and language which includes grammar and pronunciation.

In summary, the study review about oral presentation reveals the role of teachers in the way they can best train their students on how to plan, deliver, and evaluate their own presentation in order to be better their skills in giving oral presentation which is one of the study skills need for language learning. Teachers need to act as facilitators who give opportunities to students to express themselves publicly about a topic of interest, and to do so in a structured way. In studying the steps and elements in giving oral presentation students can also tell about the learning strategies which can be useful in planning and giving oral presentation.

2.5 Related Research

Learning strategies are essential in promoting learner autonomy and assisting students of second or foreign language to become more successful in their own learning language. Therefore, there are many studies related to this topic. These studies are based on the hypothesis that students who use higher degrees of learning strategies are more successful in learning language.

The first studies on this subject were the studies conducted by O'Malley and Chamot (1990). They use the same methodology in finding out strategies which are used by ESL and EFL students. The participants of the first group were Vietnamese and Spanish students. The participants from the EFL groups were Spanish and Russian students. These two groups of ESL and EFL students used metacognitive, cognitive and social affective or social mediation strategies. The results show that both of these groups use higher numbers of

cognitive strategies than other types of strategies. However, EFL students use only planning strategies under metacognitive strategies, while ESL learns use planning, monitoring and evaluating.

Many researches on learning strategies are often focused on the types of strategies which students used or strategy usage among successful and less successful students. Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary and Robbins (1999) refer to many other studies on the instruction of learning strategies. The finding from the data analysis from different studies found that there is an increasing use of learning strategies; attitudes and self-efficacy after the students are being instructed in how to use more or less direct strategies.

Pitt (2005) summaries different studies conducted under the area of learning strategies. She concludes that "good students were active and strategic, and could focus on the requirements of a task, reflect on their own learning processes, and transfer previously learned concepts and learning strategies to the demands of the English as a second language (ESL) or general education content classroom (Pitt, 2005 cited Chamot, 1987 and O'Malley et al, 1985a).

Different from O'Malley and Chamot's studies of strategies usage among ESL and EFL students, Shmais (2003) examines language studies used in Palestine. She conducted the study using the strategy inventory for a language learning questionnaire. The result shows that the students from An-Najah National University use a higher degree of metacognitive strategies than cognitive strategies. Her discussion about the finding is rather interesting as

she mentions that students have limited opportunities to use functional practice strategies in a classroom with many students. The results also show that the items that the students choose relate highly to the strategies which would assist them in passing the examination.

There are also different tools in conducting research on learning strategies suggested by Pitt 2005, O'Malley and Chamot 1990 and Wenden 1991. Questionnaires can be used with high numbers of students in comparing strategies usage among successful and less successful students. However, learning strategies are involved with mental process rather than students' self-analysis. Reports such as retrospective interview, introspective interview or thinking aloud protocol can be used in analyzing individual student usage of strategies.

Nantachaipan (2004)'s study of promoting English oral present skills of undergraduate students through autonomous learning approach show that after the training the students' abilities gradually increased, and the students' score for oral presentations significant improved after the second and third oral presentation.

Mika (2006) studies how advanced level, lower and upper-intermediate students assess their peer's oral presentation. He classifies the students into different levels of proficiency through their TOEFL tests score. The results show that students from upper and lower intermediate tend to give higher scores for the presentation than the students from advanced levels. Mika

found that the students from lower and upper intermediate tend to focus more on visual aids rather than their friends' oral presentation skills.

From Pinitjit (2007)'s studies of reading strategies used by Thai college readers discovered that on average, the participants used global reading, problem solving, and support strategies at a medium degree of usage. The higher and the lower ability readers on average used all three reading strategies at a similar degree of usage. The study also showed that the readers often used the strategies that they were familiar with, for example, translating from the target language to their native language, as well as underlining and circling information in text.

From the previous studies mentioned in this chapter, we can see that the research into language learning strategies, strategic training or strategies used by students from different levels integrates quantitative and qualitative studies. Flood, Lapp, Squire and Jensen (2005) quoted Stotsky and Mall (2005) describe that

"researchers use qualitative methods not only to make their own interpretation about what they see and hear, they frequently explore what the language learning and teaching activities mean to the participants as well." (p. 136)

They also suggest that qualitative method can provide both the researchers and the participants' perspectives. On the other hand, quantitative methods "often seek to discover the precise role of individual elements."

From the studies of related research in the area of learning strategies, we can conclude that equipping students with effective learning strategies is essential in enhancing learner autonomy and helping students to become more successful not only for just learning a language, but for overall learning as well. Instruction on how to use strategies plays a significant role in helping students to learn a language better and help them become more successful. There are also different factors that influence students' usage of different strategies such as students' culture, students' beliefs and attitude towards language learning. Discovering learning strategies usage by language students is also important for the teacher so that they can find out how to best help students become more autonomous in their own learning, and become more successful in their language learning experiences. Teachers need to be asking themselves about which strategies a given group of students need to learn certain texts and certain skills.

2.6 Conclusion

From this chapter, the review of literature emphasizes the importance of learner training, learner autonomy, learning strategies in giving an oral presentation. Many researchers suggest that learner training on language learning strategies can lead students to become more autonomous.

Some studies, however, suggest that there are also factors which may mean that the students may still be dependent on teachers even though they have knowledge or already employ different strategies in language learning,

especially in giving oral presentations. Some other teachers are successful in developing students to become more autonomous.

The researcher must also observe the degree of different type of strategies: metacognitive, cognitive and social-affective strategies that students employ in language learning and in giving oral presentation.

From the review of literature about the criteria of assessment for oral presentation also show that in giving an oral presentation, students are required to have specific skills while speaking and writing the presentation script. They also need the skill of reading for gist and for detail in order to research for the content of the topic that they choose. Students will also be trained on how to deliver a presentation which can also be useful for their future career. In summary, oral presentation is one of the important skills that should be taught. The hope is that training students how to plan and give oral presentations through language learning strategies will help students to become better students in the area of foreign language learning.