

## CHAPTER II

### THEORETICAL REVIEW

#### 2.1 The Nature of Speaking

##### 2.1.1 Definition of Speaking

Speaking is so much a part of daily life that we take it for granted.<sup>1</sup> Speaking a foreign language is a very complex skill, including vocabulary; grammar, pronunciation, and fluency, the ability to structure talk or even non-verbal abilities.<sup>2</sup>

Speaking is draw upon a more detailed characterization of the construct of spoken language offered by Bygate, who breaks it down into (1) *the spoken repertoire*, (2) *the conditions of speech* and (3) *the processes of oral language production*.<sup>3</sup> Speaking relies on pronunciation of sound sequences. Learning to speak a language means learning how to pronounce words, just like learning to write a language means learning how to represents words with different letters or sign shape. Both ways of using a language require practice to become reliable communication tools, with spelling and handwriting corresponding to the sound structure and pronunciation.<sup>4</sup> Accordingly, speaking is a process during which speakers rely on all the available information (background and linguistic) to create messages that will be understandable and meaningful to the intended audience.

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<sup>1</sup> Scoot Thornburny, (2005), *How to Teach Speaking*, Longman Kanisius: Kesainc Blanc, p. 1

<sup>2</sup> Mirosław Pawlak, Ewa Waniek-Klimczak and Jua Majer, (2011), *Speaking and Instructed Foreign Language Acquisition*, Great Britain: MPG Books Library, p. 149

<sup>3</sup> Ibid., p. 5

<sup>4</sup> Ibid., p. 117-118

What is more, the processes involved in speech production in the native language are mostly subconscious.<sup>5</sup> Speaking is verbal communication which can occur because of language. Henry Sweet, an English phonetician and language scholar, stated that:

“Language is the expression of ideas by means of speech-sounds combined into words. Words are combined into sentences, this combination answering to that of ideas into thoughts.”

Language is succinctly defined in our Glossary as a “human system of communication that uses arbitrary signals, such as a voice sounds, gestures, or written symbols.”<sup>6</sup> A language, then, consists of all the sounds, words, and infinitely many possible sentences. When you know a language, you know the sounds, the words, and the rules for their combination.<sup>7</sup>

Language is powerful sources of communication. All language is used for the purpose of communication. A language is means by which a person expressed his/her thoughts and feelings to others. The function of language is communicating thought from in person to another.<sup>8</sup>

When we speak which other, we need hearer as a listener to engage the rationale for initiating speech, continuing to speak, and ceasing to speak. Both speaking and listening are motivated social interactions. There must, therefore, be a reason for a speaker to begin to speak: some need or desire that they feeling can be fulfilled by verbal interaction rather than by nonverbal means. For example, if

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<sup>5</sup> Ibid., p. 132.

<sup>6</sup> Sholihatul Hamidah Daulay, (2011), *Introduction to General Linguistics*, Medan: La-Tansa Press, p. 11-12.

<sup>7</sup> Victoria Fromkin, Robert Rodman and Nina Hyams, (2003), *An Introduction to Language*, 7<sup>th</sup> ed., United States: Library of Congress Cataloging-in Publication Data, p. 12.

<sup>8</sup> Sholihatul Hamidah Daulay, *Introduction to General Linguistics*, *Op.Cit.*, p. 16.

one enters a living room and spies a large amorphous mass of wooden furniture, one might ask one's host about it:

“What is it? What does it do for a living? Is it an objet d'art?”<sup>9</sup>

For the first time, people just heard what the others said and they memorized the language to be used to speak. People use the language that language has used before. Speaking itself has explained in Holy Qur'an in surah Al-Imran verse 46:

وَيُكَلِّمُ النَّاسَ فِي الْمَهْدِ كَهَلَاً وَمِنَ الصَّالِحِينَ ۝

Meaning: "He shall speak to the people in childhood and in maturity. And he shall be (of the company) of the righteous." (3:46)<sup>10</sup>

It means that God has created humans to be able to speak of a lullaby to adulthood, speak softly and politely. Then, they are human who soleh and solehah.

We speak through language. By good speaking we can send our messages, opinions and words to others clearly. So, the communication between speaker and listener will work smoothly. The important of using good speaking that to make the message will communicable well has explained in Holy Qur'an in surah Ibrahim verse 4:

وَمَا أَرْسَلْنَا مِنْ رَسُولٍ إِلَّا بِلِسَانٍ قَوْمِهِ لِيُبَيِّنَ لَهُمْ فَيُضِلُّ اللَّهُ  
مَنْ يَشَاءُ وَيَهْدِي مَنْ يَشَاءُ وَهُوَ الْعَزِيزُ الْحَكِيمُ ۝

<sup>9</sup> Daniel C.O'Connell and Sabine Kowal, (2008), *Communicating With One Another: Toward a Psychology of Spontaneous Spoken Discourse*, Washington, DC: Springer Science +Business Media, LLC, p. 57.

<sup>10</sup> Yusuf Ali, (1968), *The Holy Qur'an Text, Translation and commentary*, Lahore, Pakistan, p. 56.

Meaning: “*We sent a Messenger except (speaking) in the language of his (own) people, in order to make (things) clear to them, Allah sent astray (thereby) whom He wills and guides whom He wills. And He is the Exalted in Might, the Wise*”.  
(14:4)<sup>11</sup>

### 2.1.2 Functions of Speaking

There have been numerous attempts made to classify the functions of speaking in human interaction. Richards distinguishes the functions of speaking into three categories which are quite distinct in terms of form and function and requires different teaching approaches. Those functions are categorized into talk as interaction, talk as transaction, and talk as performance.

*Talk as interaction* refers to what we normally mean by “conversation” and describes interaction that serves a primarily social function. People do the speaking activity in order to be friendly and to establish a comfortable zone of interaction with others. The focus on this category is more on the speakers and how they wish to present themselves to each other than on the message.

*Talk as transaction* refers to situations where the focus is on what is said or done. The message and making oneself understood clearly and accurately is the central focus, rather than the participants and how they interact socially with each other.<sup>12</sup>

*Talk performance* refers to public talk, that is, talk that transmits information before an audience, such as classroom presentations, public announcements, and speeches. This type of talk tends to be in the form of monolog rather than dialog.

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<sup>11</sup> Ibid. p. 255.

<sup>12</sup> Jack C. Richards, (2008), *Teaching Listening and Speaking: From Theory to Practice*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, p. 21-24.

Talk as performance is closer to written language than conversational language, and often evaluated according to its effectiveness or impact on the listener which is different from talk as interaction or transaction. Debate, welcoming speech, presentation, giving a lecture are examples of talk as performance.<sup>13</sup>

### **2.1.3 Aspects of Speaking**

Brown describes speaking aspects into two categories; accuracy and fluency. Accuracy involves the correct use of vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. Accuracy usually emphasized in controlled and guided speaking activities, where the teacher makes it clear from feedback that accuracy is important. While in freer speaking activities, the teacher is hoping for the correct use of language but is also keen to encourage the students' attempts to use the language they have in order to communicate.

Fluency, on the other side, can be thought of as “the ability to keep going when speaking spontaneously.” Not only fluent, the learners should also be able to get the message across with whatever resources and abilities they have got, regardless of grammatical and other mistakes. The teacher better not to give comment during fluency activity, however in feedback afterwards the teacher can comment favorably on any strategies the students used to increase their fluency.<sup>14</sup>

In addition, Richards defines fluency as natural language use occurring when a speaker engages in meaningful interaction and maintains comprehensible and ongoing communication despite limitations in their communicative competence. Fluency is developed by creating classroom activities in which the students must

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<sup>13</sup> Ibid., p. 26-28.

<sup>14</sup> H. Douglas Brown, (2001), *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed., New York: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc., p. 268-269.

negotiate meaning, use communication strategies, correct misunderstandings, and work to avoid communication breakdowns. Contrasted with fluency practice, the focus of accuracy practice is on creating correct examples of language use.<sup>15</sup>

#### **2.1.4 Types of Classroom Speaking Performance**

Speaking performances have different function in daily communication, as Brown states that there are six categories are applied to the oral production those students are expected to carry out in the classroom. They are:

- 1) *Imitative*. A very limited portion of classroom speaking time may legitimately be spent generating “human tape recorder” speech, where, for example, learners practice an intonation contour or try to pinpoint a certain vowel sound. Imitation of this kind is carried out not for the purpose of meaningful interaction, but for focusing on some particular element of language form.<sup>16</sup>
- 2) *Intensive*. Intensive speaking is one step beyond imitative since it includes any speaking performance that is designed to practice some phonological or grammatical aspect of language. Intensive speaking can be self-initiated or it can even form part of some pair work activity, where learners are “going-over” certain forms of language.
- 3) *Responsive*. A good deal of student speech in the classroom is responsive. It is short replies to teacher or student initiated questions or comments. These replies are usually sufficient and do not extend into dialogues. Such speech can be meaningful and authentic.

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<sup>15</sup> Jack C. Richards, (1990), *The Language Teaching Matrix*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, p. 75-76.

<sup>16</sup> H. Douglas Brown, (2001), *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*, *Op. Cit.*, p. 271.

- 4) *Transactional (dialogue)*. Transactional language is an expanded form of responsive language. It is carried out for the purpose of conveying or exchanging specific information.
- 5) *Interpersonal (dialogue)*. Interpersonal dialogue carried out more for the purpose of maintaining social relationship than for the transmission of facts and information.
- 6) *Extensive (monologue)*. Students at intermediate to advanced levels are called on to give extended monologues in the form of oral reports, summaries, or perhaps short speeches. Here the register is more formal and deliberative. These monologues can be planned or impromptu.<sup>17</sup>

### **2.1.5 Difficulties in Speaking**

According to Brown, there are eight factors in speaking that could make EFL learners difficult to produce good English in oral communication as follows:

- 1) *Clustering*. Fluent speech is phrasal, not word by word. Learners can organize their output both cognitively and physically (in breath groups) through such clustering.
- 2) *Redundancy*. The speaker has an opportunity to make meaning clearer through the redundancy of language. Learners can capitalize on this feature of spoken language.
- 3) *Reduced forms*. Contractions, elisions, reduced vowels, etc., could create special problems in teaching spoken English. Students who do not learn colloquial contractions can sometimes develop a stilted, bookish quality of speaking that in turn stigmatizes them.

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<sup>17</sup> Ibid., p. 273-274.

- 4) *Performance variables*. In spoken language, the process of thinking as the speaker speaks allows the speaker to manifest a certain number of performance hesitations, pauses, backtracking, and corrections. In English, the “thinking time” is not silent, rather “fillers” such as *uh, um, well, you know, I mean, like*, etc.
- 5) *Colloquial language*. This factor could make the students difficult to speak. It is often found that the students are not well acquainted with the words, idioms, and phrases of colloquial language, so they often make mistakes in producing these forms.
- 6) *Rate of delivery*. In this factor the teacher needs to help the students to achieve an acceptable speed along with other attributes of fluency.
- 7) *Stress, rhythm, and intonation*. They are the most important characteristic of English pronunciation. Different stress, rhythm, and intonation could convey different meaning. Those characteristics also the factor that make speaking difficult for the students.
- 8) *Interaction*. Interaction needs the creativity of conversational negotiation. Learning to produce waves of language in a vacuum, without interlocutors, could rob the creativity of conversational negotiation in speaking.<sup>18</sup>

## **2.2 Teaching Speaking**

### **2.2.1 Principles for Designing Speaking Technique**

In teaching speaking, the teacher needs to consider what kind of technique could be best applied in the classroom. In order to implement the appropriate technique in the teaching and learning process, the teacher needs to pay attention

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<sup>18</sup> Ibid., p. 270-271.



on principles for designing speaking technique. Brown proposes seven principles for designing speaking technique.

- 1) *Use techniques that cover the spectrum of learners needs, from language based focus on accuracy to message-based focus on interaction, meaning, and fluency.* In current interactive language teaching, teacher can easily slip into an activity that does not capitalize on grammatical pointers or pronunciation tips. So that, teachers need to pay attention to the language should be taught, however teachers could not make the students bored due to repetition drills. It is important to make drilling as meaningful as possible.
- 2) *Provide intrinsically motivating techniques.* Try at all times to appeal to students' ultimate goals and interests, to their need for knowledge, for status, for achieving competence and autonomy, and for "being all that they can be".
- 3) *Encourage the use of authentic language in meaningful contexts.* The teacher should encourage the students to use the authentic language during the speaking activities, so that the activities would be meaningful for them. It is not easy to keep coming up with meaningful interaction, so the teacher needs to be creative to provide what kind of authentic language should be done during the speaking activities.
- 4) *Provide appropriate feedback and correction.* In most EFL situations, students are totally dependent on the teacher for useful linguistic feedback. When the students make some mistakes during the activities, the teacher

should give appropriate feedback and correction so that the students would not make the same mistakes.

- 5) *Capitalize on the natural link between speaking and listening.* Speaking could not be separated from listening, so that during speaking activities, the teacher should also integrate the listening activities. Skills in producing language are often initiated through comprehension.
- 6) *Give students opportunities to initiate oral communication.* Initiate conversation is a part of oral communication competence. Asking questions or engaging the students in a conversation could give opportunities for the students to practice their communication competence.
- 7) *Encourage the development of speaking strategies.* During the process of learning language, the students usually are not aware of developing their own personal strategies for accomplishing oral communicative purposes. The strategies include asking for clarification, asking someone to repeat something, using fillers, using conversation maintenance cues, getting someone's attention, using paraphrases for structures one can't produce, appealing for assistance from the interlocutor, using formulaic expressions, using mime and nonverbal expressions to convey meaning.<sup>19</sup>

### **2.2.2 Speaking Activity**

Caroline T. Linse said on her book "*Practical English Language Teaching: Young Learners*" about technique and speaking activities in classroom. She stated:

Speaking activities are an important part of any young learners and are often considered the focal point of instruction. When teaching speaking, it

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<sup>19</sup> Ibid., p. 275-276.

is especially important to select activities which match the objectives of the program.

- 1) Fishbowl: one specific technique which helps students learn how to work with a partner or in a small group is known as the *fishbowl*.
- 2) Communicative Language Teaching: an approach and a philosophical orientation that connects classroom-based language learning with the language that learners need in order to communicate outside of the classroom.
- 3) Games: play is a purposeful activity and games are part of playing. Games can also be structured to maximize English language use.
- 4) Talking and writing box: those are made of pictures that students have self-selected and are interesting to them.
- 5) Teaching pronunciation: it helps students to learn how to pronounce words correctly. Teachers can select rhymes and finger-plays that focus on a specific phoneme or sound or set of sounds for students.
- 6) Error correction: teachers must spend time correcting not only behavior but also errors that students make in learning process.

Caroline T. Linse is also said on her book “*Practical English Language Teaching: Young Learners*” about managing of speaking activities such as managing the noise level in classroom.

During a speaking activity, the noise level alone can quickly escalate and disturb other classes. Teachers who do not use communicative approaches in their classrooms can be especially harsh if the noise level seems to become too high. Do not try to shout over students. Think of how counter-productive it is for a teacher to shout, “ALL RIGHT EVERYONE! YOU ARE TOO NOISY!” when she herself is contributing to the noise level.<sup>20</sup>

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<sup>20</sup> Caroline T. Linse, (2005), *Practical English Language Teaching: Young Learners*, New York: McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc., p. 52-62.

### 2.2.3 Students and Speaking

#### 1) Reluctant students

Students are often reluctant to speak because they are shy and are not predisposed to expressing themselves in front of other people, especially when they are being asked to give personal information or opinions. Frequently, too, there is a worry about speaking badly and therefore losing face in front of their classmate. In such situations there are a number of things can do help to students.

##### a) Preparation

On Jeremy Harmer's book, *"The Practice of English Language Teaching,"* Wilson is described the value of planning and rehearsal for speaking success, and students, too, will perform much better if they have the chance to think about what they are going to say and how to say it. This may involve just giving them quiet time to think in their heads about how they will speak.

##### b) The value of repetition

It allows students to improve on what they did before. They can think about how to re-word things or just get a feel for how it sounds. Repetition works even better if students get a chance to analyze what they have already done. On Jeremy harmer's book, *"The Practice of English Language Teaching,"* Paul Howarth describes this as process speaking, characterized by the pattern:

plan -> perform -> analyze <—> repeat

c) Big groups, small groups

Some students can take part in speaking activities is that they find themselves having to talk in front of a big group or a small group.

**2) Teacher's role during the speaking lesson**

According to Harmer, teachers need to play a number of different roles during different speaking activities. Below is some particulars relevance if we are trying to get students to speak fluently:

- a) *Prompter*. This role could be applied by the teacher when the students 'get lost', cannot think of what to say next, or in some other way lose the fluency expected from them. The teacher could help the students by offering discrete suggestions.
- b) *Participants*. The teacher acts as a participant when the teacher participates in the discussions, role plays, or dialog with the class. However, teacher needs to be careful not to participate too much and dominate the speaking and drawing all the attention to themselves.
- c) *Feedback Provider*. The teacher's feedback on the students' speaking depends upon the teacher's tact and the appropriacy of the feedback given in particular situations. The feedback could cover the content of the activity as well as the language used.<sup>21</sup>

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<sup>21</sup> Jeremy Harmer, (2001), *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, 4<sup>th</sup> ed., England: Longman, p. 345-348.

### 2.2.4 Assessment of Speaking Learning

The testing of speaking is widely regarded as the most challenging of all language exams to prepare, administer, and score. For this reason, many people do not even try to measure the speaking skill. They do not know where to begin the task of evaluating spoken language. One reason why speaking test seem so challenging is that the nature of the speaking skill itself is not usually well defined. Understandably then, there is some disagreement on just what criteria to choose in evaluating oral communication. Grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation are often named as ingredients. But matters such as fluency and appropriateness of expression are usually regarded as equally important.<sup>22</sup>

As stated on Cambridge Certificate in English Language Speaking Skills (CELS), there are four categories need to be considered, they are vocabulary, discourse management, pronunciation, and interactive communication. Dealing with grammar and vocabulary, students need to use appropriate syntactic forms and vocabulary to meet the task requirements at each level. The students' ability to express ideas and opinions coherently and convey clear information deals with discourse management aspects. In the pronunciation aspect, the students have to produce the appropriate linking of words, the use of stress and intonation to convey intended meaning. Finally, interactive communication means the ability to maintain the coherence of the discussion and asking for clarification, if necessary. Those four elements are in line with what Brown states about the aspects of assessing speaking: grammar, vocabulary, comprehension, fluency, pronunciation,

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<sup>22</sup> Harold S. Madsen, (1983), *Teaching Techniques In English As A Second Language: Techniques In Testing*, New York: Oxford University Press, p. 147.

and task.<sup>23</sup> The students' speaking performances were assessed using a scoring rubric adapted from J. Michael O'Malley and Pierce L. Venez as it is cited in Hertati Mukadimah in 2014. The rubric is shown in the following table.<sup>24</sup>

**Table 2.1**  
**Speaking Rubric**

Aspects	Score	Criteria	Indicator
Pronunciation	1	Poor	Frequent problem with pronunciation.
	2	Fair	Pronunciation errors sometimes make it difficult to understand the students.
	3	Good	Pronunciation is usually clear or accurate with a few problems areas.
	4	Excellent	Pronunciation is almost always very clear or accurate.
Fluency	1	Poor	Hesitates too often when speaking, which often interferes with communication.
	2	Fair	Speaks with some hesitation, which often interferes with communication.
	3	Good	Speaks with some hesitation, but it does not usually interfere with communication.
	4	Excellent	Speaks smoothly, with little hesitation that does not interfere with communication.
Vocabulary	1	Poor	Uses only basic vocabulary and expressions.
	2	Fair	Uses limited vocabulary and expressions.
	3	Good	Uses a variety of vocabulary and expressions, but makes some errors in word choice.
	4	Excellent	Uses a variety of vocabulary and expressions.

<sup>23</sup> Scoot Thornburny, *How to Teach Speaking, Op. Cit.*, p. 127-129.

<sup>24</sup> Hertati Mukadimah, (2014), *Thesis of The Use of Talking Chips Strategy to Improve Speaking Ability of Grade XI Students of SMAN 1 Pengasih in The Academic Year of 2013/ 2014*, Yogyakarta: State University of Yogyakarta, p. 28-29.

Aspects	Score	Criteria	Indicator
Accuracy/ Grammar	1	Poor	Uses basic structures, makes frequent errors.
	2	Fair	Uses a variety of structures with frequent errors, or uses basic structures with occasional errors.
	3	Good	Uses a variety of grammatical structures, but make some errors.
	4	Excellent	Uses a variety of grammatical structures with only occasional grammatical errors.
Interaction	1	Poor	Purposes are not clear; needs a lot of help communicating; usually does not respond appropriately or clearly.
	2	Fair	Tries to communicate, but sometimes does not respond appropriately or clearly.
	3	Good	Communicates effectively; generally responds appropriately and keeps trying to develop the interaction.
	4	Excellent	Almost always responds appropriately and always tries to develop the interaction.

## 2.3 Cooperative Learning

### 2.3.1 Definition of Cooperative Learning

On his book *“Cooperative Learning in The Classroom,”* Jolliffe describes cooperative learning as learning activities where cooperative learning requires pupils to work together in small groups to support each other to improve their own learning and that of others.<sup>25</sup>

May and Doob in Gillies and Ashman’s book of *“Co-operative Learning,”* describe cooperative as behavior when the learners strive to achieve the same or

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<sup>25</sup> Wendy Jolliffe, (2007), *Cooperative Learning In The Classroom*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing, p.3.



complementary goals, are required to achieve the goal in equitable amounts, and when they are in close contact with one another. It could be concluded that cooperative learning means learning activities where the learners work together to achieve the same or complementary goals.<sup>26</sup> Co-operative learning was designed and implemented to develop social strategies and acceptable social attitudes in students, and to improve social relations within and between groups.<sup>27</sup>

### **2.3.2 Elements of Cooperative Learning**

There are several elements that must be taken into account in cooperative learning. Joliffe proposes two key elements that should be included in cooperative learning. The first element is positive interdependence. It means that in cooperative learning, each pupil in a small group requires to contribute to the learning of the group. Pupils are required to work in a way so that each member of the group needs the others to complete the task. This situation creates a feeling of 'one for all and all for one'. The second key element of cooperative learning is individual accountability. Each member of the group is accountable for completing his or her part of the work. It requires each pupil in the group to develop a sense of personal responsibility to learn and to help the rest of the group to learn also, so no one can 'hitchhike' on the work of other members of the group.<sup>28</sup>

Students in cooperative learning situations are encouraged and/or required to work together on a common task, and they must coordinate their efforts to

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<sup>26</sup> Robyn M. Gillies and Adrian F. Ashman, (2003), *Co-operative Learning: The Social and Intellectual Outcomes of Learning in Groups*, London: Routledge Falmer, p. 3.

<sup>27</sup> Ibid, p. 54.

<sup>28</sup> Wendy Jolliffe, *Cooperative Learning In The Classroom, Op. Cit.*, p. 3.

complete the task. Cooperative learning lessons can be characterized by some features, such as (1) Students work in teams to master learning goals; (2) Teams are made up of high-, average-, and low-achieving students; (3) Whenever possible, teams include a racial, cultural, and gender mix; and (4) Reward systems are oriented to the group as well as the individual.<sup>29</sup>

Kagan propose the PIES (Positive Interdependence Individual Accountability Equal Participation Simultaneous Interaction) principles to distinguish cooperative learning from group work. The PIES principles stand for positive interdependence, individual accountability, equal participation, and simultaneous interaction. The first principle from cooperative learning is positive interdependence. Positive interdependence refers to two distinct conditions that promote cooperation, they are:

- 1) Positive Correlation

The word positive in the term “positive interdependence” refers to “a positive correlation among outcomes”. A positive correlation occurs when outcomes go up or down together when they are positively linked. When there is a positive correlation among outcomes, the participants of the group almost certainly work together. They cooperate, help each other, and encourage each other since the participants of the group would sense “one’s success is others’ success”. The opposite of positive correlation is negative correlation. This is the case that likely happens in competitive classrooms where their success depends on the failure of another. They are on opposite sides, and therefore they do not co-operate each other.

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<sup>29</sup> Richard I. Arends, (2012), *Learning to Teach*, New York: McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc., 9<sup>th</sup> ed., p. 360-361.

## 2) Interdependence

The word interdependence refers to how the task is structured. It means the tasks need to be done together, and then the members of the group become interdependent. If the tasks structured, it would dramatically increase the probability of cooperation.

The second principle of cooperative learning proposed by Kagan is individual accountability. The aphorism “There is no ‘I’ in team” motivates individuals to work as a team and sacrifice for the sake of the team. Individual accountability is created by putting in place three components:

- 1) *Individual*. Each student is accountable for his or her individual contribution and his or her learning. Teamwork is the process by which learning is enhanced, but team projects and products are not a yardstick for individual achievement since learning happens between the learners themselves.
- 2) *Public*. Accountability is strengthened by public performance. If the students have to share their personal contribution publicly, they would make a concerted effort.
- 3) *Required*. The final component of individual accountability is making the individual public performance required. The individual contribution is not voluntary but compulsory. Realizing this compulsory, the students need to pay attention and prepare their contribution.

The third principle of cooperative learning is equal participation. This principle is the simplest of the four principles. The tasks are structured so that

each member of the group could participate equally. The last principle of cooperative learning proposed by Kagan is simultaneous interaction.

Simultaneous interaction actively engages a high percent of students at once. By applying effective cooperative learning, it would increase the amount of active engagement because effective cooperative learning produces simultaneous engagement. From the elements proposed by Kagan above, the main point in this method is interaction.<sup>30</sup>

### **2.3.3 Advantages of Cooperative Learning**

Jolliffe proposes the two main reasons why cooperative learning works; the first is motivational and secondly, cognitive. Cooperative learning structures create a situation where the tasks could be done only when the whole group does complete the tasks. Therefore, each member of the group should help others to succeed. In other words, this kind of situation makes the students motivated to learn and work hard to support their team. The second reason is cognitive. By working cooperatively, it would help the students to promote intellectual growth because they are able to support each other's next step in their learning.<sup>31</sup>

Arends on his book "*Learning to Teach*" states that the important goal for cooperative learning is to teach students skills of cooperation and collaboration. These are critical skills in a society in which much adult work is carried out in large, interdependent organizations and communities are becoming more culturally diverse and global in their orientations. Cooperative learning promotes

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<sup>30</sup> Spencer Kagan and Miguel Kagan, (2009), *Kagan Cooperative Learning*, San Clemente: Kagan Publishing, p. 326-344. (on chapter 12.2-12.20)

<sup>31</sup> Wendy Jolliffe, *Cooperative Learning In The Classroom, Op. Cit.*, p. 44-46.

cooperation because it values and promotes the development of interpersonal intelligence.<sup>32</sup>

## 2.4 Talking Chips Strategy

### 2.4.1 Definition of Talking Chips Strategy

Talking chips is one of collaborative learning created by Spencer Kagan on 1992. Talking is mean turn to talk. Then, chips is mean a card. So, talking chips is a card to talk.<sup>33</sup> In a simple, the using of cards can be changed with other small things, such as buttons, kidney bean, seeds, piece of a puff, stalk of palm, ice cream sticks, etc. that will make the students be attractive to conduct the talking chips activity.<sup>34</sup>

According to Gray, inspired by Reeves's (2010, as cited in Herianto, 2013) explained that talking chips technique is a technique to make the students have opportunity to speak. It means that, not only one or two students in the class who will dominate the speaking class activity, but all students have chance to speak. More definition stated by Hilson (2010, as cited in Herianto, 2013) that elaborated that, "talking chips is the strategies guarantees equal participation in discussion

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<sup>32</sup> Richard I. Arends, *Learning to Teach, Op.Cit.*, p. 361-362.

<sup>33</sup> Selamat Kamso, *Pembelajaran Kooperatif Learning Tipe Talking Chips*, Published on Tuesday, October 28<sup>th</sup>, 2014 at 09.58 am. Retrieved from <http://selametskamsompd.blogspot.com/2014/10/pembelajaran-kooperatif-tipe-talking.html>. Accessed on Sunday, 6/11/2017 at 04.33 pm.

<sup>34</sup> Ana Hidayati, (2011), *Teknik Talking Chips*, Bojonegoro: Pemerintah Kabupaten Bojonegoro Dinas Pendidikan Smp Negeri 2 Kedungadem. Retrieved on <http://ptkips.blogspot.co.id/2016/03/teknik-talking-chips.html>. Accessed on Wednesday, 31<sup>st</sup> 2017 at 1:58 pm.

groups. Each group member receives the same member of poker chips (or any other markers, such as index cards)”<sup>35</sup>.

Kagan cited in Syafryadin, points out those talking chips is a strategy in teaching speaking that makes the students work in group. In holding talking chips strategy, the students would be given chips and the chips are used for every time they speak, they must put the chips in the center of the table. When the chips are over, the activity is done and the students may not speak until chips of all members of the group are over too. If all chips have been used, while the task has not been finished, the students can be given the chips again.<sup>36</sup>

In the previous explanation, Kagan propose the PIES principle to distinguish cooperative learning from group discussion. Talking chips, as one of the structures of cooperative learning, also fulfill at least two of the principles. The first element is the individual accountability. During the activity, every member of the group has accountability to participate in discussion. They have to actively engage during the discussion, and they are accountable to their teammates.<sup>37</sup> However, each member of the group must use their chip before proceeding to the next round. So, that they have chances to practice their speaking, and in the same time, they are also practicing their active listening. The second element is equal participation. The rules during the implementation of the talking chips strategy establish guidelines for equal participation. Each member of the group has same

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<sup>35</sup> Muhammad Rifa'i, *Article: Using Talking Chips Technique in Teaching Speaking*, Published on Thursday, March 5<sup>th</sup>, 2015 at 12.24 pm. Retrieved from <http://sangpemimpikelihood.blogspot.co.id/2015/03/article-using-talking-chips-technique.html>. Accessed on Thursday, 4/27/2017 at 05.20 pm.

<sup>36</sup> Syafryadin, (2011), *Journal of The Use of Talking Chips Technique in Improving Students' Speaking Achievement*, Indonesia: Indonesia University of Education.

<sup>37</sup> Spencer Kagan and Miguel Kagan, *Kagan Cooperative Learning, Op. Cit.*, p. 326. (on chapter 12.2)

opportunity to speak during the discussion. They also learn on how to respect others' opinions.<sup>38</sup>

#### **2.4.2 The Advantages of Talking Chips Strategy**

There are some advantages from applying talking chips strategy during the learning process. Talking chips strategy allows every student to hold accountable for participating. Talking chips regulates discussion where it ensures everyone in the group could participate and contribute during the discussion. Since everyone in the group should participate during the discussion, shy students, low achievers, and less-fluent students are encouraged by the social norms of structure to fully participate and develop their language skills too.

The next advantage of applying talking chips is develops the students' speaking and listening skills. During the activity, the students need to discuss certain topics in a group. Each student should share their ideas when their turn comes. However, when they already use their opportunity to speak, they need to be patient and turn to listen the other members' ideas. This kind of turn-taking help the student to speak yet at the same time also help them to develop their listening skills.<sup>39</sup> Turn-taking is as the basic to management of the collaborative process in conversation. Then, the speaker may become the listener in that conversation.<sup>40</sup>

Besides talking chips learning bring up a situation in which all members of the group had a turn to speak and express opinions. They will not get a chance to

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<sup>38</sup>Ibid., p. 103. (on chapter 4.23)

<sup>39</sup> Dian Estiningrum, (2015), *Thesis of Using Talking Chips to Improve VII-A Students' Speaking Skill at Smpn 1 Trucuk in The Academic Year of 2013/2014*, Yogyakarta: Yogyakarta State University, p. 28.

<sup>40</sup> Jack C. Richards, *The Language Teaching Matrix, Op. Cit.*, p. 68.

speak before all members of the group talking. Since all students have the same opportunity, then no student is dominating.<sup>41</sup>

### **2.4.3 The Steps of Talking Chips Strategy**

Before using talking chips as learning strategy in the teaching and learning process of speaking, the teacher should make some preparation. Kagan cited in Syafryadin proposes about the procedures of doing the talking chips activity, as follow:

- 1) Teacher provides a discussion topic. The teacher could provide certain topics for the groups to be discussed. It would help the students to maintain their ideas to be shared.
- 2) Begins the discussion. Anyone in the group could start the discussion related to the topic by placing his or her chip in the center of the team table.
- 3) Continues the discussion. Any student could continue the discussion by using his or her chip. However, they need to wait until the first speaker done speaking.
- 4) When all chips are used, teammates collect all their chips and continue the discussion using their talking chips.
- 5) During the students' discussion about the topic, accuracy and fluency of students would be observed. Besides, in evaluation, the students would be assessed either their fluency or accuracy.<sup>42</sup>

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<sup>41</sup> Masikem, dkk., *The Implementation of Cooperative Learning Model Talking Chips and Quick on the Draw to Enhance Motivation and Social Studies Learning Outcome*, Vol. 6, Issue 3 Ver. Iv, May-Juny 2016, p. 37. Retrieved from <http://www.iosrjournals.org/iosr-jrme/papers/Vol-6%20Issue-3/Version-4/F0603043339.pdf>. Accessed on Thursday, 4/27/2017 at 05.19 pm.



The steps in implementing of talking chips strategy can be seen in this picture below.

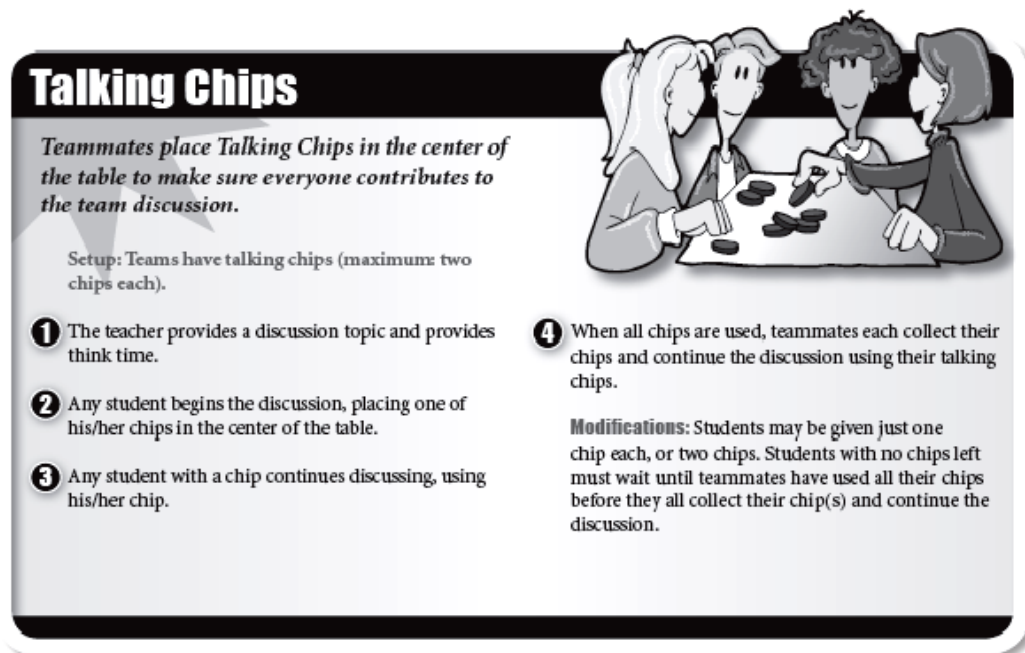


Figure 2.1 The Steps of Talking Chips strategy in Cooperative Learning

## 2.5 Conceptual Framework

Speaking is one of the important skills that should be mastered by the students. Ideally, in the teaching and learning process of speaking the students have to be given some opportunities to practice a target language and produce it in the spoken form. They are expected to have the ability to express the meaning of short functional texts both formal and informal accurately, fluently, and acceptably in the daily life context.

Moreover, there are some problems related to the students' speaking ability. What mostly happen in school, the students are afraid to make mistakes in front of their friends. As the result, they tend to be silent when they are asked to share

<sup>42</sup> Syafryadin, (2001), *Journal of The Use of Talking Chips Technique in Improving Students' Speaking Achievement*. Op. Cit.

their ideas or opinions. The monotonous activities during the learning process could make the condition getting worse.

Based on those problems, talking chips strategy could be applied as an effort to improve the students' speaking ability. Talking chips strategy could be applied in discussion activities during the learning process. This strategy allows the students to participate and to give contribution in their group. This strategy also helps those who have low motivation and shy students to improve their participation during the learning process. By using this strategy, every student would have more opportunity to practice English orally and gradually would increase their speaking ability. Every student has a chance to speak, so there is no student dominated.

Hopefully, this strategy can help the teacher to be more creative during the learning process and create atmosphere where the students could decrease their fear on using English and motivate the students to be brave to speak up. It is expected that there would be positive changes in the speaking teaching and learning process after applying this strategy.

## **2.6 Hypothesis**

The hypothesis is the using of talking chips strategy in learning activity will improve the students' ability in speaking English especially for the second grade students' of MAS Manba'ul Hidayah Kisaran.