

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents some theories which support this study and previous studies.

#### 2.1 Theoretical Framework

There are some theories which support this study, like second language acquisition, factors affecting language learning, and learning styles models.

##### 2.1.1 Second Language Acquisition

Second Language Acquisition refers to the process of learning another language after the native language has been learned. The second language is commonly referred to as the L2. L2 refers to any language learned after learning L1, regardless of whether it is the second, third, fourth, or fifth language.

Second Language Acquisition generally refers to the learning of nonnative language in the environment in which that language is spoken (e.g., German speakers learning Japanese in Japan or Punjabi speakers learning English in the United Kingdom).

This may or may not take place in the classroom setting. The important point is that learning in a second language environment takes place with considerable access to speakers of the language being learned, whereas learning in a foreign language environment usually does not ( Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 7)

So, we can conclude that second language acquisition is learning another language other than native language.

### 2.1.2 Factors Affecting Language Learning

In learning language, there are factors which affect. According to Kellerman and Smith (1986), there are two factors, linguistic factors and nonlinguistic factors.

#### 2.1.2.1 Linguistic Factors

There are five linguistic factors in language learning. The first is avoidance. The major source of avoidance are differences between the L1 and L2 but great similarities which exist between L1 and the L2 also cause the learners doubt that these similarities are real (Kellerman ,1986 cited in Gass & Selinker 2008, p. 138).

The second is differential learning rates. Ard and Homburg (1983, 1992 cited in Gass & Selinker 2008, p. 139-140) compare the responses of two groups of learners (Spanish and Arabic) to the vocabulary section of a standard English test. The Spanish learners did consistenly better than the Arabic speaker. The Spanish speakers can focus more of their learning time on other aspect of language (in this case, other vocabulary items) because there are so many cognates exist between the native language and the target language.

The third is different paths. Zolb (1982 cited in Gass & Selinker 2008, p. 141) compares the acquisition of the English definite article by a Chinese-speaking child and a Spanish-speaking child. Chinese child starts using this as a definitizer before mastering the definite article the. The Spanish child used both this and the from the beginning.

The fourth is overproduction. Different uses of forms depending on the native language. Schachter and Rutherford (1979, cited in Gass & Selinker 2008, p. 143) examine compositions written in English by Chinese and Japanese speakers. Both of these languages are of the type that relies heavily on the concept of topic. Sentences are organized around a topic-comment structure.

The last is predictability/selectivity. Kellerman (1977, cited in Gass & Selinker 2008, p. 149) attempts to show intuitions about NL semantic space are used to predict translatability of items (in case, various meanings of a single lexical item), from which one can infer transferability.

#### **2.1.2.2 Non Linguistic Factors**

There are eight non linguistic factors in language learning. The first is anxiety. Gass & Selinker (2008, p. 400) state “ anxiety seems to represent a trait that falls within the broader scheme of factors affecting learning, but what is not clear is whether it is a matter of personality, an emotional reaction to a situation, or a combination. Bailey (1983 cited in Gass & Selinker 2008, p. 401) states that one important point is that anxiety depends on the situation in which learners find themselves.

Dornyei (2005 cited in Gass & Selinker 2008, p. 401) points out that there are two dimensions in the literature that are relevant to understanding anxiety: beneficial/facilitating vs inhibitory/deliberating anxiety and trait vs state anxiety. The first dichotomy refers to whether or not anxiety can be a positive or negative force in learning and the second refers to whether anxiety is part of an individual’s makeup across many situations or whether it is a reaction in a particular situation.

The second is affective filter. “One of the main concepts that appeared early in the second language literature is what is known as the affective filter, which was intended to account in large part for why some people were able to learn second language while others were not” (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 402). According to Krashen (1982 cited in Gass & Selinker 2008, p. 403), two conditions are necessary for acquisition are comprehensible input (in Krashen’s technical sense) and a low or weak affective filter.

Low affective filter happens when input reach the acquisition device so the acquisition takes place.

The third is social distance. According to Gass & Selinker (2008, p. 403), there are many examples in which a second language learner does not feel an affinity with the target language community. In such example learners create both psychological distance and sociological distance from speakers of the second language community.

The fourth is age differences. In common, people believe that children are better language learners than adults in the sense that young children typically can gain mastery of a second language, whereas adults can not. This is reflected as the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH). Birdsong (1999, cited in Gass & Selinker 2008, p. 405) defines the CPH as follows: "the CPH states that there is a limited developmental period during which it is possible to acquire a language be it L1 or L2, to normal, native like levels.

Once this window of opportunity is passed, however, the ability to learn language declines". So, there is limitation for people in acquiring new language.

The fifth is aptitude. The relationship between aptitude and second language learning success is a very important one. If aptitude measures are used to discourage individuals from studying foreign languages, and if the measures are inaccurate, then certain students will be unfairly prevented from receiving whatever advantages may accrue from knowlegde of other languages (Gass & Selinker ,2008, p. 417).

The sixth is motivation. According to Skehan (1989 cited in Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 426), motivation is second strongest predictor of success, trailing only aptitude.

There are two kinds of motivation, integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. According to Krashen (1981, p. 26), integrative motivation is desire to be like respected members of community that speak second language. Integrative motivation should encourage the acquirer to interact with second language's speaker to get intake. While

instrumental motivation is the desire to achieve proficiency in a language for utilitarian, or practical reason.

The seventh is personality and learning style. The term learning style refers in broad terms to the preferences that an individual has of obtaining, processing, and retaining information. The term learning style is often used interchangeably with personality, although the former is undoubtedly more variable, whereas the latter refers to a stable trait of an individual (Gass & Selinker 2008, p. 432).

The last is learning strategies. Oxford (1999 cited in Gass & Selinker 2008, p. 439) defines learning strategies as specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques that students use to improve their own progress in developing skills in a second or foreign language. For example to remember difficult vocabulary, the learners may consciously choose to associate a particular word with the situation in which the learners first seriously noticed that word. Learning strategies not only involve internal mental action but also physical action. Cohen (1998 cited in Gass & Selinker 2004, p. 439) defines language learning strategies as the processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language.

So we can conclude that Second Language Acquisition is influenced by many factors, linguistic and nonlinguistic factors.

This study only focus on one of factors affecting language learning that is learning style. Learning style is very important in learning process and there are many kinds of learning style. In this study, the writer presents some kinds of learning style models.

### 2.1.3 Learning Styles Models

According to Felder and Henriques (1995, cited in Gunes 2004, p. 18), there are more than 30 models of learning styles which have been developed in the past three decades. Some of these models are explained in this study.

#### 2.1.3.1 Kolb's Learning Styles Model

First model comes from Kolb. Kolb (1984, p. 25 cited in Reid 1995, p. 56) states that "it is the combination of how people perceive and how people process that forms the uniqueness of learning style (emphasis added)". Reid (1995, p. 56) states that Kolb's investigation of learning styles begins with the examination of differences in learning orientations based on the degree to which people emphasize the four models of the learning process: concrete experiences, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. Kolb's Learning Styles Inventory (LSI) is a 12 sentences self-description questionnaire (Kolb, 1976); it measures a person's relative emphasis on each of the four models of the learning process.

Kolb combines two dimensions of perception (concrete experience and reflective observation) with the two dimensions of process (active experimentation and abstract conceptualization). The results of his LSI place the learner into one of four categories: Diverger, Assimilator, Converger, or Accomodator, Reid (1995, p. 56).

#### 2.1.3.2 Dunn & Dunn's Learning Styles Model

Rita Dunn (1984 cited in Gunes 2004, p. 31) states learning style is the way in which each person absorbs and retains information and/or skill; regardless of how that process is described, it is dramatically different for each person. There are 21 elements or

components of the model. The model is divided into five strands: environmental, emotional, sociological, physiological, and psychological.

The examples of Environmental elements of learning style are sound, light, temperature, and design affect the learner's way of taking in new and difficult information. While the examples of Emotional elements of learning style are motivation, persistence, responsibility, and structure. Sociological elements of learning style determine how students react to working alone, with an authority, in a pair, on a small team or group, on a large team or group, or in other varied circumstances. Physiological elements of learning style are food and drink intake, time of day, mobility, and perceptual elements (auditory, visual, tactile, and kinesthetic preferences). Perceptual elements of particular interest to teachers since they govern the reception and production of language. Psychological elements of learning style present the terms analytic/global, left/right (hemisphericity), and impulsive/reflective Dunn & Griggs, 1998; Prescott, 2001, cited in Gunes 2004, p. 32).

### **2.1.3.3 Honey and Mumford's Learning Styles Model**

Honey and Mumford develop learning style model in 1982. This model is divided into four learning styles, the first is activist learners. Activists like to be active in learning process. They learn best when they are involved in new experiences, problems, and opportunities. They like to work in group and do not like to follow exact instruction and strict schedules.

The second is reflector learners. They prefer standing aside and think what is happening. They learn best by observing someone else, collecting information about it. They like to produce analyses and reports. They do not like to be leader or do things unprepared and with strict deadline.

The third is theorist learners. They prefer analytical and rational thinking over subjectivity and emotions. They like complex problem where they can use their skills and knowledge to solve it. In learning process, theorists like structured situations, interesting ideas and concepts. Theorist learns less in situations where emotions are emphasized or activity is unstructured.

The last is pragmatist learners. They are the ones who prefer hands on doing over theory. They like learning tasks are related to their present or future job. They are down to earth who learn less when there is no benefit to achieve or no guidelines to do the job. (

Adopted from Kanninen 2009).

#### **2.1.3.4 Reid's Learning Styles Model**

A learning style refers to an individual's natural, habitual, and preferred ways of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skill which persist regardless of teaching methods or content area, Reid (1995, p. 171).

Reid (1995) divides the learning style research into three major categories.

##### **2.1.3.4.1 Cognitive Learning Style**

There are four kinds of cognitive learning styles. The first, field-independent/field-dependent learning styles which include field-independent learner and field-dependent (field-sensitive) learner. Field-independent learners are learners who learn more effectively step by step, or sequentially, beginning with analyzing facts and proceeding to ideas (sees the "trees" instead of the forest). While field-dependent learners are learners who learn more effectively in context, holistically, intuitively, and is especially sensitive to human relationship and interactions (sees the "forest" instead of trees).

The second, analytic/global learning styles which include analytic learner and global (relational) learner. Analytic learners are learners who learn more effectively individually, prefers setting own goals, and responds to a sequential, linear, step-by-step presentation of materials. While global (relational) learners are learners who learn more effectively through concrete experience, and by interactions with other people.

The third, reflective/impulse learning style which include reflective learners and impulsive learner. *Reflective learners* are learners who learn more effectively when they has time to consider options before responding (often more accurate language learners). While *impulsive learners* are learners who learn more effectively when they can respond immediately and take risks (often more fluent language learners).

The last is Kolb experiential learning model which include two models, perception and process. Then the models are categorized into four learners types. Converger (common sense learners) are learners who learn more effectively when they can perceive abstractly and process actively. Diverger (innovative learners) are learners who learn more effectively when they can perceive concretely and process reflectively. Assimilator (analytic learners) are learners who learn more effectively when she or he can perceive abstractly and process reflectively. The last, Accommodator (dynamic learners) are learners who learn more effectively when they can perceive concretely and process actively.

#### 2.1.3.4.2 Sensory Learning Styles

Sensory learning styles is divided into two. The first is perceptual learning styles include auditory learners, visual learners, tactile learners, kinesthetic learners, and haptic learners. *Auditory Learner* is learner who learns more effectively through the ear /hearing. *Visual Learners* are the learner who learns more effectively through the eyes /

seeing. *Tactile Learners* are the learners who learn more effectively through touch / hands-on. *Kinesthetic Learners* are the learners who learn more effectively through concrete complete body experience / whole body movement. And for *tactile learners*, some researchers combine the tactile and kinesthetic modalities and call them haptic.

The haptic learners learn more effectively through touch and whole-body involvement.

The second is environmental learning styles. *Physical learners* are learners who learn more effectively when such variables as temperature, sound, light, food, mobility, time, and classroom/study arrangement are considered. *Sociological learners* are learners who learn more effectively when such variables as group, individual, pair, and team work, or level of teacher authority are considered.

#### 2.1.3.4.4 Affective/Temperament Learning Styles

Affective/temperament learning styles is divided into three. The first is Myers-Briggs Temperament Styles (MBTI). There are four kinds of MBTI. *Extraversion-introversion* consists of extraverted learners and introverted learners. Extraverted learners learn more effectively through concrete experience, contacts with the outside world, and the relationship with others while introverted learners learn more effectively in individual, independent situations that are more involved with ideas and concepts.

*Sensing-perception* consists of sensing learners and perception learners. Sensing learners learn more effectively from reports of observable facts that happening; prefers physical, sense-based input while perception learners learn more effectively from meaningful experiences and from relationship with others. *Thinking-feeling* consists of thinking learners and feeling learners. Thinking learners learn more effectively from

impersonal circumstances and logical consequences while feeling learners learn more effectively from personalized circumstances and social values. And *judging-perceiving* consists judging learners and perceiving learners. Judging learners learn more effectively by reflection, analysis, and processes that involve closure while perceiving learners learn more effectively through negotiation, feeling, and inductive processes that postpone closure.

The second is tolerance of ambiguity styles which include ambiguity-tolerant learners and ambiguity-intolerant learners. *Ambiguity-tolerant* learners learn more effectively when opportunities for experiment and risk, as well as interaction, are present while *ambiguity-intolerant* learners learn more effectively when in less flexible, less risky, more structured situations.

The last is right and left hemisphere learners which include left-brained learners and right-brained learners. *Left-brained* learners tend toward visual, analytic, reflective, self-reliant learning while *right-brained* learners tend to toward auditory, global/relational, impulsive, interactive learning.

This study is conducted by using Reid's learning style model which only focuses on perceptual learning styles. The writer uses this theory because this learning styles model can be applied easily in school because the media is clear so the teacher easily apply teaching styles based on the students' English learning styles. For example, if the teacher wants to teach the students in visual style, the teachers can use the blackboard in learning process, or for auditory style, the teacher can use tape recorder, etc. Beside, this theory is often used in some researches.

Reid's questionnaire about perceptual learning styles named Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire designed in 1984. This questionnaire consists of three categories, that are major learning style preference, minor learning style, and negligible

learning style. The explanation about the categories adapted from the C.I.T.E. Learning Styles Instrument, Murdoch Teacher Center, Wichita, Kansas 67208, cited in Reid 1995, p. 207. The explanation of each categories can be seen as follow:

### **1. Visual Major Learning Style Preference**

Learners learn from seeing words in books, on the chalkboard, and in work-books. They remember and understand information and instructions better if they read them. They do not need as much oral explanation as an auditory learner, and they can often learn alone, with a book. They should take notes of lectures and oral directions if they want to remember the information.

### **2. Auditory Major Learning Style Preference**

The learners learn from hearing words spoken and from oral explanation. They may remember information by reading aloud or moving your lips as you read, especially when they are learning new material. They benefit from hearing audio tapes, lectures, and class discussion. The benefit from making tapes to listen to, by teaching other students, and by conversing with their teacher.

### **3. Kinesthetic Major Learning Style Preference**

Learners learn best by experience, by being involved physically in classroom experiences. They remember information well when they actively participate in activities, field trips, and role-playing in the classroom. A combination of stimuli, for example an audio tape combined with an activity will help they understand new material.

### **4. Tactile Major Learning Style Preference**

Learners learn best when they have the opportunity to do “hands-on” experiences with materials. That is, working on experiments in a laboratory, handling and building models, and touching and working with materials provide them with the most successful learning situation. Writing notes or instructions can help them remember information, and physical involvement in class related activities may help them understand new information.

### **5. Group Major Learning Style Preference**

Learners learn more easily when they study with at least one other student, and they will be more successful completing work well when they work with others. They value group interaction and clas work with other students, and they remember information better when they work with two or three classmates. The simulation they receive from group helps them learn and understand new information.

### **6. Individual Learning Style Preference**

Learners learn best when they work alone. They think better when they study alone, and remember information they learn by themselves. They understand new material best when they learn it alone, and they make better progress in learning when they work by themselves.

### **7. Minor Learning Styles**

In most cases, minor learning styles indicate areas where learner can function well as a learner. Usually a very successful learner can learn in several different ways.

### **8. Negligible Learning Styles**

Often, a negligible score indicates that learners may have difficulty learning in that way. One solution may be to direct their learning to their stronger styles. Another solution might be to try to work on some of the skills to strengthen their learning style in the negligible area.

So, there are many kinds of learning styles which have been developed, but the writer chooses the learning style model from Reid focus on perceptual learning styles because this theory not only explains the preferred way people learn but also explains the area in which people will get difficulty when they learn in this area.

## 2.2 Previous Studies

This study uses two previous studies. First is from Madika (2008) and second is from Sholikatin (2008). Madika (2008) analyzed learning style preferences of junior high school students. She tried to find out the difference learning style preferences based on level of grade and genders. In his research, Madika used Reid's learning styles theory and he used Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire by Reid (1987) to collect the data. He found that female students were more auditory than male. The students in first grade were more visual than second and third grade's. The second grade students's learning style preference was auditory. In analyzing the questionnaire, Madika used ANOVA.

The other researcher, Sholikatin (2008), analyzed the learning style preferences of junior high school students. She tried to find out the similarities and differences of learning style preferences of different level of grade. She used Reid's learning styles theory and she used Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire by Reid (1987) to collect the data. She found that the first and the second grade students were same in learning style preferences, those are kinesthetic, auditory, tactile, and group. Students in

first and second grade had multiple learning styles preferences while third grade's had single learning style preference, that was group. She also used ANOVA to analyze the learning styles.

The similarity between this study and two previous studies is the theory. All researchers use Reid's learning style model so that the instrument Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire proposed by Reid is also applied.

There are three differences between this study and those two previous studies.

First, this study analyzes the learning styles by students of science program and social program of senior high school in one level of grade and analyzes whether any significance different of English learning styles performed by those two programs, meanwhile Madika analyzed the junior high school students' learning style preferences and described the different students' learning style preferences based on genders and level of grade, On the other hand, Sholikatin analyzed the learning style preferences of junior high school students from first grade until third grade. Second, this study uses quantitative approach while two previous studies used descriptive quantitative approach.

Beside, those two studies uses ANOVA in analyzing the data while this study uses the descriptive statistic only in table of frequency to find out the percentage and T-test to find out the significance different English learning style between science and social programs. The writer does not use ANOVA because the writer wants to get data in detail while when using ANOVA, the gotten data is not in detail but in general, so the writer uses table of frequency to get the detail information of each style in each category.