

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents some theories related to the research. It is about the theory of speaking, the theory of extracurricular activities, and the extracurricular English club activities

2.1 Definition of Speaking

According to (Brown, 2007) Speaking is a productive talent that includes both the ability to employ words in real-time engagement and the ability to articulate sounds. Brown emphasizes that speaking involves a number of subskills that are necessary for efficient communication, including fluency, precision, and appropriateness. Together, these components enable speakers to effectively communicate their ideas while adjusting to the audience and conversational setting.

Another perspective is provided by Richards (2014), who states that speaking is a fundamental language learning skill that includes the capacity to create meaning and interact with others in real time. Richards highlights that speaking calls for sociolinguistic and strategic competence in addition to linguistic ability in order to modify language use for different audiences and settings. Speaking becomes a vital instrument for meaning-conveying and communication-fostering when verbal and nonverbal cues are combined

From the perspectives of Brown (2007) and Richards (2014),), Speaking is a complex skill that calls for articulation, interaction, and flexibility; it is not only

about being able to create words. According to both definitions, effective message delivery that is adapted to the audience and context requires linguistic and sociolinguistic skills. This proves that speaking is an essential part of learning and communicating in a language, which builds competence and confidence, especially in educational contexts.

Speaking is an essential language ability that entails producing meaning, articulating sounds, and participating in interactive conversation. According to Richards (2014) and Brown (2007). It calls for the speaker to use both verbal and non-verbal clues with accuracy, fluency, and contextual appropriateness. Speaking is essential to language acquisition and effective communication in the real world because it shows how well a learner can articulate ideas, react correctly, and engage in confident social interactions.

2.1.1 Types of speaking

According to Brown (2004), Speaking is a useful ability that entails using spoken communication to create and communicate meaning. Based on performance and communicative intent, he divides speaking into six categories: extensive, transactional, intensive, responsive, interpersonal, and imitative. These kinds range from straightforward repetition to lengthy speeches, reflecting different degrees of complexity and interaction. (1) Imitative Speaking involves repeating words, phrases, or sentences primarily to practice pronunciation and intonation. It is often used in early stages of language learning through techniques like drilling. (2) Intensive Speaking focuses on practicing grammatical structures and phonological elements. Tasks include reading aloud, sentence completion, and

controlled dialogues. (3) Responsive Speaking includes short replies to questions or comments, such as giving directions or answering simple queries. It tests comprehension and encourages spontaneous interaction. (4) Transactional Speaking is goal-oriented and used to exchange information. Examples include interviews, service encounters, and classroom discussions. (5) Interpersonal Speaking aims to build social relationships. It includes casual conversations, role-plays, and peer interactions that emphasize emotional tone and pragmatic competence. (6) Extensive Speaking involves longer stretches of speech such as storytelling, presentations, or reports. It requires organization, fluency, and audience awareness.

In addition, Chaney and Burk (1998) define speaking as “the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols in a variety of contexts.” Their framework supports the idea that speaking is not only linguistic but also social and cognitive, requiring learners to adapt their speech to different audiences and purposes.

Furthermore, Harmer (2007) emphasizes the importance of distinguishing between interactive and non-interactive speaking. Interactive speaking includes dialogues and group discussions, while non-interactive speaking refers to speeches and presentations. This distinction helps educators design tasks that target specific communicative functions.

The classification of speaking types provides a foundation for designing pedagogical strategies that align with learners' proficiency levels and communicative goals. From controlled practice to spontaneous interaction, each type plays a role in developing comprehensive speaking competence.

2.1.2 Important Speaking in English

According to (Sudarmo, 2021) speaking plays a vital role in English language learning as it functions both as a communicative tool and a medium for social interaction. He introduces the concept of skillful versus thoughtful speaking, emphasizing that effective oral communication requires not only technical fluency but also mindful delivery. Sudarmo argues that speaking is a sociolinguistic act that involves empathy, clarity, and contextual awareness. This dual perspective highlights that speaking is not merely about linguistic performance but also about building relationships and influencing others through intentional expression.

In addition, (Monib & Rahman, 2023) revisit Krashen's Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory, offering a contemporary cognitive-affective lens on speaking development. They assert that speaking is deeply influenced by affective filters such as anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence. Their findings suggest that learners acquire spoken fluency more effectively when exposed to comprehensible input in emotionally safe environments. They emphasize that excessive focus on grammatical accuracy can hinder spontaneous speech, whereas balanced instruction that fosters confidence and interaction leads to more natural language use.

Furthermore, (Yan et al., 2024) propose a situated learning framework for speaking instruction, particularly in virtual reality (VR) contexts. They argue that

speaking skills are best developed through authentic, immersive experiences that simulate real-life communication. Their study demonstrates that learners who engage in VR-based role-play show significant improvement in fluency, pronunciation, and pragmatic competence. This perspective underscores the importance of contextualized learning environments that mirror the social and cognitive demands of actual speaking situations.

Recent pedagogical trends also reflect a shift toward multimodal and plurilingual speaking practices, as highlighted in the British Council CPD Review (2025). Speaking is no longer viewed as a purely oral or monolingual skill; instead, it encompasses digital literacy, intercultural communication, and translanguaging strategies. Learners are expected to navigate diverse communicative platforms and cultural contexts, making speaking instruction more dynamic and inclusive. This approach encourages educators to design tasks that integrate visual, verbal, and intercultural elements to prepare learners for global communication.

Finally, Jalaluddin (2020) emphasizes the importance of adaptive speaking pedagogy, advocating for real-life communication tasks such as interviews, debates, and simulations. He argues that learners become more engaged and confident when speaking activities are relevant to their personal and cultural experiences. His framework promotes the use of authentic materials, collaborative learning, and reflective practice to enhance speaking proficiency. Jalaluddin also notes that listening skills and learner motivation are critical components of effective speaking instruction.

The theories above highlight the central role of speaking in English language learning, not only as a form of verbal expression but also as a key process for developing communicative competence. According to Sudarmo (2021), speaking requires both technical fluency and thoughtful engagement, making it a powerful tool for social interaction and personal expression. Monib and Rahman (2023) add a cognitive-affective dimension, showing that emotional safety and balanced input are essential for spontaneous speech development. Yan et al. (2024) further emphasize the value of immersive, context-rich environments in fostering authentic speaking skills. The British Council (2025) expands the scope of speaking to include digital and intercultural literacies, while Jalaluddin (2020) advocates for adaptive, learner-centered speaking tasks that reflect real-world communication.

In summary, speaking plays a crucial role in the development of English proficiency. It supports interpersonal engagement, fosters emotional and cognitive growth, and prepares learners for diverse communicative contexts. By integrating thoughtful pedagogy, immersive experiences, and inclusive practices, educators can empower learners to become confident and competent speakers in English.

2.1.2 Challenge Speaking in English

According to Korchynska (2025), speaking English presents unique challenges due to its immediacy and unpredictability. Unlike writing, speaking demands real-time processing, which can overwhelm learners, especially when they fear making mistakes. Korchynska identifies several key obstacles: fear of grammatical errors, limited vocabulary, pronunciation issues, and anxiety in social settings. She emphasizes that speaking is not just a linguistic task but a psychological one, where

learners must overcome self-consciousness and performance pressure to communicate effectively.

In addition, Ohidujjaman (2024) explores the pedagogical difficulties of teaching speaking to ESL learners. He highlights that learners often struggle with language processing speed, cultural nuances, and the influence of their first language (L1). For example, differences in syntax and pronunciation between English and the learner's native language can lead to persistent errors and reduced intelligibility. Ohidujjaman also notes that classroom management poses a challenge, as uneven participation and time constraints can limit speaking opportunities. His framework advocates for adaptive strategies such as role-play, peer interaction, and fluency-focused activities to mitigate these issues.

Furthermore, Case (2024) provides a learner-centered perspective on common speaking problems. He identifies fluency breakdowns, hesitation, and lack of confidence as major barriers. Learners often pause excessively, struggle to initiate speech, or rely on translation from their native language. Case suggests practical solutions such as warm-up speaking exercises, use of filler phrases, and self-recording for reflection. He argues that fluency should be prioritized over accuracy in early stages to build communicative confidence and reduce anxiety.

Recent studies also emphasize the role of emotional and cognitive factors in speaking challenges. According to LLS English (2025), learners face difficulties in pronunciation, grammar application, and vocabulary recall due to cognitive overload and fear of failure. The platform advocates for structured, CEFR-aligned speaking practice that gradually builds fluency and confidence. Their findings

suggest that consistent, scaffolded speaking tasks combined with feedback and real-world relevance can significantly improve learner outcomes.

The theories above highlight that speaking in English is a complex skill shaped by linguistic, psychological, and pedagogical factors. Korchynska (2025) underscores the emotional barriers such as fear and anxiety that inhibit spontaneous speech. Ohidujjaman (2024) adds a pedagogical lens, showing how classroom dynamics and L1 interference complicate speaking instruction. Case (2024) offers learner-centered strategies to address fluency and hesitation, while LLS English (2025) emphasizes structured practice and emotional support.

In summary, the challenges of speaking English stem from real-time cognitive demands, emotional resistance, and instructional limitations. Overcoming these barriers requires a holistic approach that integrates confidence-building, contextualized practice, and adaptive pedagogy. By acknowledging and addressing these challenges, educators can empower learners to become more fluent, expressive, and resilient speakers of English.

2.2 Definition of Strategy

According to Barad (2018), strategy is a high-level plan designed to achieve one or more goals under conditions of uncertainty. It involves setting objectives, determining actions to achieve those objectives, and mobilizing resources to execute those actions. Barad emphasizes that strategy is both a process and a pattern formulated through strategic thinking and implemented through coordinated action. This dual nature reflects the dynamic relationship between organizational goals and environmental conditions.

In addition, Dhlamini (2022) argues that strategy is a multifaceted concept that varies across business, public policy, and civic contexts. He defines strategy as a coherent set of decisions and actions aimed at achieving sustainable advantage and superior outcomes. Dhlamini's review highlights four levels of strategy grand, corporate, business, and functional and stresses the importance of aligning strategic intent with environmental pressures and organizational capabilities. He also notes that a good strategy acknowledges challenges and provides a realistic approach to overcoming them.

Furthermore, Athapaththu (2016) provides a historical and conceptual overview of strategy, tracing its origins to military planning and its evolution into a core concept in business management. He defines strategy as "a plan of actions that one uses to formulate goals and objectives and the means of achieving them." Athapaththu emphasizes that strategy must be clear, actionable, and aligned with an organization's mission and vision. His framework integrates strategic planning, environmental analysis, and implementation as essential components of effective strategy.

The definitions above converge on several key elements: strategy is intentional, goal-oriented, adaptive, and resource-driven. It serves as both a conceptual framework and a practical guide for achieving long-term success. In educational contexts, particularly language learning, strategy refers to the deliberate use of methods and techniques that support skill development, learner autonomy, and communicative competence.

2.2.1 Strategy of Speaking Learning

According to Beare (2023), effective speaking strategies begin with encouraging learners to speak as much as possible, even if errors occur. He emphasizes that fluency develops through frequent, low-pressure practice rather than perfection. Beare suggests techniques such as role-play, storytelling, and conversation games to reduce anxiety and promote spontaneous speech. His learner-centered approach encourages students to embrace mistakes as part of the learning process and to focus on communication over accuracy.

In addition, Gafar (2024) outlines seven practical strategies for improving speaking skills, particularly for learners outside English-speaking environments. These include daily speaking practice, pronunciation drills, vocabulary expansion, active listening, grammar refinement, slowing speech pace, and using social media for self-expression. Gafar's experiential framework highlights the importance of consistency and self-reflection. He argues that learners should speak aloud daily even to themselves and analyze breakdowns in fluency to target specific weaknesses.

Furthermore, LearnEnglish (2024) emphasizes the role of immersive and interactive strategies in speaking development. Their guide recommends recording oneself, participating in language exchanges, and engaging in real-time conversations to build fluency and confidence. They stress that speaking is a physical skill like swimming or playing an instrument and must be practiced actively. The platform also advocates for integrating listening and pronunciation work to reinforce speaking accuracy and rhythm.

Nguyen (2024) adds a cognitive dimension to speaking strategies by promoting improvisation, shadowing, and thinking in English. He argues that learners should train their minds to formulate ideas directly in English rather than translating from their native language. His approach includes creative tasks such as storytelling, timed speaking challenges, and tongue twisters to enhance fluency and spontaneity. Nguyen also highlights the importance of mastering the natural flow of English through rhythm, stress, and linking.

The theories above present a comprehensive view of speaking strategies that combine cognitive, emotional, and practical dimensions. Beare (2023) encourages frequent, low-pressure speaking to build fluency and reduce anxiety. Gafar (2024) offers a structured, self-directed approach that emphasizes daily practice and reflective analysis. LearnEnglish (2024) promotes immersive, interactive techniques that treat speaking as a physical skill requiring active engagement. Nguyen (2024) introduces creative and cognitive strategies to foster fluency and internalize English thinking patterns.

In summary, effective speaking strategies require consistent practice, emotional resilience, and cognitive engagement. By integrating structured routines, creative tasks, and interactive experiences, learners can develop greater fluency, confidence, and communicative competence in English.

2.5 Relevant Studies

Table 2.1: Relevant Study

Researcher	Title	Method	Purpose	Conclusion	Comparison to the Researcher Research
Asiyatul Husniya et al. (2023)	The Implementation of “English Club” as Extracurricular in Teaching Speaking	Qualitative case study using observation, interviews, and documentation .	To examine how English Club activities enhance students' speaking skills in a high school setting.	English Club helps build students' confidence, motivation, and speaking skills through activities like games, storytelling, debates, and singing.	relevant as it focuses on English Club strategies to improve speaking skills in a similar school context through interactive and community-based learning approaches.
M. Yuseano Kardiansyah & Laila U. Qodriani (2018)	English Extracurricular and Its Role to Improve Students' English Speaking Ability	Mixed methods (qualitative observation and quantitative evaluation of students' performance).	To assess the role of extracurricular English activities in enhancing speaking skills at a university level.	Activities like debates and public speaking, coupled with motivation, a supportive environment, and formal training, significantly enhance students' speaking abilities.	Relevant, as it highlights structured activities and external motivation in English Clubs that align with strategies to enhance speaking skills, though focused on a higher education context.
Aida Yuliandarsi & Wendi Kusriandi (2015)	Students' Perception on English Club Extracurricular in Speaking Practices at Madrasah	Descriptive-qualitative approach using observation, questionnaires, and speaking tests.	To investigate students' perceptions of the English Club's impact on their speaking skills.	English Club improves confidence, fluency, and readiness for competitions through creative and interactive methods like	relevant, as it directly studies an English Club in a madrasah context, similar to MAN Kota Blitar, providing insights into students'

				storytelling, debates, and speeches.	perceptions of effective speaking strategies.
Romli, S. S. H., et al. (2024)	<i>Exploring the Role of English Club for Students' Speaking Skills</i>	Descriptive qualitative	To examine ECC's impact on junior high students' speaking	ECC improves vocabulary, fluency, and confidence through storytelling and public speaking	Relevant — emphasizes peer support and teacher feedback in ECCs
Hafizudin (2025)	<i>Exploring English Conversation Activities to Improve Students' Speaking Skills: A Case Study at English Club Bandung</i>	Qualitative case study	To explore ECC strategies and student responses	Games, role-play, and Q&A improve fluency and reduce anxiety	Relevant — detailed strategy analysis and learner feedback

Table 2.1: Relevant Study

2.6 Conceptual Framework

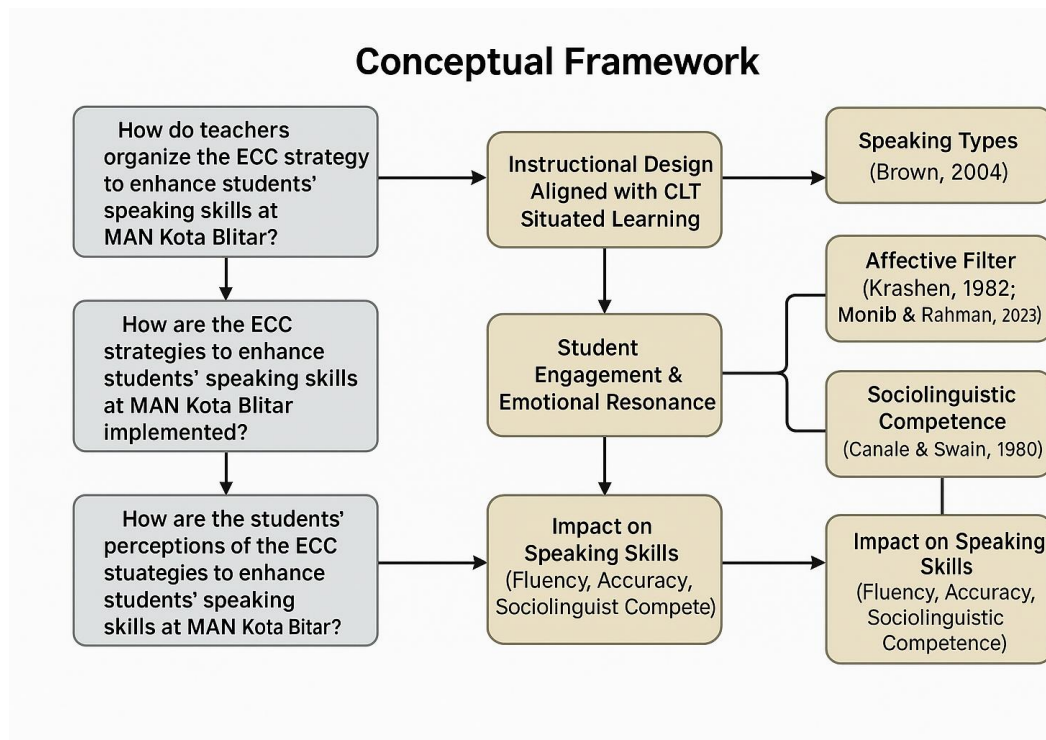


Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework