

**ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING FOR THE FIRST YEAR
ENGLISH MAJORED STUDENTS' SPEAKING PROFICIENCY
THROUGH PAIRWORK TECHNIQUE AT FITK OF UIN-SU
IN 2014/2015 ACADEMIC YEAR**



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ABSTRACT

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This Classroom Action Research was done to know if pairwork technique can increase the students' English speaking ability. After conducting the two cycle activities in language teaching, it was attained that the students' ability at speaking could be increased. It was seen on the improvement of the test score from pre-cycle (before doing treatment on the subjects) to the second cycle test score after doing treatment, in pre-test there was 78.1% (25 students) got score below 70, in cycle one post-test it was attained 90,6% (29 students of 32 research subjects) got score 70 up and in cycle two post-test 93,75% of the students got score 70 up. The teaching-learning process in the classroom run well, the students were attracted taking part in classroom activities so it is suggested to apply this technique in speaking class.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

In recent years, English has been considered one of some important subjects and a compulsory subject for Indonesian students. It is an impression shows "Better English, better careers" was the answer given by many of them when they told about their purpose of learning this language. In their daily life, it can't be denied that this international language may help them prepare better for their career in the future because it does not only equip learners with a necessary source of information of social and culture knowledge but also gives them up-to-date information concerning a different issues in our society nowadays. In terms on the usefulness of mastering English language, the ability of oral speaking is the most problem of language learners so the English lecturers at university try to apply appropriate technique that bring students are active in teaching-learning process. This research was done to know if pairwork technique can increase the students participation in class activity and improve their ability at speaking. It was done to offer an alternative way to attract students interesting in speaking class.

The students of State Islamic university of North Sumatera especially the English department students still have problem in oral speaking. This phenomenon drives the writer to do a research focused on speaking subject. This research finding supposed to help speaking class lecturer to create a good atmosphere in language teaching so students feel interesting to take part in class activity so the teaching target can be gained and the students as prospective English language teacher has speaking competence. It is hoped that this research

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	i
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iii
CHAPTER I : INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background of Study	1
CHAPTER II : LANGUAGE PERFORMANCE	5
2.1 Theory of Speaking	5
2.1.1 Element of Speaking	7
2.2 The Characteristics of Communicative Competence.....	12
2.3 Speaking in Relation to Communica- tive Competence.....	19
2.3.1 Models of Communicative Ability	22
2.4 Production Skills	24
2.5 Strategies for Developing Speaking Skills	33
2.6 Stages of Language Learning in Speak- ing	35
2.7 Communicative Language Teaching and	

Speaking Activities	39
2.8 Theories of Learning.....	46
2.8.1 Approach, Method, Technique	47
2.8.2 Teaching Method	48
2.8.3 Teaching Strategy	49
2.8.4 Teaching Language to Children.....	50
2.8.5 Teaching Language to Adults	52
2.8.6 The Roles of Teacher in Speaking	
Class	55
2.8.6.1 Stopping the Activity	64
2.8.6.2 The Use of Mother Tongue.....	65
2.8.6.3 Feedback After the Activity.....	68
2.8.6.4 Assessing Speaking.....	70
2.9 What Pairwork Technique is.....	72
2.9.1 Using Groupwork to Facilitate	
Learning.....	77
2.10 Hypothesis	80
CHAPTER III : RESEARCH METHODOLOGY...	81
3.1 Research Design.....	81
3.2 Procedures of Classroom Action Research	82

3.3 Instruments for Data Collection	84
3.4 Techniques for Data Collection	85
3.4.1 Scoring Technique	86
3.5 The Data analysis	88
3.6 Hypothesis Testing.....	90

CHAPTER IV : DATA ANALYSIS AND RESEARCH

FINDING	91
4.1 Data Analysis	91
4.1.1 The Students’ Speaking Ability	
Before The Treatment Carried	
Out	91
4.1.2 The Improvement of Students’	
Ability at Speaking After The First	
Treatment Done in Cycle One	95
4.1.2.1 The Treatment Done in Cycle	
One	96
4.1.2.1.1 The Students’ Post-test	
Score in Cycle One.....	97
4.1.2.1.2 The Lecturer’s and Students’	
Activity in The Language	

	Teaching.....	101
4.2	The Improvement of Students' Ability At Speaking After The Second Treat- ment Done	105
4.3	Hypothesis Testing	118
4.4	Research Findings	121
4.5	Discussion	121
CHAPTER V	: CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION	124
5.1	Conclusion	124
5.2	Suggestion.....	124
REFERENCES	126

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

A teacher's thought about the teaching and learning process will certainly have impacts on the way he teaches. In recent years, language teaching has been focused on the learning process rather than the teaching of the language. The emphasis is not only on linguistic competence of language learners but also on the development of the communicative ability. Learners need to learn how to use the target language in real life situation.

In terms of the language use, we still find some undergraduate students are still poor at English oral communication even few of them who have finished their study, this phenomenon drives the writer to find out the alternative solution to overcome this problem. This problem might be able to overcome by applying appropriate language teaching technique that brings students to practice effectively. One of the techniques is pairwork technique. This technique brings students to be active in speaking class as if they were in real life situation. In teaching speaking, the lecturer should be able to bring students to use the target language naturally. In pairwork activity students have opportunity to explore ideas by using target language. The lecturer's role is as a facilitator or activity controller during the class taking place, the teaching-learning process in the classroom is learners – centered activity.

We may be in one point of view that a good English lecturer should not only master the subject matter but also he should be able to

create a good classroom atmosphere during teaching- learning process taking place. Based on a research findings in USA in 1999 denoted that the common problem of English language learners is 'speaking'. The phenomenon is also faced by most students of English Department of Faculty of Tarbiyah Science and Teacher Training- State Islamic University of North Sumatera. The phenomenon drives the writer to carry out a research regarding a teaching technique in speaking class.

Nunan conducted an important study into the development of communication skills built on a model of communicative competence as the ability to function in a truly communicative setting – that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors (1999).

A good English lecturer figures out the difficulties of students in learning the language, then attempt to find out solution through psychological or methodological approach. Psychological approach means that a good English lecturer will understand that not all students have braveness to explore their ideas, it might be caused by the students' cultural background. Methodological approach means that an English lecturer applies appropriate techniques to bring the class interesting. Creating an interesting teaching-learning process will bring students to take part in classroom interaction. People might cite that the common problem of language learning is lack of facilities, bad course design, number of students in one classroom, it may be true, but one thing we should consider that English instructor's role in language teaching will effect more in reaching the teaching target. He/she should be able to create the classroom atmosphere interesting. Harmer (2000:1) suggests that good teachers should make their lesson

interesting so the learners do not fall asleep in them and must love her job, if s/he really enjoys the job that will make the lesson more interesting.

A good teaching process will take students' interests and it is crucial to obtain the teaching target. An ideal teaching conversation is Teacher Talk Time (TTT) should be less than Students Talk Time (STT) because the students need more opportunity to use the target language than the teacher does, this is what we called learners-centered activity. This research will discuss about some important aspect relate to: i) How is the implementation of pairwork technique in Speaking class?, ii) How is the classroom atmosphere in the speaking class when the pairwork technique being applied?, iii) How is the students' ability at speaking after being taught by applying pairwork technique?.

This study mainly discusses about focuses on the implementation and impacts of pairwork technique on the first -year English-majored students' performance in Speaking class. Besides, their attitudes towards class activity are also one of the concerns of the study, this research findings are useful for lecturers of Speaking class at university in terms of increasing students' oral communicative competence and it also meaningful for the further related research. The usefulness of the research is classified into two main categories: a. Theoretically; i). This research finding is meaningful as additional reference for further related study. ii) In terms of the improvement of teaching process, the theories explored by the writer can be used as reference for English instructors. b. Practically; i). In terms of improving the teaching process, an English instructor needs variety of

teaching techniques, this research donates a technique that can be applied in Speaking class. ii). Creating an alive classroom atmosphere should be considered in order the students are feeling joyful and a part of class activity. The usefulness can be a consideration for English language teacher in terms of increasing students' speaking skills.

CHAPTER II

LANGUAGE PERFORMANCE

2.1 Theory of Speaking

In communication process, language is as a media for people to express ideas both in written and spoken language. Language is a formal system of signs governed by grammatical rules of combination to communicate meaning. This definition stresses the fact that human languages can be described as closed structural systems consisting of rules that relate particular signs to particular meanings (Bloomfield, 1914). People do communication firstly in spoken language then written form comes next. It is universal among human beings who use it for carrying out various activities of life. It is such a common phenomenon that we always take it for granted. We never bother to think about it. John Lyon (2002), in his famous book "Language and Linguistics" has discussed five famous definitions of Language: i). According to E.Sapir (1921): "Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols". ii). B. Bloch and G.L. Trager (1942) write: "A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group co-operates". iii). R.A. Hall (1968) tells us that language is "the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral-auditory arbitrary symbols". iv). R.H. Robins (1979) does not give a formal definition of language but points out certain facts related to language, saying that "languages are symbol systems, almost wholly based on pure or arbitrary conventions". v). According to N. Chomsky (1969) a

language is “a set of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements”. Most of them have taken the view that languages are systems of symbols designed for the purpose of communication. So an operational definition of language may be: “Language is a system of arbitrary symbols for human beings’ communication in speech and writing, that is used by the people of a particular community”. In this definition, the various components of language, or certain words need explanation.

Speaking is the productive skills in the oral mode. It is like the other skills, is more complicated than it seems at first and involves more than just pronouncing words. A good speaker will have knowledge of grammar and vocabulary of the language, Knowledge of rules of speaking, understanding how to use and responds to different types of speech acts.

Harmer (2001) Gower *at al.* (1995: 99-100) state that from the communicative point of view, speaking has many different aspects including two major categories – accuracy, involving the correct use of vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation practiced through controlled and guided activities; and, fluency, considered to be ‘the ability to keep going when speaking spontaneously’. According to Bygate (1987: 3), in order to achieve a communicative goal through speaking, there are two aspects to be considered – knowledge of the language, and skill in using this knowledge. It is not enough to possess a certain amount of knowledge, but a speaker of the language should be able to use this knowledge in different situations. We do not merely *know* how to assemble sentences in the abstract: we have to produce them

and adopt to the circumstances. This means, making decisions rapidly, implementing them smoothly, and adjusting our conversation as unexpected problems appear in our path (Bygate, 1987: 3). Having the two aspects: knowledge of language and skill in using the knowledge, People will communicate effectively so there is no communication gap between interlocutors.

Being able to decide what to say on the spot, saying it clearly and being flexible during a conversation as different situations come out is the ability to use the knowledge 'in action', which creates the second aspect of speaking - the skill, Bygate views the skill as comprising two components: production skills and interaction skills, both can be affected by two conditions: firstly, processing conditions, taking into consideration the fact that 'a speech takes place under the pressure of time'; secondly, reciprocity conditions connected with a mutual relationship between the interlocutors (Bygate, 1987: 7).

2.1.1 Element of Speaking

Many students have difficulties in speaking. There are many elements of speaking that must be mastered by students in order to be a good speaker:

1. Connected speech: effective speakers of English need to be able not only to produce the individual phonemes of English, but also to use fluent connected speech. In connected speech sounds are modified, omitted, added, or weakened. It is for

this reason that we should involve students in activities designed specifically to improve their connected speech.

2. Expressive devices: native of English change the pitch and stress of particular parts of utterances, vary volume and speed, and show by other physical and non verbal means how they are feeling. The use of these devices contributes to the ability to convey meaning. They allow the extra expressions of emotion and intensity, students should be able to deploy at least some of such supra segmental features and devices in the same way if they are to be fully effective communicators.
3. Lexis and grammar: spontaneous speech is marked by the use of number of common lexical phrases, especially in their performance of certain language function. Teachers should therefore supply variety of phrases for different functions, such as: greeting, agreeing and disagreeing.
4. Negotiation language: effective speaking benefits from the negotiatory language we use to seek clarification and to show the structure of what we are saying (Harmer, 2002:269).

We often need ask for clarification when we are listening to someone else talk. Speaking is not only having amount of vocabularies and knowing the grammatical structures, but also mastering all elements of speaking above. All messages we delivered will be acceptable by all communicants if we mastered and applied those elements.

In the other words, the elements of speaking are necessary for fluent oral production, distinguishes between two aspects – knowledge of ‘language features’, and the ability to process information on the spot, it means ‘mental/social processing (Harmer, 2001). The first aspect, language features, necessary for spoken production involves, according to Harmer, the following features: connected speech, expressive devices, lexis and grammar, and negotiation language.

In order to wage a successful language interaction, it is necessary to realize the use of the language features through mental/social processing – with the help of ‘the rapid processing skills’, as Harmer (2001: 271) calls them ‘mental/social processing’ includes three features – language processing, interacting with others, and on-the-spot information processing. Again, to give a clearer view of what these features include, here is a brief summary: - language processing – processing the language in the head and putting it into coherent order, which requires the need for comprehensibility and convey of meaning (retrieval of words and phrases from memory, assembling them into syntactically and proportionally appropriate sequences); - interacting with others – including listening, understanding of how the other participants are feeling, a knowledge of how linguistically to take turns or allow others to do so; - on-the-spot information processing – i.e. processing the information the listener is told the moment he/she gets it.

From Harmer's point of view it can be understood that the ability to wage oral communication, it is necessary that the participant possesses knowledge of language features, and the ability to process information and language on the spot. Language features involve four areas – connected speech, expressive devices, lexis and grammar, and negotiation language. Supposing the speaker possesses these language features, processing skills, 'mental/social processing', will help him or her to achieve successful communication goal. Processing skills include these language features – language processing, interacting with others, and on-the-spot information processing.

Speaking as one of the basic skills of language should be understood by language learners, most of English language learners fell that speaking is of the most difficult subject to be mastered, it is may be caused by the components in the subject. A good spoken language has good structure, pronunciation, word stress, rhythm, intonation and lexical so the expression can be understood by listener easily. Further, Harmer says there some elements of speaking should be mastered to a good speaker:

1. Connected speech. Effective speaker of English need to be able not only produce the individual phonemes of English, but also to use fluent connected speech. In connected to speech sounds are modified, omitted, added or weakened. It is for this reason that we should involve students in activities designed specifically to improve their connected speech.

2. Expressive devices. Native of English change the pitch and stress of particular parts of utterances, vary volume and speed, and show by other physical and non verbal means how they are feeling. The use of these devices contribute to ability to convey meaning. They allow the extra expression of emotion and intensity, students should be able to deploy at least supra segmental features and devices in the same way if they are to be fully effective communicators.
3. Lexis and grammar. Spontaneous speech is marked by the use of number of common lexical phrases, especially in their performance of certain language functions. Teachers should therefore supply variety of phrases for different function, such as greeting, agreeing, disagreeing.
4. Negotiation language. Effective speaking benefits from negotiatory language we use to seek clarification show the structure of what we are using (Harmer, 2002: 269).

A good speaker of English should understand the elements of speaking to produce any utterances in his communicational interaction, if it happens, the messages are expressed will catch by listeners well without any misinterpretation. Spoken language that's used in communication should be accurate and clear to protect from information gap. Brown says there are eight characteristics of spoken language can make oral performance easy, in some cases are difficult:

1. Clustering: Fluent speech is phrasal, not word by word. Learners can organize their output both cognitively and physically through such clustering.

2. Redundancy: The speaker has opportunity to make meaning clearer through redundancy of language. Learners can capitalize on this feature of spoken language.
3. Reduced forms: Contractions, elision, reduce vowels, etc. all form 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 stigmatize them.
4. Performance Variable: One of the advantages of spoken language is that the process of thinking as you speak, allows you to manifest a certain number of performance hesitations, pauses, backtracking, and correction. Learners can actually be taught how to pause and hesitate. For example, in English our thinking time is not silent; we insert certain fillers such as *uh*, *well*, *you know*, *I mean*, *like*, etc. One of the most salient differences between native and nonnative speakers of a language is in their hesitation phenomena.
5. Colloquial language: Make sure our students are reasonably well acquainted with the words, idioms, and phrases of colloquial language and that they get practice in producing these forms.
6. Rate Delivery: Another salient characteristic of fluency is rate of delivery. One of our tasks in teaching spoken English is to help learners achieve an acceptable speed along with other attributes of fluency.
7. Stress, Rhythm, and Intonation: This is the most important characteristic of English pronunciation. The stress-timed

rhythm of spoken language English and its intonation patterns convey important messages.

8. Interaction: Learning to produce waves of language in a vacuum without interlocutors would rob speaking skill of its richest component: The creativity of conversational negotiation (Brown, 2001: 270-271).

The characteristics of spoken language above lead us how to be a good utterance producer of spoken English language. These should be understood well by anyone who wishes to use the language orally.

2.2 The Characteristics of Communicative Competence

The theories of communicative competence are promoted by many linguists in different ways. As Noam Chomsky (1967) discusses about the distinction between competence - 'a speaker's intuitive knowledge of the rules of his native language', and performance - 'what he actually produces by applying these rules', the theory of communicative competence has gone through a serious development so far (Revell, 1991:4). While Brown (1994) refers to several theories of communicative competence as he developed through periods of time, of which the most notable ones include the studies by Hymes (1967,1972), Savignon (1983), Cummins (1979, 1980), or Canale and Swain (1980). Nevertheless, as Brown suggests, the newest views are probably best captured by Lyle F. Bachman (1990) in his schematization of what Bachman calls 'language competence (Brown, 1994: 227-229).

According to Bachman, communicative competence, 'communicative language ability' (CLA), comprises two basic features – *firstly*, knowledge competence in the language, and, *secondly*, the capacity for implementing or using the competence. Bachman proposes three components that in his view 'communicative language ability' framework includes, they are: language competence, strategic competence, and psychological mechanisms. While language competence is a set of specific knowledge components that are utilized in communication via language, strategic competence is the term that Bachman uses to characterize the mental capacity for implementing the components of language competence in contextualized communicative language use; the psychological mechanisms present the neurological and psychological processes involved in the actual execution of language as a physical phenomenon (Bachman, 1994: 84).

Further in brief sense, Bachman divides language competence into two categories: organizational and pragmatic competence. Organizational competence, further splitting into grammatical and textual competence, presents those abilities involved in controlling the formal structure of language for producing or recognizing grammatically correct sentences, comprehending their propositional content, and ordering them to form texts (Bachman, 1994: 87).

The first category of language competence that Grammatical competence includes the knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, and phonology and graphology all of which govern, according

to Bachman, the choice of words to express specific significations, their forms, arrangements in utterance, to express propositions, and their physical realization. Textual competence, on the other hand, includes the knowledge of the conventions for joining utterances together to form a text structured according to rules of cohesion and rhetorical organization, Bachman says (Bachman, 1994: 87-88). According to Brown (1994: 229), what Bachman proposes here is a group of rules and systems that 'dictate' what a communication can do with the forms of language, whether they are sentence-level rules (grammar) or rules which control how, for example, spoken 'string' of sentences together (discourse). Both competences, in relation to oral production, provide devices for creating cohesive relationships in oral discourse and organizing such discourse in ways that are 'maximally efficient in achieving the communicative goals of the interlocutors', Bachman concludes (Bachman, 1994: 89).

The second category of language competence that Bachman distinguishes, pragmatic competence, also splits into two further competences – illocutionary competence, and sociolinguistic competence. Both competences concern 'the relationship between utterances and the acts of functions that speakers intend to perform through these utterances. While illocutionary competence deals with the knowledge of pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable language functions (ideational, heuristic, manipulative, imaginative), sociolinguistic competence refers to the knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for performing these language functions in

a given context with regard to the sensitivity to dialect or variety , register, naturalness, and cultural references and figures of speech (Bachman, 1994: 92-98).

The other linguist, Brown interprets illocutionary competence as functional aspects pertaining to sending and receiving intended meanings while sociolinguistic aspects of pragmatic competence relates to such considerations as politeness, formality, metaphor, register, and culturally related aspects of language' (Bachman, 1994: 92-98).

What actually does that one need to know and able to do in order to speak in another language? Of course, language learners need to know how to articulate sounds in a comprehensible manner, one needs an adequate vocabulary, and one needs to have mastery syntax. These various elements add up to linguistic competence. However, while linguistic competence is necessary, it is not sufficient for someone who wants to communicate competently in another language. Sociologist proposed the notion of communicative competence as an alternative to Chomsky's linguistic competence. Communicative competence includes not only linguistic competence, but also a range of other sociolinguistic skills and conversational skills that enable the speaker to know how to say what to whom, in expressing utterances sociolinguistics guide us to communicate well by having some consideration to define the sorts of conversation in perspective of sociology (Nunan:1999). Further he defined that communicative competence as "the ability to function in a truly

communicative setting-that is, a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adjust itself to the total informational input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors". In addition to being dynamic, rather than static, and it involves the negotiation of meaning (1999). Actually, communicative competence is not restricted to spoken language, but involves writing as well. It is also context specific, which means that a competent communicator knows how to make choices specific to the situation. Finally, it is distinct from performance.

According to Savignon, competence is what one knows, while performance is what one does, Richard, Platt and Weber cited in Nunan (1999: 226), communicative competence includes:

- i. Knowledge of grammar and vocabulary of the language. In Speaking grammar leads us to arrange an utterances dealing with concord (certain grammatical items agree with each other).
- ii. Knowledge of rules of speaking (e.g. knowing how to begin and end conversations, knowing what topic can be talked about in different types of speech events, knowing which address forms should be used with different person one speaks to and in different situations,
- iii. Knowing how to use and responds to different types of speech acts such as request, apologies, thanks, and invitations
- iv. Knowing how to use language appropriately.

These aspects should be possessed by language learners who want to be good speaker of English. They should practice their knowledge of the language in oral communication in order the ideas can be delivered well.

Communication is transferring ideas from one with another, one can carry out communication orally or by writing to express their point of view, a good speaker will give comprehensible information to the addressee. Language learners sometimes find that expressing ideas systematically is a hard work. That's why they are reluctant to speak. Nunan states in his research findings that "reluctant to speak on the part of students was seen as their biggest challenge "(1999:231). While Burns and Joyce identified that there are three sets of factors that may cause reluctance on the part of students to take part in classroom tasks involving speaking. They suggest that this reluctance due to cultural factor, linguistic factors, and psychological/affective factors. Cultural factor derives from the learners experience when they were studying English and the expectations created by this experience. The possible mismatches that can occur between teachers and learners from different cultural backgrounds, if learners come into the classroom believing that learning a language involves listening to the teacher or the tape, and doing written exercises. This perception takes them to be reluctant to become actively involved in speaking (Burns and Joyce: 1997). In this condition, it will be necessary to engage in a certain amount of learner training to encourage them to participate in speaking. This

perspective of students should be altered. A teacher should bring them to be accustomed to using English in oral communicating. In the other case Hopson (1981) states that the linguistic facts that inhabit the use of the spoken language include difficulties in transferring from the learners first language to the sound, rhythms, and stress patterns of English, difficulties with the native speaker pronunciation of the teacher, a lack of understanding of common grammatical of English (e.g. English tenses) and how these may different from their own language, lack of familiarity with the cultural or social knowledge required to process meaning. Psychological and affective factor include cultural shock, lack of motivation, shyness in class, especially if their experience of learning language is negative. A teacher who understands these problems will be easier to guidance the learners to practice the target language. There are some of the micro-skills involved in speaking. The speaker has to:

1. Pronounce the distinctive sounds of a language clearly enough so that people can distinguish them. This includes making tonal distinctions.
2. Use stress and rhythmic patterns, and intonation patterns of the language clearly enough so that people can understand what is said.
3. Use the correct forms of words. This may mean, for example, changes in the tense, case, or gender.
4. Put words together in correct word order.
5. Use vocabulary appropriately.

6. Use the register or language variety that is appropriate to the situation and the relationship to the conversation partner.
7. Make clear to the listener the main sentence constituents, such as subject, verb, object, by whatever means the language uses.
8. Make the main ideas stand out from supporting ideas or information.
9. Make the discourse hang together so that people can follow what you are saying.

The micro skills above relate to some aspects of language such as pronunciation, semantic, grammar, syntax.

2.3 Speaking in Relation to Communicative Competence

A good expression is the utterance which has rules of the language. A speaker should have communicative competence to carry out interaction with someone else. We take the view of Noam Chomsky (1967) about communicative competences. In his distinction talks about between competence - 'a speaker's intuitive knowledge of the rules of his native language', and performance - 'what he actually produces by applying these rules', the theory of communicative competence has gone through a serious development so far (Revell, 1991:4).

Brown (1994) refers to several theories of communicative competence as they developed through periods of time, of which the most notable ones include the studies by Hymes (1967,1972),

Savignon (1983), Cummins (1979, 1980), or Canale and Swain (1980). Nevertheless, as Brown suggests, the newest views are probably best captured by Lyle F. Bachman (1990) in his schematization of what Bachman calls 'language competence' (Brown 1994: 227-229). According to Bachman (1994: 84), communicative competence, 'communicative language ability' (CLA), comprises two basic features – *firstly*, knowledge, competence in the language, and, *secondly*, the capacity for implementing or using the competence. Bachman proposes three components that in his view 'communicative language ability' framework includes, they are: language competence, strategic competence, and psychological mechanisms. While language competence is a set of specific knowledge components that are utilized in communication via language, strategic competence is the term that Bachman uses to characterize the mental capacity for implementing the components of language competence in contextualized communicative language use; the third component, psycho physiological mechanisms present the neurological and psychological processes involved in the actual execution of language as a physical phenomenon (Bachman, 1994: 84).

Further, Bachman divides language competence into two categories: organizational and pragmatic competence. Organizational competence, further splitting into grammatical and textual competence presents those abilities involved in controlling the formal structure of language for producing or recognizing grammatically correct sentences, comprehending their propositional content, and

ordering them to form texts (Bachman, 1994:87). Grammatical competence includes the knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, and phonology and graphology all of which govern. According to Bachman, the choice of words to express specific significations, their forms, arrangements in utterance, to express propositions, and their physical realization. Textual competence, on the other hand, includes the knowledge of the conventions for joining utterances together to form a text structured according to rules of cohesion and rhetorical organization, Bachman says (Bachman, 1994:87-88).

According to Brown (1994:229), what Bachman proposes here is a group of rules and systems that 'dictate' what a communication can do with the forms of language, whether they are sentence-level rules (grammar) or rules which control how, for example, spoken 'string' of sentences together (discourse). Both competences than, in relation to oral production, provide devices for creating cohesive relationships in oral discourse and organizing such discourse in ways that are 'maximally efficient in achieving the communicative goals of the interlocutors', Bachman concludes (1994:89). *The second* category of language competence that Bachman distinguishes, pragmatic competence, also splits into two further competences – illocutionary competence, and sociolinguistic competence. Both competences concern 'the relationship between utterances and the acts of functions that speakers . . . intend to perform through these utterances' (Bachman, 1994:89). While illocutionary competence deals with the knowledge of pragmatic conventions for performing

acceptable language functions (ideational, heuristic, manipulative, imaginative), sociolinguistic competence refers to the knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for performing these language functions in a given context with regard to the sensitivity to dialect or variety, register, naturalness, and cultural references and figures of speech (Bachman, 1994: 92-98).

Brown notes the illocutionary competence as functional aspects 'pertaining to sending and receiving intended meanings' while sociolinguistic aspects of pragmatic competence relate to 'such considerations as politeness, formality, metaphor, register, and culturally related aspects of language' (Brown, 1994:229).

2.3.1 Models of Communicative Ability

The macro four skills of language (reading, writing, listening and speaking) are the targets of language teaching. A language instructor should define the appropriate ways of teaching his students to reach the teaching target, for example teaching conversation. In teaching conversation students should practice their English ability so they are accustomed to applying the language in daily conversation as well as formal communication etc. Communicative competence not only covers the ability to speak in the class room but also cover the ability to use the language in context, particularly in terms of the social demands of performances. We know that knowing a language is more than knowing its rules of grammar. There are culturally specific rules of use which related the language used to features of the communication context. For example ways of speaking appropriate to

communication with close friends may not be the same as those used in communicating with strangers or in a professional context.

Communicative competence really deals with the students' achievement using the language in daily communication. The writer can say that most students have more difficulty in speaking ability than the others. Speaking skill needs knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation of the language and the capability of applying them in speaking. The communicative ability can be specified into four components such as Mc Namara cited:

- a. *Grammatical or formal competence*, which covered the kind of knowledge (of systematic of grammar, lexis, and phonology) familiar from the discrete point tradition of testing.
- b. *Sociolinguistic competence*, or knowledge of rules of language use in terms of what is appropriate to different types of interlocutors, in different settings, and on different topics.
- c. *Strategic competence*, or the ability to compensate in performances for incomplete or imperfect linguistic resources in a second language; and
- d. *Discourse competence*, or the ability to deal with extended use of language in context (2000:18).

The four components above show that the communicative competence needs a large insight in addition to mastering the rules of language. Moreover Harris says speaking is a complex skill requiring the simultaneous use of a number of different abilities which often develop at different rates. Either five components are generally recognized in analysis of the speech process:

1. Pronunciation including the segmental features-vowels and consonants – and the stress and intonation patterns.
2. Grammar
3. Vocabulary
4. Fluency.
5. Comprehension. For oral communication certainly requires a subject to respond to speech as well as to initiate it (Harris, 1969: 82).

The ability of mastering the components of speaking skill above leads a speaker to be good speech producer.

Ur lists four characteristics of successful speaking activities as follows:

1. The learners talk a lot. As much as possible of the period of time allotted to the activity is occupied by the learners talk.
2. Participation is even. In the speaking class, the classroom activity is not dominated by a minority of talkative students, all learners have equal chances to talk or speak in English. Contributions are evenly distributed.
3. Motivation is high. Learners are eager to speak: a). because they are interested in the topic. They have something new to say about it, and b). because they want to contribute to achieve a task objective.
4. Language is of acceptable level. Learners express themselves in utterances that are relevant, easily

comprehensible to each other, and of an acceptable level accuracy (Ur, 1991:121).

The successful speaking activity in teaching speaking will bring students to be familiar with the language, an appropriate teaching strategy will be useful to get this situation.

2.4 Production Skills

The processing conditions (time pressure) in certain ways limit or modify the oral production; it means the use of production skills. For that reason, speakers are forced to use devices which help them make the oral production possible or easier through 'facilitation', or enable them to change words they use in order to avoid or replace the difficult ones by means of 'compensation', Bygate (1987:14) says there are four elementary ways of facilitating: *simplifying structures, ellipsis, formulaic expressions, and using fillers and hesitation devices*. On the other hand, when a speaker needs to alter, correct or change what he or she has said, they will need to make use of compensation devices. These include tools such as substitution, rephrasing, reformulating, self-correction, false starts, and repetition and hesitation. Bygate concludes that incorporation of these features, facilitation and compensation, in the teaching-learning process is of a considerable importance, in order to help students' oral production and compensate for the problems they may face: All these features [facilitation, compensation] may in fact *help* learners to speak, and hence help them to *learn* to speak . . . In addition to helping learners

to learn to speak, these features may also help learners to sound *normal* in their use of the foreign language (Bygate, 1987, 20-21).

Facilitation and compensation, both devices which help students make the oral production possible or easier, or help them to change, avoid or replace the difficult expressions, besides these elementary functions also help students to sound more naturally as speakers of a foreign language. Interaction skills According to Bygate (1987: 22), both speakers and listeners, besides being good at processing spoken words should be 'good communicators', which means 'good at saying what they want to say in a way which the listener finds understandable'. This means being able to possess interaction skills. Communication of meaning then depends on two kinds of skill: routines, and negotiation skills. To begin with, routines are the typical patterns in which speakers organize what they have to communicate. There are two kinds of routines: information routines, and interaction routines. The information routines include frequently recurring types of information structures involved in, for example, stories, descriptions, comparisons, or instructions. Bygate further divides information routines according to their function into evaluative routines (explanations, predictions, justifications, preferences, decisions), and expository routines (narration, descriptions, instructions). The interaction routines, on the other hand, present the characteristic ways, in which interactions are organized dealing with the logical organization and order of the parts of conversation. Interaction routines can typically be observed in, for

example, telephone conversations, interviews, or conversations at the party (Bygate, 1987: 23-27). While routines present the typical patterns of conversation, negotiation skills, on the other hand, solve communication problems and enable the speaker and listener to make themselves clearly understood.

According to Bygate, negotiation skills get routines through by the management of interaction and negotiation of meaning. The first aspect of negotiation skills 'management of interaction', Bygate notes, refers to 'the business of agreeing who is going to speak next, and what he or she is going to talk about' (Bygate, 1987: 27). These are two aspects of management of interaction that Bygate distinguishes: agenda of management and turn-taking. On one hand, participants' choice of the topic, how it is developed, its length, the beginning or the end is controlled by the agenda of management. On the other hand, effective turn-taking requires five abilities: how to signal that one wants to speak, recognizing the right moment to get a turn, how to use appropriate turn structure in order to one's turn properly and not to lose it before finishing what one has to say, recognizing other people's signals of their desire to speak, and, finally, knowing how to let someone else have a turn (Bygate, 1987, 35-40). The second aspect of negotiation skills - 'the skill of communicating ideas clearly and signalling understanding or misunderstanding during a conversation' - is referred to as negotiation of meaning (Bygate, 1987: 27). According to Bygate there are two factors that ensure understanding during oral communications, level of explicitness and

procedures of negotiation (Bygate, 1987: 29). The level of explicitness refers to the choice of expressions with regard to interlocutors' knowledge. As regards the procedures of negotiation, i.e. how specific speakers are in what they say, this aspect of negotiation of meaning involves the use of paraphrases, metaphors, on the use of vocabulary varying the degree of precisions with which we communicate (Bygate,1987: 29-34). To sum it up, there are two basic aspects that Bygate distinguishes when considering the skill of speaking. These include the knowledge of the language and the skill in using this knowledge. The knowledge of producing the language has to be used in different circumstances as they appear during a conversation by means of the skill. The ability to use the knowledge requires two kinds of skills, according to Bygate – production skills, and interaction skills.

Production skills involve two aspects – facilitation and compensation, brought about by processing conditions. Both devices help students, besides making the oral production easier or possible, sound more naturally. Interaction skills, on the other hand, involve routines and negotiation skills. Routines present the typical patterns of conversation including interaction and information routines. Negotiation skills serve as a means for enabling the speaker and listener to make themselves clearly understood. This is achieved by two aspects: management of interaction and turn-taking.

Clark and Clark (in Nunan, 1991: 23) said that speaking is fundamentally an instrument act. Speaker expresses his ideas to get respond from the addressee so the interaction can occur between

them. Further, Nunan (1991:39) states that the successful in speaking is measured through someone ability to carry out a conversation in the language. The other idea is from Ladouse (in Nunan, 1991: 23) speaking is described as the activity as the ability to express oneself in the situation, or the activity to report acts, or situation in precise words or the ability to converse or to express a sequence of ideas fluently.

Furthermore, Wilson (1983:5) defines speaking as development of the relationship between speaker and listener. In addition speaking determining which logical linguistic, psychological a physical rules should be applied in a given communicate situation". A speaker and listener set a certain situation of conversation to make their interaction runs well. They suit the appropriate expressions in the situation. In terms of language teaching, Wallace (1978:98) stated that oral practice (speaking) becomes meaningful to students when they have to pay attention what they are saying. Thus, the students can learn better on how to require the ability to converse their ideas fluently with precise vocabularies and good or acceptable pronunciation so the conversational interaction works well.

In general, there are two kinds of conversational (speaking) situation, formal and informal conversation. When we talk to our friends, neighbor, and family we carry out informal conversation, when we have conversation in office, formal meeting etc. we conduct formal conversation, we close pay attention to the remarks here the conversation take place, there are some definitions of speaking.

Pollard and Liebeck (1994:770) defined speak as (1) utter words in an ordinary voice (not singing), hold a conversation, make a speech ; express in words, (2) use or be able to use (a special language) in speaking, (3) make a polite or friendly remarks. There are three major differences between conversation and public speaking:

1. Public speaking is more highly structured. It usually imposes strict time limitation on the speaker. In most cases, the situation does not allow the listeners to interrupt with questions or commentary. The speaker must accomplish his or her purpose in the speech itself. In preparing the speech, the speaker must anticipate questions that might arise in the minds of listeners and answer them. Consequently, public speaking demands much more detailed planning and preparation than ordinary conversation.
2. Public speaking requires more formal language. Slang, jargon, and bad grammar have little place in public speeches.
3. Public speaking requires a different method of delivery. When conversing informally, most people talk quietly, interject stock phrases as “ you know and “ I mean “ adopt a casual posture, and use what are called vocalized pauses (“uh,” “er,” “um). Effective public speakers, however adjust their voices to be heard clearly throughout the audiences. They assume a more erect posture. They avoid distracting mannerisms and practice. Lucas (1992:9)

In public speaking, the speaker will do some factors above, and the way around a speaker does not take care of them in daily conversation. However there are many similarities between daily conversation and public speaking. For instance, children learn the art of conversation by trial and errors. A baby cries to inform its parents that diaper need changing, a five year old tells a little story to entertain Grandma and gain administration, and these deal with speech but delivering in deft event way. We may not realize it, but we

already employ a wide range of skills when talking to people, these skills include the following (Lucas: 1992):

- a. Organizing your thought logically. Suppose you were giving some one direction to get your house. You would take your listener systematically, step by step, from his or her house to your house then you would organize your message.
- b. Tailoring your message to your audience. You are a geology major, two people ask you how pearls are formed. One is your roommate, the other is your nice – year old niece your answer as follows. To your room mate, “when any irritant, say a grain of sand, get inside the oyster’s shell, the oyster automatically secretes a substance called nacre, which is principally calcium carbonate and is the same material that lines the oyster’s shell. The nacre accumulates in layers around the irritant core to form the pearl. To your niece: ‘Imagine you’re oyster on the ocean floor. A grain of sand gets inside your shell and makes you in comfortable. So you decide to cover it up, you cover it with a material called mother of pearl. The covering builds up around the grain of sand to make it a pearl.
- c. Telling a story for maximum impact. Suppose you are talking a friend about a funny incident at last week’s football game for instance. When you are talking the story, you carefully build up your story, adjusting your words and tone of voice to get the best effect.

- d. Adapting to listener feedback, Whenever you talk with someone, you are aware of that person's reactions verbal, facial and physical, for example : You are explaining an interesting point that came up in ESP class, your listener begins to look confused, puts up a hand as though to stop you, and says "Hub?" you go back and explain more clearly.

Every day, in casual conversation we actually do all these things many times without thinking about them. We don't realize that we possess these communication skills, and these are among the most important skills that we will need for public speaking. Language learning conveys language macro skills, one of them is speaking skills (communication skills). Namara (2000:16) cited" the communication competence is covered by an understanding of language and ability to use language in context, particularly in term of the social demands performances".

In learning teaching process, the speaking achievement is attained through classroom interaction or out door. The Instructor uses English while teaching the students, so that they are able to apply the language in daily spoken language.

In teaching Conversation, the instructor drives the students to be talkative in learning teaching process, it is expected that the learners take part in classroom interaction. Richard (1985:134) states: Conversational competence in language involved the use in different speech styles according to who the speaker is addressing and the circumstances under which the act of communication is taking place,

the range of linguistics a speaker has at his or her disposal may be referred to as a verbal repertoire.

The interaction between Instructor and students as bridge of attaining the aims of conversation material should be considered by the instructor. Ordinarily, the students who are learning English, find difficulty when they are asked to speak rather than to read or write. They find it hard to express their view. In this case, the teacher should convince his students to speak even they make some mistakes. We know that speaking will be more effective if it arises naturally and spontaneously, such as, a remark made by a student or something that happened during the lesson. The noisy of something falling down in the class room can stimulate comment from the class, creating simulation (drama, controversial dialogue, debating class, talk show). This is more effective than asking students to practice a structured dialogue, asking students to speak in front of the classroom then the others are listening. Lewis stated Conversation is a relaxing situation where speaker are inhibited by a certain situation (1988).

Teaching conversation is different from teaching grammar, writing, the Instructor might have students work on a situational dialogue such as at the supermarket, at school and the teacher sometimes gives a common topic of a particular case and the students tell the story based on the experience or knowledge but not ask them to learn by heart a particular dialogue then practice it in front of classroom. In brief, the language instructor focuses the course material for functional language in communication rather than the pattern of the language itself.

2.5 Strategies for Developing Speaking Skills

In communicative output, the learners' main purpose is to complete a task, such as obtaining information, developing a travel plan, or creating a video recording (drama, interview, etc). To complete the task, they may use the language that the instructor has just presented, but they also may draw on any other vocabulary, grammar, and communication strategies that they know. In communicative output activities, the criterion of success is whether the learner gets the message across. Accuracy is not a consideration unless the lack of it interferes with the message.

In everyday communication, spoken exchanges take place because there is some sort of information gap between the participants. Communicative output activities involve a similar real information gap. In order to complete the task, students must reduce or eliminate the information gap. In these activities, language is a tool, not an end in itself. In a balanced activities approach, the teacher uses a variety of activities from these different categories of input and output. Learners at all proficiency levels, including beginners, benefit from this variety; it is more motivating, and it is also more likely to result in effective language learning. Students often think that the ability to speak a language is the product of language learning, but speaking is also a crucial part of the language learning process. Effective instructors teach students speaking strategies -- using minimal responses, recognizing scripts, and using language to talk about language -- which they can use to help themselves expand their knowledge of the language and their confidence in using it. These instructors' help students learn to speak so that the students can use speaking to learn.

a. Using Minimal Responses

Language learners who lack confidence in their ability to participate successfully in oral interaction often listen in silence while others do the talking. One way to encourage such learners to begin to participate is to help them build up a stock of minimal responses that they can use in different types of exchanges. Such responses can be especially useful for beginners. Minimal responses are predictable, often idiomatic phrases that conversation participants use to indicate understanding, agreement, doubt, and other responses to what another speaker is saying. Having a stock of such responses enables a learner to focus on what the other participant is saying, without having to simultaneously plan a response.

b. Recognizing Scripts

Some communication situations are associated with a predictable set of spoken exchanges a script. Greetings, apologies, compliments, invitations, and other functions that are influenced by social and cultural norms often follow patterns or scripts. So do the transactional exchanges involved in activities such as obtaining information and making a purchase. In these scripts, the relationship between a speaker's turn and the one that follows it can often be anticipated. Instructors can help students develop speaking ability by making them aware of the scripts for different situations so that they can predict what they will hear and what they will need to say in response. Through interactive activities, instructors can give students practice in managing and varying the language that different scripts contain.

c. Using Language to Talk About Language

Language learners are often too embarrassed or shy to say anything when they do not understand another speaker or when they realize that a conversation partner has not understood them. Instructors can help students overcome this reticence by assuring them that misunderstanding and the need for clarification can occur in any type of interaction, whatever the participants' language skill levels. Instructors can also give students strategies and phrases to use for clarification and comprehension check.

By encouraging students to use clarification phrases in class when misunderstanding occurs and by responding positively when they do, instructors can create an authentic practice environment within the classroom itself. As they develop control of various clarification strategies, students will gain confidence in their ability to manage the various communication situations that they may encounter outside the classroom.

2.6 Stages of Language Learning in Speaking

Individuals learning a second language use the same innate processes that are used to acquire their first language from the first days of exposure to the new language in spite of their age. They reach similar developmental stages to those in first language acquisition, making some of the same types of errors in grammatical markers that young children make, picking up chunks of language without knowing precisely what each word means, and relying on sources of input humans who speak that language-to provide modified speech that they can at least partially comprehend (Collier, 1998). Second language learners are usually observed developing a new language system that

incorporates elements from the native language and elements from English they recently learned. Inter-language actually helps second language learners test hypotheses about how language works and develop their own set of rules for using language.

Stage I: Pre-production

This is the silent period. Beginners only listen but rarely speak. English language learners may have some words in their receptive vocabulary but they are not yet speaking. Some students will be able to repeat only everything that someone says. They are not really producing language but are imitating. Students may duplicate gestures and movements to show comprehension. Teachers should focus attention on listening comprehension activities and on building a receptive vocabulary because English language learners at this stage will need much repetition of English.

At this stage, the learners' ability at speaking, They can hardly understand anything at all, unless the speaker is talking about things the learner is observing, or unless the language being learned is closely related to some other language the learner knows. Through comprehension activities the learner can internalize some vocabulary and some grammatical structures, which will help the learner to understand more in stage two, when she or she knows enough to actually converse in a simple way. The result of getting through stage one is that the learner has acquired enough of the basic building blocks of the language to begin to function in real communication situations in a halting way. In stage one there is very little real speaking ability, apart from some words and sentences that can be built on the comprehension exercises. In real communication situations the learner

has to depend on memorized survival phrases to meet the most immediate needs.

Stage II: Early Production

At this stage students try to speak some words. Students can use short language chunks that have been memorized although these chunks may not always be used correctly. Learner listen more their talkative classmates and extend his vocabulary. The learners' ability at speaking; In stage two inputs is comprehensible if the learner already knows the nonlinguistic content what he or she is hearing or if the communication situation is very predictable. There are more genuine two-way conversations with speakers of the language, although it takes a very patient native speaker to persevere in trying to communicate with a learner at this stage. The result of getting through stage two well is quite a bit of "fluency" in comprehending language which uses a variety of structures in connected discourse, with an ever growing vocabulary. In stage two, the learner is able to speak well in tasks that are fairly structured and predictable.

Stage III: Speech Emergence

At this stage, Students have a good vocabulary of words and uses simple phrases and sentences in his communication with others. They are able to ask simple questions, which may be grammatically correct or wrong. Students try to initiate short conversations with classmates. They are able to read and understand easy stories. The learners' speaking ability; In stage three the learner can understand new information, but it still helps if that information is still specially geared to a new speaker's needs. This means that meanings must often be negotiated. In order to keep increasing in comprehension fluency

during this stage, the key ingredient is coming to understand the background information that everyone in the culture knows about, and in particular, learning this information in connection with the language that is associated with them. Because the learner can by now understand a lot of the linguistic content, it is possible to develop more ability for top-down processing of "new" information of the non-linguistic content. If there is adequate input, the learner should be developing a sense of the different discourse genres and registers of speech. The result of getting through stage three is that the learner is able to comprehend language related to a vast range of topics, situations and contexts, as well as easily process many social nuances. In stage three, the learner has increasing facility to produce connected narrative discourse.

Stage IV: Intermediate Fluency

At the stage of intermediate fluency, English language learners are able to use more complex sentences in speaking and writing to express opinions and share their thoughts. They are able to ask questions to clarify what they are learning in class. Learners are able to work with some teacher support. Comprehension of all subjects' content is increasing. At this stage, students are able to use different strategies to learn content in English. Teachers have to focus on learning strategies. Students in this stage can understand more complex concepts. The learners' ability at speaking; In Stage Four the learner learns most from normal native-to-native speech as it occurs in the whole range of life experiences. The learner will understand most input, provided he attends to it. For example, native speakers may talk about the learner right in his presence, intending to teach him and get a reaction. He will

certainly hear that they are talking, but may not in the deeper sense "hear" a thing they say, unless he is attending to it. In Stage Four, the learner has increasing facility in abstract and hypothetical discussions

Stage V: Advanced Fluency

Student at this stage will be near-native in their ability to perform in content area learning. Students have needed continuous support from classroom in reading writing and speaking. In Stage five, the learner has increasing facility in discussions using his vocabulary without any proper preparation.

2.7 Communicative Language Teaching and Speaking Activities

Many language learners regard speaking ability as the measure of knowing a language. These learners define fluency as the ability to converse with others, much more than the ability to read, write, or comprehend oral language. They regard speaking as the most important skill they can acquire, and they assess their progress in terms of their accomplishments in spoken communication.

Language learners need to recognize that speaking involves three areas of knowledge:

1. Mechanics (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary): Using the right words in the right order with the correct pronunciation.
2. Function (transaction and interaction): Knowing when clarity of message is essential (transaction/information exchange) and when precise understanding is not required (interaction/relationship building)
3. Social and cultural rules and norms (turn-taking, rate of speech, length of pauses between speakers, relative roles of

participants): Understanding how to take into account who is speaking to whom, in what circumstances, about what, and for what reason.

In the communicative model of language teaching, instructors help their students develop this body of knowledge by providing authentic practice that prepares students for real-life communication situations. They help their students develop the ability to produce grammatically correct, logically connected sentences that are appropriate to specific contexts, and to do so using acceptable (that is, comprehensible) pronunciation.

As Brown describes, it has been the philosophy of communicative language teaching (CLT) for many years to teach foreign languages through communicative approach which focuses 'on speaking and listening skills, on writing for specific communicative purposes, and on authentic reading texts' (Brown, 1994: 226). The most important features of CLT then Brown defines by means of four characteristics:

- a. Classroom goals are focused on all of the components of communicative competence and not restricted to grammatical or linguistic competence;
- b. Language techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes. Organizational language forms are not the central focus but rather aspects of language that enable the learners to accomplish those purposes.

- c. Fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques. At times fluency may have to take on more importance than accuracy in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use.
- d. In the communicative classroom, students ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed context (Brown, 1994:245).

In addition, Harmer (2001: 84-85) when suggesting features of CLT implies that 'the language learning will take care of itself' and agrees with Brown that the accuracy of the language is less important than successful achievement of the communicative task.

In relation to communicative language teaching, Revell reminds that 'theories of communicative competence imply that teachers must do more than just supply learners with a number of language structures to manipulate' and suggests that it is necessary to make a link between 'linguistic competence' and 'communicative competence'(Revell,1991: 5). At this point, William Littlewood (1991, 8) proposes a solution for bridging the gap that Revell demands by categorizing activities into two groups: pre-communicative activities, and communicative activities.

The aim of the pre-communicative activities is, apart from producing certain language forms in an acceptable way, as Littlewood suggests, to 'help the learners to develop links with meanings that will later enable them to use this language for communicative purposes' (1991:8). Pre-communicative activities are therefore divided into two

subcategories: 'structural activities', such as mechanical drills or verb paradigms, for producing accurate and appropriate language forms, on one hand; and, 'quasi-communicative activities', such as question-and-answer activities, giving directions to a stranger basing learner's replies on, for example, a town plan, or questionnaires, which bear a potential functional meanings of the language. The second category forms a group of 'communicative activities', which Littlewood divides into two further categories: 'functional activities', and 'social interaction activities' (Littlewood, 1991: 9-14).

The aim of the functional communication activities is to practice students' ability to get meaning across as effectively as possible. Littlewood includes here activities based on sharing information with restricted and unrestricted cooperation (identifying pictures, discovering sequences, locations, missing information, 'secrets', differences, etc.), sharing and processing information (reconstructing story sequences, pooling information to solve a problem, etc.), or processing information (for example, groups must decide what they will take for a trip). On the other hand, social interaction activities, in addition to overcoming an information gap or solving a problem, extend the social meanings of the language through, for example, simulation and role-play activities, discussions or conversations thus developing also social acceptability in the language use (Littlewood, 1991:16-36). When classifying activities focusing on the development of speaking skills, Byrne (1991) besides taking into consideration organizational forms to be involved in the

activities and their focus either on accuracy or fluency of the language, also considers their teacher or learner centered. Teacher controlled whole-class activities that focus on the accuracy of language involve making drills and controlled conversations, while fluency activities give space for conversations, discussions or story-telling. On the other hand, learner directed pairwork, or groupwork activities that focus on accuracy involve role-plays, controlled conversations or working with questionnaires, while fluency activities make use of project work, various games, and also discussions carried out within groups or pairs (Byrne 1991, 10-12).

For the purpose of the research, the activities focused on the development of speaking skills. It was provided students with as many opportunities to practice the language orally as possible. The essential aspect of teaching process is productive skills. It is important to avoid purely grammatical lessons and follow the principles that communicative language teaching offers, with the primary focus on activities that aim at overcoming an information gap and developing the social meanings of the language. All of these will lead to a better communication of students' thoughts and feelings more clearly and fully as well as being confident in their own ability at oral language to tackle new situations and challenges, both kinds of activities that aim at either communicative or partially communicative purpose will inevitably be connected with the use of Pairwork- class teaching.

According to Jeremy Harmer, there are some possible activities can be carried out in speaking class:

1. Acting from a Script

In this activity, the students have to dare to perform their dialogues. Students can be instructed to act out scenes from plays given, sometimes filming the results (Harmer, 2001:271). The students are also can be instructed to act out the dialogues / script of drama they made, through this activity they can perform freely the target language.

2. Communication Games

Games which are designed to provoke communication between students frequently depend on an information gap so that one student has to talk to a partner in order to solve a puzzle, draw a picture (describe and draw), put things in the right order (describe and arrange), or find similarities and differences between pictures (Harmer, 2001:272).

3. Discussion

Discussion can be held in teaching speaking, but, sometimes it fails because of the students. One of the reasons that discussions fail (when they do) is that students are reluctant to give an opinion in front of the whole class, particularly if they cannot think of anything to say and are not, anyway, confident of language they might use to say it. Many students feel extremely exposed in discussion situations (Harmer, 2001:272). The buzz group is one way in which a teacher can avoid such difficulties. It means that the students have a chance for

quick discussions in small groups before any of them are asked to speak in public. Because they have a chance to think of ideas and the language to express them with before being asked to talk in front of class, the stress level of that eventual whole-class performance is reduced.

4. Prepared Talks

In this activity, the students prepare their speech first before presenting in front of the class. A popular kind of activity is the prepared talk where a student (or students) makes a presentation on a topic of their own choice. Such talks are not designed for informal spontaneous conversation; because they are prepared, they are more 'writing like'.

5. Questionnaires

Students can design questionnaires on any topic that is appropriate. The teacher acts as a resource and helps them in the design process. Questionnaires are very useful because both of questioner and respondent have something to say to each other.

6. Simulation and Role-play

Students simulate the real life encounter and taking on the role of a character different from themselves. According to Ken Jones adopted by Jeremy Harmer stated that simulation and role-play have the following characteristics:

- a. Simulated environment: the teacher says that the classroom is an airport check-in area, for example.
- b. Structure: students must see how the activity is constructed and they must be given the necessary information to carry out the simulation effectively. Teacher can choose one of the activities to teach speaking in one meeting and choose the other activities in another meeting. These activities are hoped can improve students speaking ability (Harmer, 2001:274).

2.8 Theories of Learning

Language learning as a process of receiving and producing any utterances to conduct a communication from one to another. In communication process a speaker and the address need to understand the language patterns to gain meaningful remarks. A language teacher should introduce the language pattern to their learners so that they can create their own sentences to express their points of view. *Traditionally*, many people assumed that children learn language by imitating what adults say. For imitation to provide a mechanism for the acquisition of language, though, children must imitate structures that are more complex than those they can already produce. This imitation would be an innovation from the child's point of view and could before provide the next step to be taken in acquisition. However studies of acquisition have found that children's imitations show no evidence of innovation (Clark, H. and Clark, E, 1977: 334).

Language as a dynamic knowledge can expand in any time. The students who study a language by imitating some utterances will not much help to him to reproduce the other long remarks. A linguist cited the children's imitations never contained new structures. When children imitate longer utterances, they only produce a part of the sentences. It denotes they can catch the phrase only and it brings them fail to produce a complete utterance. As the English instructor should consider the way of teaching his learners based on the teaching target.

The second theory is reinforcement. Another way children might learn language is by reinforcement, under the view, children would learn by being encouraged positively for any utterances that conform to adult structure and function. In this theory cited that parents give free to the children talking without correcting any utterance at the time of speaking as long as they are comprehensible, except occasionally for the correct pronunciation. In teaching conversation, a language instructor might not stop students speaking at the time of speaking when they make mistakes in their utterances because it will make students doubt to utter anything.

A third theory about how children learn language might be hypothesis testing. Under this view children use what people say to form hypothesis about how different ideas are expressed in the language they are acquiring. For example, children acquiring English might form the hypothesis that the idea of "more than one object" is expressed by the addition of – s at the end of the word designating

the object. They might think to form the plural noun is the addition – s for each singular noun. They then apply to produce plurals like shoe – shoes, cat – cats and dog – dogs, as well as man – *mans, tooth – *tooths, mouse – *mouses. The systematic “errors” like *mans*, *tooths*, *mouses* show some of the strongest evidence that children learn language. This is stages children understand the rules of language (Clark, H. and Clark, E: 1977).

2.8.1 Approach, Method, Technique

These terms are the procedures for teaching proposed by the American applied linguistic, Edward Anthony. In order the readers do not misunderstand about these terms, the writer gives clarification of each by denoting definition.

According to Edward Anthony in the book of Richard and Rogers (1986) clarifies: that an approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning, an approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught, Method is a overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of it which is based upon, the selected approach, an approach s axiomatic, a method is procedural. Within one approach, there can be many methods. A technique is implementation- that which actually takes place in a class room.

2.8.2 Teaching Method

The communicative approach to teaching of English refers to:
a) the native speaker’s idealized knowledge of the abstract system of

rules of the language, knowledge that can produce and understand an infinite number of sentences which is called competence, and b) Performance- the actual use of the language situations (Foley, 2005: 114). Several ELT specialists and linguists pointed out that to approximate to the competence level of native speaker, it is imperative that language be taught with an emphasis on its communicative aspect rather than on linguistic accuracy, the students are guided to use the language learnt even they make mistakes in utterances, that is why the English Instructors are suggested to apply variety of techniques.

The success of gaining teaching target also depends on the quality of the teacher which, in turn, depends on the effective learning teaching process in a class room. Teacher teaching performance is crucial in the field of education, if a teacher does his job with a good achievement. The students might be motivated to follow the activity in the class room. A good achievement is meant the teacher does not only have a good preparation in course material, but also he has achievement to applies sorts of methodology. Teaching method is a part of teaching process that teacher should consider. A method might not be suitable to be applied for any subject. For instance, a teacher who teaches conversation will consider a method that will be used. We can say that the teaching method will influence the effectiveness of teaching learning process. Richard and Rodgers “... method is an over all plan for orderly presentation of language

material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach, there can be many methods “ (1986: 15).

It can be comprehended that a method of teaching is as a guidance of doing teaching activity. A theory clarifies that different situation calls for different material, different methods, different activities, and different strategies, the main principle for teacher to remember, however, in deciding the suitability of an approach or method is whether it will be helpful to their particular students in that class. Will it help students to achieve their objective?, if it does that, the teacher will also have succeeded (Lewis:1985). Applied teaching method will affect the classroom activity so the language instructor should consider the approach that he is going to use.

2.8.3 Teaching Strategy

Knowledge of teaching strategies is crucial for language instructor who teaches learners to comprehend and utilize language. Different level and age of students need different strategy that applied to teach them. The strategy used in language teaching specially on speaking class strongly needed to consider in order the language learners totally involved in the classroom activity. The characteristics of successful speaking activity defined by Ur. as follow:

1. **Learners talk a lot.** As much as possible of the period of time allotted to the activity in fact occupied by learner talk. This may seem obvious, but often most time is taken up with teacher talk of pauses.

2. **Participation is even.** Classroom discussion is not dominated by a minority of talkative participants: all get a chance to speak, and contributions are fairly evenly distributed.
3. **Motivation is high.** Learners are eager to speak: because they are interested in the topic and have something new to say about it, or because they want to contribute to achieving a task objective.
4. **Language is of an acceptable level.** Learners express themselves in utterances that are relevant, easily comprehensible to each other, and of an acceptable level of language accuracy (Ur : 2003: 120).

2.8.4 Teaching Language to Children

In language teaching involved psychological aspect that teacher should understand the students' level, motivation, and ability. An English teacher who recognizes, these actors might bring him to successful learning teaching process because he can consider how to teach them. Harmer (2000; 12) states Teacher of English generally make three level distinctions; *beginner*, *intermediate* and *advanced*. Broadly, however, beginners are those who do not know any English and advanced students are those whose level of English is competent, allowing them to read unsimplified text and fiction and communicate fluently with native speaker.

These different level of students suggest teacher to understand sorts of strategies in teaching. For instance, If the language teacher teaches beginner level, he might teach very simple word (how to

pronounce a word), simple introduction dialogue. While there are others which are more appropriate for advanced students, such as discursive essay writing or formal debating, and beginners need to be exposed to fairly simple language which they can understand. In their language work, they may get pleasure and good understanding from concentrating on question like “what is your name?, What is your telephone number? etc.

The level of students also affects the teachers behavior, At the beginner level for instance, The teacher speaks loudly and very slowly to help him to get our meaning across. It will help students catch the good pronunciation and meaning of word or sentences.

Harmer (2000:32) states Good teachers are able to balance the serious study of English with more entertaining activities that they think their students some time need by watching their class and asking their students what they think and feel, they can select a judicious blend of activity and style.

The teaching technique is crucial to know by a teacher in order learners do not get bored in studying. Harmer in research findings in Britain and London states there are some characteristics of good teacher: (1) She should make her lesson interesting, so you don't fall asleep in them. (2) A teacher must love her job. If she really enjoys her job that'll make the lesson more interesting. (3) I like a teacher who has lots knowledge, not only of her subject. (4) A good teacher is an entertainer and I mean in a positive sense. (5) It's important that you can talk to the teacher when you have problems and you don't get along the subject.(6) A good teacher issomeone who helps rather than shouts.(7) A good teacher issomeone who knows our names.

(9) A good teacher should be able to correct people without offending them. These research findings denote that a good teacher should consider a technique used in language teaching to make the classroom atmosphere alive.

2.8.5 Teaching Language to Adults

Many language learners regard speaking ability as the measure of knowing a language. They define fluency as the ability to converse with others, much more than the ability to read, write, or comprehend oral language. They regard speaking as the most important skill they can acquire, and they assess their progress in terms of their accomplishments in spoken communication. Language learners need to recognize that speaking involves three areas of knowledge:

- a. Mechanics (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary): Using the right words in the right order with the correct pronunciation
- b. Functions (transaction and interaction): Knowing when clarity of message is essential (transaction/information exchange) and when precise understanding is not required (interaction/relationship building)
- c. Social and cultural rules and norms (turn-taking, rate of speech, length of pauses between speakers, relative roles of participants): Understanding how to take into account who is speaking to whom, in what circumstances, about what, and for what reason.

In the communicative approach of language teaching, instructors help their students develop this body of knowledge by providing authentic practice that prepares students for real-life

communication situations. They help their students develop the ability to produce grammatically correct, logically connected sentences that are appropriate to specific contexts, and to do so using acceptable (that is, comprehensible) pronunciation.

It is probably the greatest different adult and younger students is that their experience in language learning. They have long history of learning experience from school in the past. The bad learning experience or good will help them to form strong opinion about how learning-teaching carried out. Those who got failure at school they may assume that they are going to fail again. Those who get success they assume that learning English will be easy.

Adult students will get more nervous of learning if we compare with younger ones. The potential for losing face become greater the older you get. The adolescent students dislike being made to look foolish in front of the classmates. In this case the teacher should understand the emotion of students in order he does not lose control, because if the students do not like the subject then they will make noise in the classroom. The adult students do not do it in the same way as younger students do, but teacher in this age will get experience of students who spend their time talking with their neighbors when the teacher is trying to take their attention. The adult may come late and fail to do any homework from teacher. In teaching speaking for adult learners can be done by using following instructions:

- A good English teacher of speaking class should know something about the cultural background of the students that you are teaching. You may not know well the students whom

you want to help. Try not to superimpose your own cultural or belief systems over others.

- Create a certain atmosphere in speaking zone, for instance, work pair, grouping, role play etc. A good way for non-native English speakers to learn verbal context is to let them pretend to be someone else or let them in unpressured situation. It is also good to place them in pretend circumstances. Make them enjoy the learning process without any pressure from you so they get the learning experience fun.
- Be sure, no student disparages others who make mistake in spoken, in order they feel enjoy practicing their English in your class.
- Build students' vocabulary. Give them a new vocabulary list based on the context of the material. You can develop a list from common expressions or idioms they may use on the day you are teaching.
- Increase listening skills. Suggest your students to listen to English native speakers as often as possible. This can be done by having them watch or listen to either radio or TV news.
- Be sure to let students talk aloud. In order to practice their English effectively, create an environment where students feel comfortable to speaking with their classmates or in front of their classmates. This will train their own pronunciation and build their own self-confident in speaking.

- Be sure, you give correction on your students' utterances in Pronunciation, Grammar or Word choice. Do this before closing the meeting.
- Be sure, you do not immediately give any correction to your students' mistake while speaking because they will be reluctant to speak.

2.8.6 The Roles of Teacher in Speaking Class

The roles of the teacher in language teaching specially in pairwork activity should be flexible, it means he should come closer to the learners and pay attention to their language use. Nunan and Lamb (1996) point out that the roles that the teachers adopt are dynamic, not static, and are subject to change according to the psychological factors brought by the participants (Nunan and Lamb, 1996:134), In addition, Byrne (1991:13) compares the teacher to an actor claiming that the teacher 'will have to play different roles at different times'. Byrne (1991:13) divides the roles of the teacher according to the type of interaction activity distinguishing between fluency and accuracy activities. During fluency activities the teacher most frequently adopts the roles of stimulator, manager and consultant, reminding that the main reason for taking part in such activities is to get students to interact, set up the activities and to be available for help and advice if students need and ask for it. On the other hand, the roles that the teacher carries out during accuracy activities will primarily include the roles of conductor, organizer and monitor. Teacher's main task will therefore be to make sure that the students know what to practice,

and that they practice effectively, together with organizing the activities and checking while students are performing, based on the reflection of the students' behaviour in the classroom.

Nunan and Lamb (1996) grade the roles of the teacher from the most problematic, in terms of participants' roles and behaviour. They include the roles of: controller, entertainer, disciplinarian, and a developer of a sense of independence and responsibility. The teacher continually establishing control, giving directions, threats and punishment, is labeled as 'controller'. Still noisy but positive atmosphere, where the teacher introduces games and recreational activities, or reading stories, shows the teacher as 'entertainer'. The 'disciplinarian' establishes rules to be followed and is quick to notice any misbehavior; while the teacher who spends time by teaching, not requiring a close supervision and in case of noise providing only a simple reminder with affectivity, Nunan and Lamb label as 'developer of a sense of independence and responsibility' (Nunan and Lamb, 1996: 135-136).

In relation to fluency speaking activities, Harmer (2001, 275-276) mentions three basic roles that teachers take on including: prompter, participant, and feedback provider. While taking the role of a prompter, the teacher offers suggestions or lets students struggle out of a difficult situation (when students get lost, cannot think of what to say next, lose fluency), which can stop the sense of frustration when coming to a 'dead end' of language ideas. A teacher acting as a participant prompts covertly, introduces new information

to help the activity along, ensures continuing students' engagement, and generally maintains a creative atmosphere. Harmer warns that when acting as a participant, the teacher should be careful not to participate too much, thus dominating the speaking and drawing all the attention to himself or herself. Finally, feedback provider, Harmer says, may inhibit students and take the communicativeness out of the activity by over-correction; therefore, the correction should be helpful and gentle getting students out of difficult misunderstanding and hesitations.

As a language teacher has his own role in teaching-learning process in the classroom. Speaking teacher may have different role from other different subject, because he should talk less than students, Students must take part more in speaking time. Students in speaking class should have more opportunity to demonstrate their speaking competency in order they are familiar with the target language use, Teacher takes part as class speaking activity controller, he focus on any aspects of the spoken language usage so the students can demonstrate their speaking competency naturally, this is very important to be recognized by English lectures. The followings are the roles of language lecturers in general:

1. Prompter: Students sometimes get lost, can not think what to say next, or some other way lost the fluency teacher expect of them. However, teacher may be able to help them and the activity to progress by offering discrete suggestions. If this can be done supportively without disrupting the discussion or

forcing students out of role, it will stop the sense of frustration that some students feel when they come to a dead end of language or ideas.

2. Participant: teacher should be good animators when asking students to produce language. Sometimes this can be achieved by setting up an activity clearly and enthusiasm. At other times, however, teachers may want to participate in discussion or role plays themselves. That way they can prompt covertly, introduce new information to help the activity along, ensure continuing student engagement, and generally maintain a creative atmosphere.
3. Feedback provider: the vexed question of when and how to give feedback in speaking activities is answered by considering carefully the effect of possible difference approaches. When students are in the middle of a speaking activity, over-correction may inhibit them and take the communicativeness out of the activity. On the other hand, helpful and gentle correction may get students out of difficult misunderstandings and hesitations. Everything depends on upon our tact and the appropriacy of the feedback teacher gives in particular.

According to Richards and Lockhart (1999: 188), feedback on students' spoken language can be either positive or negative and may serve not only to let students know how well they have performed but also increase motivation and build a supportive climate. Harmer (2001:104) says that the decision about how to react to students' performance will depend upon the stage of the lesson, the activity,

the type of mistake made, and the particular student who is making that mistake. Different methodologists look at providing feedback from several aspects; most often, however, feedback is seen from the viewpoint of accuracy (form of the language used) and fluency (content of spoken production) activities. To begin with, Richards and Lockhart (1999: 189) distinguish between the feedback on content, and feedback on form, suggesting strategies and decisions to be considered for both kinds.

The strategies that Richards and Lockhart suggest for feedback on content include: acknowledging a correct answer, indicating an incorrect answer, praising, expanding or modifying a students' answer, repeating, summarizing, or criticizing. On the other hand, feedback on form represents focusing on the accuracy of spoken production including decisions about 'whether learners' errors should be corrected, which kinds of learner errors should be corrected, and how learner errors should be corrected' (1999:189). Richards and Lockhart provide different ways for accomplishing feedback on form:

- Asking the student to repeat what he or she said;
- Pointing out the error and asking the student to self-correct;
- Commanding on an error and explaining why it is wrong, without having the student repeat the correct form;
- Asking another student to correct the error;
- Using a gesture to indicate that an error has been made (Richards and Lockhart, 1999: 190).

Similarly, Byrne (1991: 35) describes providing feedback from the viewpoint of accuracy and fluency activities. During accuracy activities, Byrne notes down, the teacher may provide feedback immediately on how well or badly students have done, or make a note of mistakes and shift the feedback onto a future lesson. In addition, teacher should not forget that the students may want to ask some questions or say what they think of the activity. On the other hand, when conducting a fluency activity, Byrne suggests that the teacher makes notes of anything serious and reteaches it in another lesson and lets the students to take responsibility for what they are doing by not interfering (Byrne, 1991:79). For the feedback provided during fluency work, according to Harmer (2001: 105), it is important that the teacher does not interrupt in 'mid-flow', since it interrupts the communication and drags an activity back to the study of language form or precise meaning. The techniques for correcting students during fluency work that Harmer suggests include gentle correction, such as prompting students forward, reformulating what a student has said, and recording mistakes with further analysis. During accuracy work, according to Harmer, it is necessary to point out and correct the mistakes the students are making, but at the same time the correction should not be too intensive, because it can be just as unpleasant as during fluency work. Harmer goes on by suggesting several ways of correcting students during accuracy work, among which he includes showing incorrectness by repeating, echoing, giving statement and question, making a facial expression, or hinting (Harmer, 2001:105-108).

Methodologists often distinguish between feedback on accuracy and fluency activities in relation to speaking, though sometimes differently labeled, for example, Richards and Lockhart make a distinction between the feedback provided on the content and form, while Harmer and Byrne describe feedback provided for accuracy and fluency activities. Nevertheless, most of the teaching specialists agree that providing feedback during spoken performance depends on several aspects, of which the most important are the type of activity and the kind of mistake that is made.

In speaking class, there are some aspects should be considered by English the instructors to be successful class:

- A good English teacher of speaking skills should know something about the cultural background of the students that he is teaching. He may not know well the students whom he wants to help. Try not to superimpose your own cultural or belief systems over others.
- Create a certain atmosphere in speaking zone, for instance, work pair, grouping, role play etc. A good way for non-native English speakers to learn verbal context is to let them pretend to be someone else or let them in unpressured situation. It is also good to place them in pretend circumstances. Make them enjoy the learning process without any pressure from you so they get the learning experience fun.

- Be sure, no student blames others who make mistake in spoken, in order they feel enjoy practicing their English in your class.
- Build students' vocabulary. Give them a new vocabulary list based on the context of the material. You can develop a list from common expressions or idioms they may use on the day you are teaching.
- Increase listening skills. Suggest your students to listen to English native speakers as often as possible. This can be done by having them watch or listen to either radio or TV news.
- Be sure to let students talk aloud. In order to practice their English effectively, create an environment where students feel comfortable to speaking with their classmates or in front of their classmates. This will train their own pronunciation and build their own self-confident in speaking.
- Be sure, you give correction on your students' utterances in pronunciation, grammar or word choice. Do this before closing the meeting.
- Be sure, you do not immediately give any correction to your students who make mistake while speaking because they will be shy of speaking.

Classroom activities focus on developing learners' ability to express themselves in oral communication therefore learners should have much time to practice in the classroom. Ur states some characteristics of a successful speaking activity:

- i. **Learners talk a lot.** As much as possible of the period of time allotted to the activity is in fact occupied by learner talk. This may seem obvious, but often most time is taken up with teacher talk or pauses.
- ii. **Participation is even.** Classroom discussion is not dominated by a minority of talkative participants: all get a chance to speak, and contributions are fairly evenly distributed.
- iii. **Motivation is high.** Learners are eager to speak: because they are interested in the topic and have something new to say about it, or because they want to contribute to achieving a task objective.
- iv. **Language of an acceptable level.** Learners express themselves in utterances that relevant, easily comprehensible to each other, and of an acceptable level of language accuracy (Ur, 2003:120).

In language teaching on speaking, we often find learners get some problems to talk in the classroom. It is also noted by Ur (2003). It is stated there are some common problems got by learners in speaking activity.

- a. **Inhibition.** Unlike reading, writing and listening activities, speaking requires some degrees of real-time exposure to an audience. Learners are often inhibited about trying to say things in a foreign in the classroom: worried about making

mistakes, fearful of criticism or losing face, or simply shy of attention that their speech attracts.

- b. **Nothing to say.** Even if they are not inhibited, you often hear learners complain that they can not think of anything to say: They have no motive to express themselves beyond the guilty feeling that they should be speaking.
- c. **Low or uneven participation.** Only one participant can talk at a time if he or she is to be heard; and in a large group this means that each one will have only very little talking time. This problem is compounded by the tendency of some learners to dominate, while others speak very little or not at all.
- d. **Mother-tongue use.** In classes where all, or a number of, the learners share the same mother tongue, they may tend to use it: because it is easier, because it feels unnatural to speak to one another in a foreign language, and because they feel less 'exposed' if they are speaking their mother tongue. If they are talking in small groups it can be quite difficult to get some classes – particularly the less disciplined or motivated ones-to keep to the target language (Ur, 2003:121).

2.8.6.1 Stopping the Activity

Before the actual process of bringing the activity to the end, however, some pairs or groups may finish earlier than others. In such a case, it is important to be prepared and 'have some ways of dealing with the situation', primarily, in order to show students 'that they are not just being left to do nothing' (Harmer, 2001, 124-125). Ur agrees

and emphasizes that in any case ‘these reserve occupations should be ready to hand; and their preparation is an essential part of the lesson plan as a whole’ (Ur, 1991:22). Such extra work may include, for example, a further elaboration of the task, getting students to read their books, or asking students to get on with their homework (Ur, 1991:22). Harmer also suggests that tired students may be told to relax for a bit while the others finish (Harmer, 2001:124).

As far as accuracy work is concerned, Byrne (1991:34) suggests that the activity should not go on for too long giving an estimate for the appropriate length of the activity from three to five minutes. Nevertheless, stopping the fluency work, on the other hand, is dependent on the time that the teacher allocates for the activity, Byrne says both for accuracy and fluency activities, it is not desirable to let the activities uncontrolled nor give an opportunity for some students to get bored (Byrne, 1991: 79).

Ur notes down that it may be best to wait until all the groups have completed the task, however, sometimes this may take too long, and it is better to stop the last ones before they finish. Ur continues that sometimes, on the other hand, it is necessary to quit students’ work while they are all occupied, e.g. for the reason that the teacher wants to organize a ‘fruitful session’ (Ur, 1991:22). Ur believes, though this might not be the best thing to do, that this intervention will leave students with a taste for more, and thus ‘heightened enthusiasm, or at least willingness’. Basically, in addition to time allocation, Ur agrees with Donn Byrne (1991) that time solves the

problem of appropriate end of the activity, though this may also bring about some inappropriacy. However, students should be let to know in advance, in order to save protests and delays when the time comes (Ur, 1991: 22).

On the whole, Ur concludes that it is up to the teacher to be flexible and rely on common sense considering the end of an activity. From my limited practical experience, I prefer allocating the time limit for an activity before starting the activity, though not always remembering to do so, I admit. As Ur advises, in relation to extra activities, I agree that it is very important to have them ready at hand in order to make students busy not disturbing others, though, especially for beginning teachers this might be sometimes rather time consuming.

2.8.6.2 The Use of Mother Tongue

The use of mother tongue among students in EFL or ESL classroom is one of the teachers' dilemma, some students tend to use their mother tongue when they get difficult words to express their ideas, they can not find representative words, in this situation teacher should help them to find the word they need.

Nunan and Lamb (1996: 98-100) note down that it is almost impossible to know how, when, and how frequently to use students' first language; however, agree that the first language use to give brief explanations of grammar and lexis, as well as for explaining procedures and routines, can greatly facilitate the management of

learning. Harmer (2001:132) agrees with Nunan and Lamb pointing at the fact that it is not wise to stamp out the mother tongue use completely.

Harmer thinks that such an approach will not work; and, what is more, it may discourage those students who feel the need for it at some stages. However, while doing an oral fluency activity, the use of language other than English makes the activity pointless, therefore, it should be a teacher's duty to try and insist on the use of the target language. On the other hand, it is appropriate to be more relaxed about using the target language in other pedagogic situations, though the teacher should continue to encourage students to try to use it as often as possible. Teachers are a principal source of comprehensible input playing an important part in language acquisition, therefore, the teacher should speak in the target language as much as possible in the class, especially since if he or she does not, students will not see the need to use the target language either. At lower levels, the use of mother tongue may help both the teacher and students, such as in an explanation or discussion of methodology, or giving of announcements to communicate the meaning more easily (Harmer, 2001:132).

In relation to mother tongue use, Byrne (1991: 78) says that it is natural for students to use their mother tongue if they want to communicate, especially if they get too excited. In addition to Ur (1996: 121) also tries to give reasons why students are liable to using the mother tongue claiming that it is easier to use the mother tongue,

because it feels unnatural to speak to one in a foreign language, and because the students feel less 'exposed' if they are speaking their mother tongue. Ur concludes by admitting the fact that it can be uneasy to persuade some students 'particularly the less disciplined or motivated ones' to make use of the target language (Ur, 1999:121). In order to avoid students using their mother tongue, Harmer suggests several actions to promote the use of the target language. *Firstly*, the teacher needs to 'set clear guidelines', making it straightforward when mother tongue is permissible and when it is not. *Secondly*, it is important to 'choose appropriate tasks', i.e. tasks which the students, at their level, are capable of doing in the target language. Harmer points out that it is not wrong to 'stretch' students 'with challenging activities which engage them, but it is clearly counterproductive to set them tasks they are unable to perform' (Harmer, 2001:133).

Furthermore, it is advisable to create an English atmosphere. Harmer suggests giving students names in the target language and making English the classroom language as well as the language to be learnt. Using friendly encouragement persuasion might also play its role, such as going around to students and saying things like: 'Please, speak English!, Stop using Turkish/Arabic, etc.' (2001:133). In case these strategies do not work, Harmer suggests stopping the activity and telling students there is a problem, which might change the atmosphere so that students go back to the activity with a new determination (Harmer, 2001:132-133). Nevertheless, the best way to keep students speaking the target language is, Ur says, simply to be at

students' hand as much as possible, reminding and modeling the language use because 'there is no substitute for nagging (Ur, 1991:122). To sum it up, students' use of the first language often presents a difficult obstacle for many teachers, however, not in all cases this 'problem' has to be perceived as a drawback, as Harmer or Byrne suggest. The recent theories suggest that in certain phases, such as giving instructions or providing explanations, the mother tongue use may play an important role for a better communication between students and the teacher; on the other hand, where the language is the target point of learning, the mother tongue use should be avoided.

2.8.6.3 Feedback After the Activity

Generally, in order to bring about self-awareness and improvement in students, Gower *atal.* (1995, 63) suggest that it is important to provide 'positive feedback', i.e. positive points to comment on, such as successful communication, accurate use of grammar points, use of vocabulary, appropriate expressions, good pronunciation, or expressive intonation, good use of fluency strategies in conversation, etc. As an unseparable part of the feedback, Harmer (2001, 109) proposes getting students to express what they found easiest or most difficult. Putting some of the recorded mistakes on the board, asking students to recognize the problems and putting them right should follow, Harmer notes down. Similarly to feedback provided during activities, methodologists commonly draw a distinction between the feedback on accuracy and

fluency activities, for example, Ur (1991), Harmer (2001). To begin with, both Harmer (2001) and Gower *at al.* (1995) agree that it is not necessary to say which students made the mistake or error, but more importantly, focus on common ones, or ones in general interest, and provide students with individual notes and instructions on how to correct them, or where to find them (in dictionaries, grammar books, or on the Internet).

As regards the fluency activities, Gower *at al.* (1995:103) propose that the teacher should indicate how each person communicated, comment on how fluent each was, how well they argued as a group, and so on. In addition, Harmer (2001:124) suggests that it is also advisable to have a few pairs or groups quickly demonstrate the language they have been using with the teacher correcting it, if and when necessary, such a demonstration gives both the students and the rest of the class goal information for future learning and action, Harmer says. In case of discussing an issue or predicting the content of a reading text, it is important to encourage students to talk about their conclusions with the teacher and the rest of the class since by comparing the different solutions, ideas, and problems, everyone gets a greater understanding of the topic. What a feedback is and what form it should take, Ur (1991) describes as follows:

What the groups have done must then be displayed and related to in some way by teacher and class: assessed, criticized, admired, argued with, or even simply listened with interest (Ur, 1999: 23).

In relation to feedback on fluency activities, Penny Ur (1996:23) distinguishes between three focus areas of feedback to be provided: on the result, on process, and on the language use. There are different approaches towards organizing the individual forms of feedback. *Firstly*, the feedback on the result can be organized by, for example, giving the correct results, getting groups to assess their own success, trying to collate proposals and versions of outcomes, or comparing or displaying conclusions. The feedback on process, on the other hand, it means the organization and performance of, for example, debate, requires more teacher-centred approach.

Teacher should take an active part – react, assess, criticize, preferably immediately after the activity. At the same time, however, students' reactions or comments should be taken into consideration. *Finally*, what is used rightly and what needs correction and practice should be monitored by the feedback on the language. The language used in the activity is a valuable source of information on what language is actively known and what is not (Ur, 1991: 22-24). To sum it up, when providing a feedback after the activity, methodologists distinguish the feedback according to the type of the activity. It is necessary to provide a positive feedback that is likely to motivate students and bring about some kinds of improvement, along with pointing out what went wrong during the activity. Furthermore, it is not important to concentrate on who made the mistakes but rather focus on the mistakes that have been frequent among the students.

2.8.6.4 Assessing Speaking

Assessment is an ongoing process that encompasses a much wider domain. Whenever a student responds to a question, offers a comment, or tries out a new word or structure, the teacher subconsciously makes an assessment of students' performance. Written work-from a jotted down phrase to a formal essay is performance that ultimately is assessed by self, teacher and possibly other students (Brown, 2003:4).

Brown (2003:141) states as with all effective tests, designing appropriate assessment tasks in speaking begins with the specification of objective or criteria. Those objectives may be classified in term of several types of speaking performance:

1. Imitative

At one end of a continuum of types of speaking performance is the ability to simply parrot back (imitate) a word or phrase or possibly a sentence. While this is purely phonetic level of oral production, a number of prosodic, lexical and grammatical properties of language may be conclude in the criterion performance.

2. Intensive

A second type of speaking frequently employed in assessment contexts is the production of short stretches of oral language designed to demonstrate competence in a narrow band of

grammatical, phrasal, lexical or phonological relationship (such as prosodic element-intonation, stress, rhythm, juncture). Examples of extensive assessment tasks include directed response tasks, reading aloud, sentence and dialogue completion limited picture-cued task including simple sequences and relationship up to the simple sentence level.

3. Responsive

Responsive assessment tasks included interaction and test comprehension but at the somewhat limited level of very short conversations, standard greetings and a small talk, simple request and comments.

2.9 What Pairwork Technique is

In language teaching, a technique needs to be considered to make a class atmosphere alive. pairwork technique is one of the techniques bring the course material interesting. The technique can be defined as a structured set of circumstances that mirrors real life situation. In pairwork technique, the class atmosphere is designed such away so all the students take part and have the same chance to express their ideas during teaching – learning process takes place. By having much occasion to express their ideas, the students will dare to speak naturally, they can explore their opinion based on their own experiences, knowledge dealing with the given topic.

Byrne (1991) divides pairwork into three kinds: 'open pairs', 'fixed pairs', and 'flexible pairs'. During 'open' pairwork, learners talk to one another across the class under the teacher's control. While working in 'fixed pairs', learners work with the same partner in order to complete a task (for example, dialogue). Finally, working in 'flexible' pairs presupposes that learners keep changing their partners (for example, interviewing other classmates). On the other hand, Doff (1991) distinguishes between 'simultaneous pairwork' and 'public' or 'open' pairwork and defines both kinds of pairwork as follows:

In pairwork, the teacher divides the whole class into pairs. Every student works with his or her partner (classmate), and all the pairs work at the same time (it is sometimes called 'simultaneous pairwork') . . . this is not the same as 'public' or 'open' pairwork, with pairs of students speaking in turn in front of the class (Doff, 1991: 137). Similarly as with group work, Harmer (1992: 224) claims that pairwork increases the amount of learners' practice, encourages co-operation, which is important for the atmosphere of the class and for the motivation it gives to learning with others, and enables learners to help each other to use and learn the language. In addition, the teacher is able to act as an assessor, prompter or resource as Harmer believes.

Byrne (1991) adds that pairwork facilitates learners' independence; and, moreover, sees pairwork as an interaction similar to real-life language use: Learners can face and talk directly to one another, so it is much closer to the way the learners (people) use

language outside the classroom (Byrne 1991, 31). The problem concerning noise and indiscipline during pairwork depends, according to Harmer, on the task set by the teacher and teacher's attitude during the activity (1992:244). However, Ur (1991) strongly disagrees with the claim that the choice of activity influences the discipline and noise in the classroom and shifts the problem onto the teacher's personality:

As regards discipline, this basically depends on the personality of the teacher, her class, and the relationship between them, not on the type of activity (Ur, 1991:8).

In addition to noise, Doff provides some interesting comments, Doff claims that noise is a side effect of the groupwork (and pairwork) and 'cannot be helped'. He points out that 'usually the students themselves are not disturbed by the noise', and adds that "the noise created by pairwork and groupwork is usually 'good' noise – students using English, or engaged in a learning task" (Doff, 1991:141-2). Another frequently discussed problem concerns the use of learners' mother tongue. While conducting communicative activities, Byrne (1991:34) believes that learners' use of mother tongue is a natural factor of group and pair work activities: 'Of course the students will sometimes start to use their mother tongue to express an idea - especially if they get excited.

Harmer (1992) adds that it is pointless if learners do not use the target language for the communicative activity, however, for

example, comparing answers to reading comprehension questions or vocabulary-matching exercise should not make teachers unnecessarily restless.

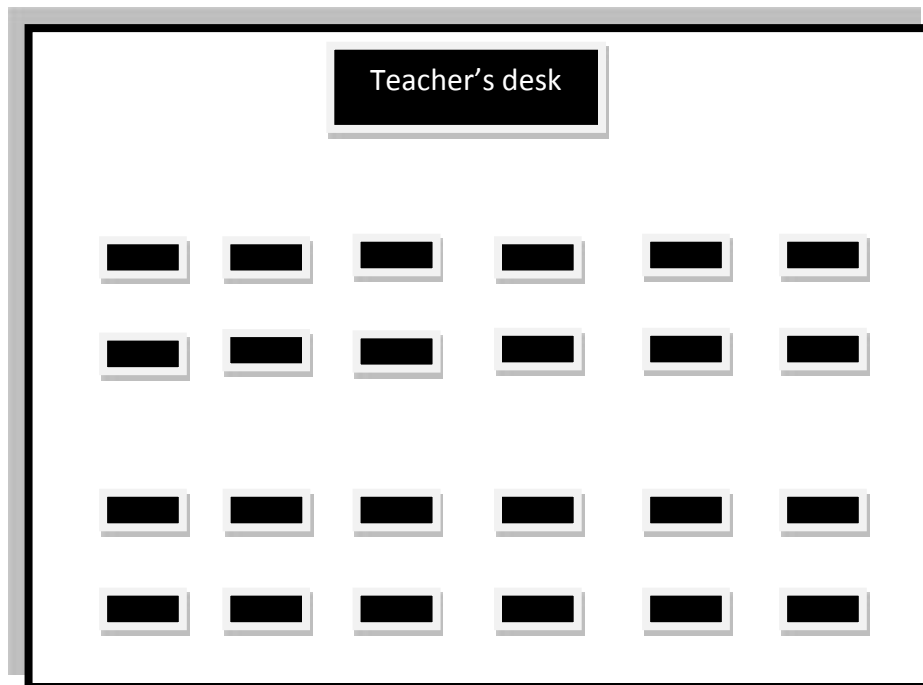
Harmer claims that learners in such a case concentrate on the language in question and adds that 'if a bit of their own language helps them (learners) to do this in a relaxed way that is all to the good' (Harmer, 1992:247). Harmer emphasizes that it is important that learners know that teachers' attitude depends on the activity, otherwise they will not be able to recognize the reasons and the moments when teachers are insisting solely on the target language. The problematic concerning the use of mother tongue, it means how to avoid its use and how to support the use of the target language.

Similarly to groupwork, methodologists distinguish between several kinds of pairwork, Byrne, for example, describes open, fixed, and flexible pairs, while Doff divides pairwork into simultaneous and public or open pairwork. Pairwork is believed to encourage students' cooperation and presupposes that teachers will have to take on several roles while using this organizational form. In addition, noise and the use of mother tongue have been discussed in relation to pairwork often presenting inevitable drawbacks that teachers have to tackle.

In pairwork activity, the students bring his own personally experience and opinion, pairwork technique in language teaching

aims at restoring the natural communicative status of a language. The main objective is therefore to develop the communicative language skills of the students.

The communicative language skills could be attained by training the students to use the language naturally. The students and the teacher create together a realistic but fictional environment within the classroom on the basis of reality. They consider their environment playfully as their own reality. The use of pairwork in language teaching drives the students to use the target language naturally, where in pairwork activity, the students feel that they are in an English language community because all students use the target language (L2). Everyone sits opposite to his/her friend in two rows and they ask questions to her partner, the listed questions given by teacher can be extended as they need, they are related to the reality of life. The related questions can attract the students' attention to respond his friend questions, so the classroom atmosphere is alive. The following is the classroom setting for pairwork strategy.



There are some advantages and disadvantages of pairwork technique:

a. Advantages of pairwork technique:

- It dramatically increases the amount of speaking time any one student gets in the class.
- It allows students to work interact independently without the necessary guidance of the teacher, thus promoting learner independence.
- It allows teachers time to work with one or two pairs while the other students continue working
- It recognizes the old maxim that 'heads are better than one', and in promoting cooperation, help the

classroom to become a more relaxed and friendly place. If we get the students to make decision in pairs (such as deciding on the correct answers to questions about a reading text), we allow them to share responsibility, rather than having to bear the whole weight themselves.

- It is relatively quick and easy to organize.
- b. Disadvantages of pairwork technique:
- Pairwork is frequently very noisy and some teachers and students dislike this. Teacher is particular worry that they will lose control of the class.
 - Students in pairs can often veer away from the point of an exercise, talking about something else completely, often in the first language. The chances of misbehavior are greater with pairwork than in a whole - class setting.
 - It is not always popular with the students, many of whom feel they would rather relate to the teacher as individuals than interact with another learner who may be just as linguistically weak as they are.
 - The actual choice of paired can be problematic, especially if students frequently find themselves working with someone they are not keen on (Harmer, 2007:165).

Regarding giving more opportunity to students to practice the target language, pair technique can be considered as the alternative way to minimize the students reluctance to practice speaking.

2.9.1 Using Groupwork to Facilitate Learning

Groupwork activities in language teaching also create an alive class atmosphere. This technique gives much occasion to learners to practice their language verbally. The description about this strategy proposed by A. Doff. He describes group work as follows: In group work, the teacher divides the class into small groups to work together (usually four or five students in each group). As in pair work, all the groups work at the same time (Doff, 1991:138). According to the movement of learners during a group activity, Harmer (1992) and Ur. Penny (1991) distinguishes between flexible and fixed groups. While working in flexible groups, Harmer suggests that students start in set groups, and as an activity progresses the groups split up and reform; or they join together until the class is fully reformed (Harmer, 1992:246). In addition, according to Ur, to settle fixed groups or at least semi-permanent groups to avoid problems every time the groups are about to form, for that reason, Penny Ur suggests: The physical reorganization can be done very simply by getting some students to turn face those behind them if they are normally in rows. This may need a little modification . . . but once the students are settled into fixed groups, they will assume them quickly and with little fuss each time (Ur, 1991:7).

Richards, Lockhart (1999), and Nunan, Lamb (1996) agree that groupwork together with pairwork change the interactional dynamics of the classroom. Nevertheless, Harmer (1992) proposes that groupwork is even more dynamic than pairwork: There are more people to react with and against in a group and there is a greater possibility of discussion. There is a greater chance that at least one member of the group will be able to solve a problem when it arises, and working in groups is potentially more relaxing than working in pairs, for the latter puts a greater demand on the student's ability to co-operate closely (Harmer, 1992: 245-246).

Doff (1991: 141) confirms that learners feel secure within the group where they create a part of a whole. There is a real chance that learners who would never say anything in a whole class activity participate at least partially during the groupwork. Ur. Penny agrees that groupwork provides some learners with confidence and courage: 'students who are shy of saying something in front of the whole class, or to the teacher, often find it much easier to express themselves in front of a small group of their peers' (Ur, 1991:7). Another point taken by methodologists concerns the amount of learners' participation and mutual co-operation among learners during activities carried out in groups. Richards and Lockhart (1999: 153) say that group work is likely to increase the amount of student participation in the class and promote collaboration among learners; furthermore, learners are given a more active role in learning, teacher's dominance over the class decreases, while the opportunities for individual student

practice of new features of the target language increase. Doff agrees and claims that groupwork is likely to create such conditions, in which learners help each other and are encouraged to share their ideas and knowledge (1991:141).

Harmer (1992), and Richards and Lockhart (1999) also discuss allocating learners to groups according to their level of knowledge – mixed ability groups and shared ability groups. Harmer assumes that learners working in mixed ability groups will both benefit from the arrangement. He admits that weaker learners may be overpowered by stronger learners; but, at the same time, Harmer claims that stronger learners will not be unnecessarily hindered ‘from getting the maximum benefit from the activity.

Brown and Yule (1991) justify the opinion of grouping learners into mixed level groups. The main reason is sharing the possessed knowledge by an ‘advanced’ learner with the ‘beginner’. The opportunities for practice, if teacher is the only ‘senior’ conversationalist available, are obviously limited. It seems likely that any serious attempt at practising spoken English would involve mixing learners at different levels for conversation practice, so that advanced level students would take the senior role in a conversation and support the relative beginner (Brown and Yule, 1991:32). On the other hand, same ability groups provide some space for sharing the knowledge and interests on the learners same level claims Harmer (Harmer, 1992: 246). Next area of focus that methodologists consider is a suitable number of learners within a group. Methodologists have

not set a definite number, 'magic number', but range the number of learners per group between four and seven (Harmer, 2001: 75).

Byrne (1991: 75) suggests that the number of learners range from four to eight learners per group. The actual number should consequently depend on the particular activities. The 'optimum size' depends on the kind of activity learners are working on, and add: 'If the group is too large, student interaction is affected; only a few students may participate, the others remaining silent or passive.'

Harmer confirms Richards and Lockhart's words and claims that the borderline might be

established on number seven, because 'groups of more than seven can be unmanageable (Harmer, 1992: 246), when considering the specifics of groupwork, methodologists discuss the settlement of students within the groups as flexible or fixed. Penny Ur, for example, recommends that teachers set up fixed or at least semi-permanent groups that are likely to prevent some problems connected with their creating and consequent misbehaviour. Groupwork tends to support cooperative learning, and may give confidence and courage to shy students when handling the target language. Still, methodologists do not provide a concrete number of learners that a group should include.

2.10 Hypothesis

The hypothesis of this research is " the pairwork technique is able to increase the students' ability at speaking.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

The research design of this study is Classroom Action Research, This design is meaningful to know the improvement of teachers' activity and students' ability after a particular strategy applied. According to Harmer, Action research is the name given to series of procedures teachers can engage it, either because they wish to improve aspects of their teaching or because they wish to evaluate the success or appropriacy of activities and procedures in teaching (Harmer, 2003:334).

A success of teaching-learning process is effected by the teaching procedures done by a teacher, that is why the evaluation of teachers' activity in teaching process is necessity to carry out in terms of the improvement of the activity done in teaching process, The evaluation of teacher's activity from one meeting to others aims to make the teaching activities better in order the students' ability can be increased, and the teacher himself can find better teaching procedures. The evaluation of teachers' activity in teaching is done by the teacher himself, It is done through conducting Classroom Action Research. Kemmis and Mc Taggart say action research is a form of self-reflection enquiry undertaken by participant in social (including education) situation in order to improve the rationally and justice of;

a) their own social or educational practice, b) their understanding of those practices are carried out.

Action research is not problem solving in the sense of trying to find out what is wrong, but rather a quest for knowledge how to improve (Kemmis and Mc Taggart. 2000). Action research involves students worked to improve their skills in speaking. Action research is not about learning why do certain things, but how we do things better. It is about how we change our instruction to impact the students. Further Kemmis and Mc. Taggart in Nunan's book explains that action research is a group of activity and piece of descriptive research carried out by the teacher in his or her own classroom, without the involvement of others (Nunan, 1993: 18). The classroom action research is done by a teacher to improve teaching-learning process so he can enhance the students' understanding on the teaching material being taught. Kemmis and Mc. Taggart in Nunan's book propose the characteristic of action research such as: 1). It carried out by practitioners (for our purpose, classroom teachers rather than outside researchers, 2). It is collaborative, 3). It is aimed at changing things (Nunan, 1993: 18).

This study was done to know whether pairwork strategy in speaking class is effective to increase the students' ability at oral communication. The researcher used descriptive quantitative approach. Oral test, interview and observation were conducted to gather the data.

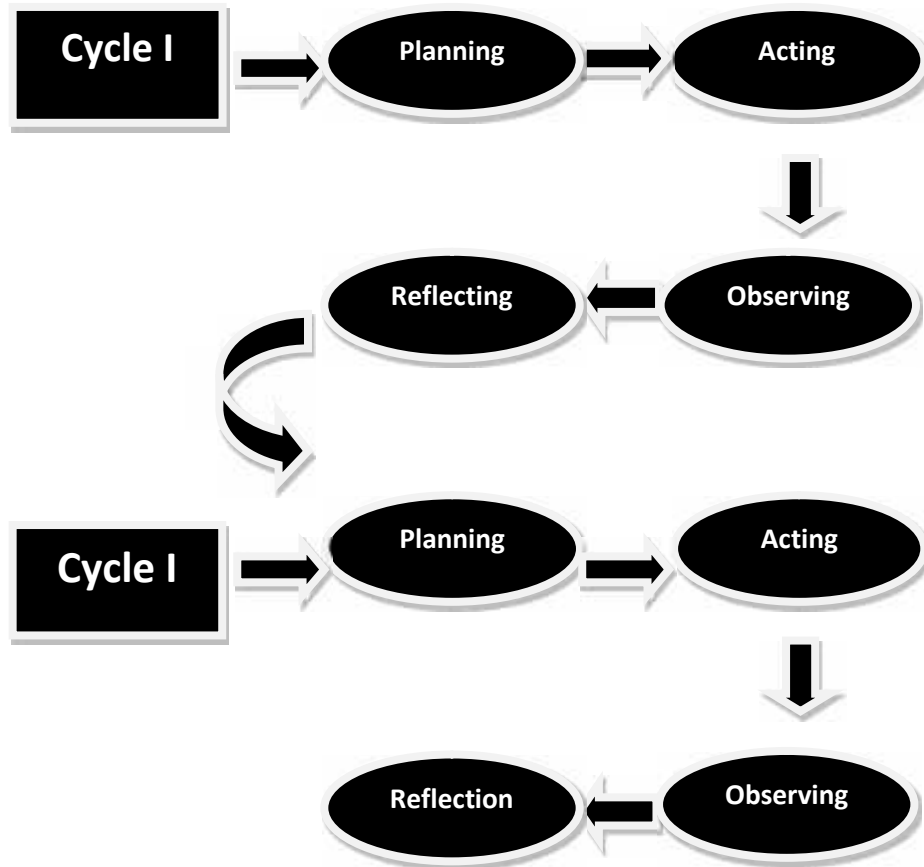
3.2 Procedures of Classroom Action Research

The CAR applied in research consists of two cycles which each cycle consisted of Planning, Action, Observation and Reflection:

- a. Planning: In this phase, the writer focuses on who, what, when, where, how the action would be done.
- b. Action: The lesson plans or the things were prepared in phase 'a' were performed. The students were taught speaking subject by applying WP technique.
- c. Observation: It was done to monitor the teaching-learning process, in this phase, the activity of teacher and students were watched by using the observation sheet. This observation result mirrored the situation of classroom during the learning teaching process taking place.

d. Reflection:

Reflection means to analyze the gained result based on data analysis in order to define the next action in the next cycle. In this phase, the writer knew the result of the activity in cycle one and he understood the strength and weaknesses of the activity. The following is the flow chart how the CAR. worked in this research (Kusuma and Dwitagama, 2009:20)



3.3 Instruments for Data Collection

The instruments for data collection were used base on the data needed in this research. The data used in this research were qualitative and quantitative data. The qualitative data were the students' ability at speaking before and after being conducted treatments, the qualitative data were any related information to this research such as the description of teaching-learning process: lecturer's and students' activity during the class took place, the information from the students regarding their problems in speaking

English, the information had by researcher as lecturer of speaking class at the university. The following instruments were used in this research:

1. Oral Test. The scenario and questions were used to find out the data about the students' ability at speaking English.
2. Tape recorder. It was also used to record students' answer of the questions given in the test. This record was used to reconfirm the scores given in the oral test.
3. Observation sheets. The observation sheets were used to see the lecturer's and students' activity in the classroom.
4. Interview sheet. It was used to find out the data about the students' problem in Oral communication and their responds on the strategy applied in the classroom.
5. Document. Any related document was needed, such as number of students in one class, curriculum used in the department etc.
6. Diary notes. It was used to note if there is necessary information needed to complete the data of this research.

3.4 Techniques for Data Collection

There are two kinds of data gathered in this research, they are qualitative and quantitative data. The qualitative data were gathered by conducting observation, interview, event coding (Diary Note),

a. Observation.

The qualitative data were collected by doing an initial observation in pre-cycle, it was done to gain the beginning

information needed in this research such as the number of students would be used as subjects, observing the classroom and identifying the students' problem in oral communication. The other qualitative data gained from the observation on the lecturer's and students' activities during the teaching-learning process taking place in cycle one and two. In this research the researcher used structured observation which the information analyzed by counting system for data got from observation sheet.

b. Interview.

The interview was also conducted to know the students' problem in oral communication, it was conducted before the class. Another interview was conducted to know the responds of the research subjects (students) after being taught by applying pairwork strategy.

c. Diary Notes.

The qualitative data were also found by using diary note. It is used for the certain situation in the class or any related information which the information couldn't be found in interview and observation sheets.

The Quantitative data were gained by administrating oral test in pre- cycle as a pre-test, and post-test in cycle one and two. The

components of the oral test which evaluated are based on the theory of David Harris. The components are:

1. Pronunciation (including the segmental features vowel and consonants and the stress and intonation patterns)
2. Grammar
3. Vocabulary
4. Fluency (the ease and the speed of the flow speech)
5. Comprehension. These component are stated by Harris (1977:81)

The components of the speaking above were evaluated to define the level of students' ability at oral communication.

3.4.1 Scoring Technique

In scoring technique, the researcher used the direct test which measured four elements of speaking; they are pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and fluency. The researcher used analytic scale that categorized within four categories. Each category has five items and each item scores five, so the maximum score is 25. To get the maximum score was multiplied with 5. According to David P. Haris (1969:84) those are scoring system of speaking.

Aspects	Score	Description
	5	Have few traces of foreign accent.
	4	Always intelligible, though one is

Pronunciation		conscious of a definite accent
	3	Pronunciation problem necessitate concentrated listening and occasionally lead to misunderstanding.
	2	Very hard to understand because of pronunciation problems, must frequently be asked to repeat.
	1	Pronunciation problems so severe as to make speech virtually unintelligible.
Grammar	5	Makes few (if any) noticeable errors of grammar and word order.
	4	Occasionally makes grammatical and/or word order errors which do not, however obscure the meaning.
	3	Make frequent errors of grammar and word order which occasionally obscure meaning.
	2	Grammar and word order errors make comprehension difficult. Must often rephrase sentences and/or restrict him to basic patterns.
	1	Errors in grammar and word order as severe as to make speech virtually unintelligible.
Vocabulary	5	Use of vocabulary and idioms is virtually that of a native speaker.

	4	Sometime uses inappropriate terms and/or must rephrase the idea because of lexical inadequate
	3	Frequently uses the wrong words; conversation somewhat limited because of inadequate vocabulary.
	2	Misuse of word and very limited vocabulary make comprehension quite difficult.
	1	Vocabulary limitations so extreme as to make conversation virtually impossible.
Fluency	5	Speed as fluent and effortless as that of a native speaker.
	4	Speed of the speech seems to be slightly affected by language problem.
	3	Speed and fluency are rather strongly affected by language problems.
	2	Usually hesitant; often forced into silent by language limitations.
	1	Speech is as halting and fragmentary as to make conversation virtually

		impossible.
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3.5 The Data analysis

The gathered data were analyzed by using descriptive analysis. The writer explained the scores gained by students in each cycle. It was done after the mean of students score computed by using the following formula (Hatch and Farhady, 1982: 55)

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum x}{N}$$

Notes:

\bar{X} : Mean

$\sum x$: Sum of individual observation /students

\sum : Sum

x : Individual score / individual observation

N : The number of observations/students

The analysis of this research gives the mean scores, frequency distribution of students' score, histogram of students' scores and statistics of students' scores. This analysis is important to see easily

the improvement of students' score from pre-cycle (before the class) to last cycle (after the class).

The analysis of the class percentage scores which got KKM (score 70) analyzed by using the following formula.

$$P = \frac{F}{N} \times 100\%$$

P: The class percentage

F: Total percentage score

N: Number of observations/students

The data found from the observation sheets were about the lecturer's and students' activities during the class took place, the data were analyzed by using the following formula.

$$\text{Score} = \frac{\text{Total score}}{\text{Maximal score}} \times 100\%$$

The percentage of students' ability from pre-test to post-test 2 was presented in the following analysis.

$$P = \frac{y_1 - y}{Y} \times 100\%$$

P: percentage of students' improvement

y: pre-test score

y1: post-test score 1

$$P = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{Y} \times 100\%$$

P: percentage of students' improvement

y: pre-test score

y2: post-test score 2 (Sudijono, 2001:43)

3.6 Hypothesis Testing

To know if the hypothesis of this research is receivable or not, it was used the following formula:

$$t = \frac{\bar{D}}{\sqrt{\frac{\sum D^2 - \frac{(\sum D)^2}{N}}{N(N-1)}}$$

Note:

\bar{D} : Mean of Difference of Pos-test I and post-test II

D : Difference

N : Number of Subjects (Sudjana, 2001:67)

CHAPTER IV
DATA ANALYSIS AND RESEARCH FINDING

4.1 Data Analysis

The research data were found from tests, observation and interview. The students' test scores were taken from pre-test in pre-cycle and pos-test in cycle one and two. The pre-test was done before the treatment carried out to know the primary students' speaking ability, and the post-tests certainly were done after the students taught by applying pairwork technique, the post-test one was done in cycle one and post test two in cycle two. The post tests were conducted to know the progress of students' speaking ability after being done the treatment.

4.1.1 The Students' Speaking Ability Before The Treatment Carried Out

The test was administered in pre-cycle to know the primary knowledge of students before they were taught by using pairwork technique. The following is the table of students' scores in pre-cycle.

Table 1. Table of Students' Pre-test Scores

No.	Students	Score
1	DF	72
2	EUS	70
3	IYS	60

4	IN	68
5	IRW	65
6	IC	72
7	JA	70
8	JZ	58
9	KH	68
10	KHR	65
11	KA	75
12	KH	68
13	LH	68
14	LL	68
15	M	65
16	MS	64
17	MSF	68
18	MP	64
19	MJ	65
20	MD	70
21	MF	60
22	MRP	65
23	MU	58

24	MR	65
25	PK	70
26	SM	65
27	S	65
28	SRP	64
29	SR	68
30	SRK	65
31	USP	58
32	YEW	58
Total		$\Sigma X = 2.104$

$$\bar{X} = \frac{2.104}{32}$$

$$\bar{X} = 65.75$$

The computation can be deeply analyzed by using frequency distribution of the scores as the following table.

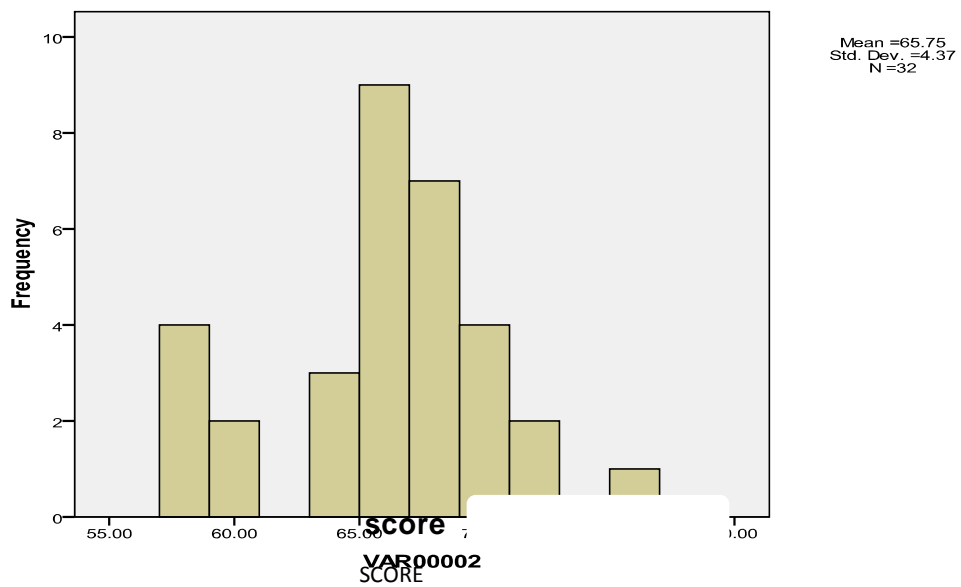
Table 2. Frequency Distribution of Students' Pre-test Scores

Score	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
58.00	4	12.5	12.5	12.5
60.00	2	6.3	6.3	18.8
64.00	3	9.4	9.4	28.1
65.00	9	28.1	28.1	56.3
68.00	7	21.9	21.9	78.1
70.00	4	12.5	12.5	90.6
72.00	2	6.3	6.3	96.9
75.00	1	3.1	3.1	100.0
Total	32	100.0	100.0	

With reference to the frequency distribution of students' pre-test scores above noticed that there were 78.1 % (25 students) got score below 70 and there were only 21.9% (7 students) got score 70 up, it

means that the minimum completeness criterion (KKM) were not reached yet. A theory states if 75% of the whole students in one classroom get score 70 up (category of good score) so the minimum completeness criterion were reached and the teaching- learning process is categorized as successful process (Mulyasa, 2004, Muhibinsyah, 2004), this reality denotes that it's strongly needed attempts to increase the scores by applying more appropriate strategy in speaking class. Further we can see an illustration of the students' pre-test scores in the following graph.

Figure 1. Histogram of Students' Pre-test Scores



This graph gives clearer illustration of the students' ability at speaking before the pairwork technique applied. Further in descriptive form of the students' pre –test scores can be seen in the following table.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of Students' Pre-test Scores

No.	Completeness percentage	Level of completeness	Number of students	Cumulative Percent
1	< 70%	Incompleteness	25	78,1%
2	≥ 70%	Completeness	7	21,9%
Total			32	100%

The table above denotes that 25 students (78,1%) of the 32 students who got score below 70. It means that it should be increased to higher score.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of Students' Means Pre-test Scores

N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
32	58.00	75.00	65.75

The descriptive statistics above gives an answer that the needs to apply an appropriate technique is a necessity, thus pairwork technique as the alternative solution was applied to maximize the learning outcome on speaking class.

4.1.2 The Improvement of Students' Ability at Speaking After The First Treatment Done in Cycle One

The component of speaking competence has more complicated than other part of the language. Someone who wants to be good ability at speaking, he has to possess some parts of language namely grammatical competence, vocabulary mastery, listening/comprehension competence and Pronunciation. Based on the students' problems which found in pre-test, most students had difficulties on mastering Grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation but good at listening, there were only few students got problem on listening. These problems were overcome by applying pairwork as an alternative solution. This strategy was applied in two stages, later it was called cycle. These cycles were done as the following description.

4.1.2.1 The Treatment Done in Cycle One

In terms of the improvement of students' ability through e applying a appropriate technique in this research were done in two cycles. The activity was done in cycle one contained four main stages.

- e. Planning. The researcher managed some plans before conducting the teaching process. There were some activities done at this phase such as defining a technique would be

applied, preparing lesson plans, preparing course material and the media needed.

- f. Action. The students were taught speaking material by applying pairwork technique for two meetings, before the material being taught they were given direction what they would do in the classroom (the procedures of pairwork technique), giving them course material and motivate them to talk without having consideration about wrong or good utterances that they would have in oral communication. .
- g. Observation. This observation was done to know the lecturer's and students' activities during the class took place. This phase was fruitful to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of the strategy then the improvement could be done in the next phase (Cycle two). The observation was done by the lecturer's assistance. After the two meetings had been already done in cycle one, the oral test was administrated. The components of speaking evaluated were 1) Pronunciation (including the segmental features vowel and consonants and the stress and the intonation patterns), 2) Grammar, 3) Vocabulary, 4) Fluency (the case and the speed of the flow speech), 5) Comprehension (Harris, 1977:81).
- h. Reflection: After the teaching-learning process was carried out by applying pairwork technique, the research did an analysis on the effectiveness of the strategy applied through the students' test score and also explained the activity of lecturer's and students' to determine whether the other cycles

were needed. The following is the analysis of the students' score in post-test one, students' and lecturer's activity during the class took place.

4.1.2.1.1 The Students' Post-test Score in Cycle One

Evaluation of students' mastery on a particular topic is commonly conducted through a test. The test can be done in oral or written test, it bases on the target of the teaching material. In this research, the subject was speaking so the test was oral test.

Table 5. Students' Post-test Score in Cycle One

No.	Students	Score
1	DF	75
2	EUS	75
3	IYS	70
4	IN	75
5	IRW	80
6	IC	75
7	JA	70
8	JZ	75
9	KH	70
10	KHR	75
11	KA	70

12	KH	70
13	LH	65
14	LL	80
15	M	70
16	MS	65
17	MSF	70
18	MP	75
19	MJ	80
20	MD	75
21	MF	85
22	MRP	75
23	MU	70
24	MR	65
25	PK	80
26	SM	80
27	S	80
28	SRP	75
29	SR	70
30	SRK	75
31	USP	70

32	YEW	75
Total		$\Sigma x = 2.360$

$$\bar{X} = \frac{2.360}{32}$$

$$\bar{X} = 73.75$$

The scores above were attained after conducting teaching-learning process in two meetings on speaking class, an oral test (post-test one) was administrated at the end of the second meeting. Further the frequency distribution of the scores can be seen in the following table.

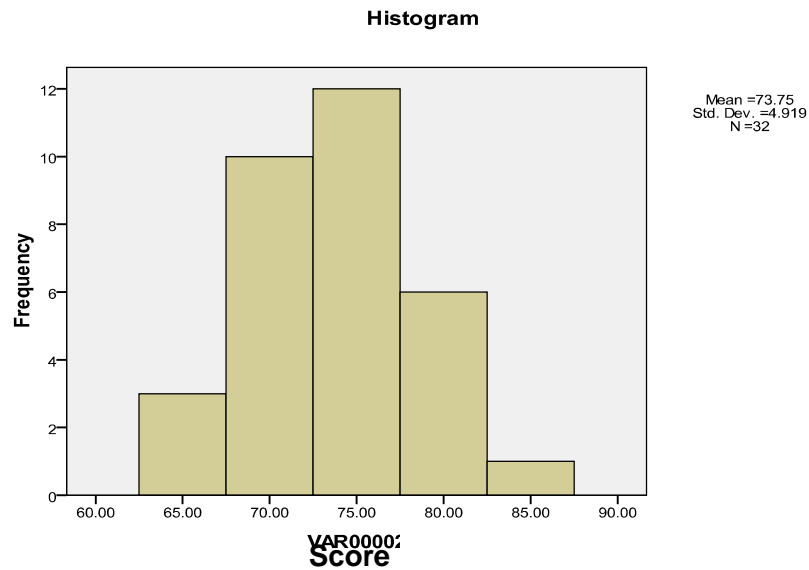
Table 6. Frequency Distribution of Students' Post-test Score in
Cycle One

Score	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
65.00	3	9.4	9.4	9.4
70.00	10	31.3	31.3	40.6
75.00	12	37.5	37.5	78.1
80.00	6	18.8	18.8	96.9

85.00	1	3.1	3.1	100.0
Total	32	100.0	100.0	

The table of Frequency Distribution above pictures out that the students who got scores 65 were only 3 students (9.4 %) and 29 students (90.6 %) got scores 70 up. This fact meant that the learning outcome was better than the previous one before the treatment conducted. It can be categorized that the technique applied in cycle one was effective improving the students' ability at speaking. The following is an illustration of the scores on a graph.

Figure 2. Histogram of Students' Post-test Scores in Cycle One



The histogram above reflects the effectiveness of the technique applied in teaching-learning process whereas the students' scores got progress. Further we can see a descriptive statistic of students' score in cycle one.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics of Students' Pos-test Score in Cycle One

No	Completeness percentage	Level of completeness	Number of students	Score interval	Cumulative Percent
1	< 70%	Incomplete	3	0 - 69	9.4 %
2	≥ 70%	Complete	29	70 - 100	90.6 %
Total			32		100%

The effectiveness of the pairwork technique in speaking class was proved through the percentage of students who got score 70 up (29 students / 90.6 %). The mean scores of the entire students can be seen in the following table.

Table 8. Descriptive Statistics of Students' Mean Post-test Score in Cycle One

N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
32	65.00	85.00	73.75

4.1.2.1.2 The Lecturer's and Students' activity in The Language Teaching

The observation data were about the lecturer's and students' activities during the class took place. The observed aspects on students' activities were students' presence, attention, participation, motivation.

Table 9. The Result of Student Observation in Cycle One

No	Activity	Cycle One			
		1 st . m	2 nd . m	Average	Category
1	The students come on time	3	4	3,5	Good
2	The students pay attention to the lecturer's explanation	3	4	3,5	Good
3	The students focus on task and what need to be done	3	4	3,5	Good
4	The students contribute to the class by offering ideas and asking question	3	3	3	Good
5	The students actively involved in their group (pairs)	3	4	3,5	Good
6	The students listen to, share with, and support the efforts of others to talk	3	4	3,5	Good
7	The students are interested in following the class activity by using pairwork technique	3	4	3,5	Good
8	The students answer questions given by lecturer	2	3	2,5	Fair
9	The students feel freely talking	3	4	3,5	Good

	with their friends				
10	The students do not use their mother tongue	3	3	3	Good
Total score		29	37	33	Good
Maximum total score		40			

Note: m = meeting

4: very good

3: good

2: fair

1: poor

Total average score

Score = _____

Number of activities

33

= _____

10

= 3,3

The table above draws the effectiveness of the pairwork technique in speaking teaching, the result of computation is 3,3, it can be stated that the pairwork strategy run well with category "good". The percentage of students' participation in classroom activity is calculated by sing the following formula.

$$\text{Percentage of students' participation} = \frac{\text{Total average score}}{\text{Maximum total score}} \times 100\%$$

$$= \frac{33}{40} \times 100\% = 82,5\%$$

The result of computation above denoted that 82,5% of the entire students were active in the process of speaking teaching. In another word, pairwork technique is appropriate strategy to apply. The following is the result of teacher observation sheet in cycle one.

Table 10. The Result of Teacher Observation sheet in Cycle One

No.	Activity	Cycle One			
		1 st . m	2 nd . m	Average	Category
1	The lecturer comes on time	3	4	3,5	Good
2	The lecturer checks students' attendance list	3	4	3,5	Good
3	The lecturer motivates students to take part in class activity	3	4	3,5	Good
4	The lecturer attracts the students' attention to speak English	3	4	3,5	Good
5	The lecturer gives direction	3	4	3,5	Good

	about Pairwork strategy				
6	The lecturer gives students much time to talk about the topic (in Pairs)	3	4	3,5	Good
7	The lecturer gives chance to the students to ask question	3	4	3,5	Good
8	The lecturer responds students' question	2	3	2,5	Good
9	The lecturer asks students' problems in English speaking	3	4	3,5	Good
10	The lecturer gives solution for the students' problem	4	4	4	Good
	Total score	30	38	34,5	Good
	Maximum total score	40			

* m = meeting

Note: 4: very good 3: good 2: fair 1: poor

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{Total average score} \\
 \text{Score} &= \frac{\text{Total score}}{\text{Number of activities}} \\
 &= \frac{34,5}{10} \\
 &= 3,45
 \end{aligned}$$

The table above draws the lecturer's activity in the language teaching were good with scores 3,45. In the percentage form of the lecturer's activity can be seen in the following computation.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Percentage of students' participation} &= \frac{\text{Total average score}}{\text{Maximum total score}} \times 100\% \\
 &= \frac{34,5}{40} \times 100\% \\
 &= 85\%
 \end{aligned}$$

The result of computation above denoted that 85% of the entire activities of a good teaching -learning process were done by the lecturer.

4.2 **The Improvement of Students' Ability at Speaking After The Second Treatment Done**

The activities done in cycle two were the improvement from the first cycle activities to gain better result on teaching.

- a. Planning: The researcher made further planning than the previous one, such as the additional activities which were not done yet in the first cycle.
- b. Action: The lesson plans on the stage 'a' were applied. The students did activities through the direction of pairwork technique, it was done by adding activity that was not done in cycle one. The activities were done in two meetings.

- c. Observation: This activity was done to observe the progress of the first cycle activities, In this phase, the improvement of activities were done to gain better result of out learning. The teaching –learning activity was different from cycle one even the applied technique was same. At the end of this cycle of the second meeting, an oral test (post-test two) was also administrated to know if the score got better than cycle one. The components of evaluated speaking are; 1)Pronunciation (including the segmental features vowel and consonants and the stress and the intonation patterns), 2) Grammar, 3) Vocabulary, 4) Fluency (the case and the speed of the flow speech), 5) Comprehension (Harris, 1977:81).
- d. Reflection: The reflection was conducted to identify the improvement of lecturer’s and students’ activities. It was very important to be done in terms of gaining better result of teaching-learning process. As the substance of Classroom Action Research, the improvement of teacher’s activity in teaching is the main aim thus the reflection is a phase where the activities drawn.

The teaching-learning process in cycle two was ended by administrating post-test two. The students’ score in post-test two can be seen in the following table.

Table 9. Students' Post-test Score in Cycle Two

No.	Students	Score
1	DF	80
2	EUS	85
3	IYS	75
4	IN	75
5	IRW	80
6	IC	85
7	JA	75
8	JZ	70
9	KH	75
10	KHR	85
11	KA	75
12	KH	80
13	LH	70
14	LL	85
15	M	70

16	MS	75
17	MSF	75
18	MP	80
19	MJ	75
20	MD	75
21	MF	80
22	MRP	85
23	MU	75
24	MR	75
25	PK	85
26	SM	80
27	S	75
28	SRP	75
29	SR	85
30	SRK	75
31	USP	80
32	YEW	75

Total	$\Sigma x = 2.490$
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To know the mean of students' scores can be seen in the following analysis,

$$\bar{X} = \frac{2.490}{32}$$

$$\bar{X} = 77.81$$

The classical students' average scores (\bar{X}) was 77,81. At this phase most students were at the level of the minimum completeness criterion (KMM). The frequency of scores can be seen in the following table.

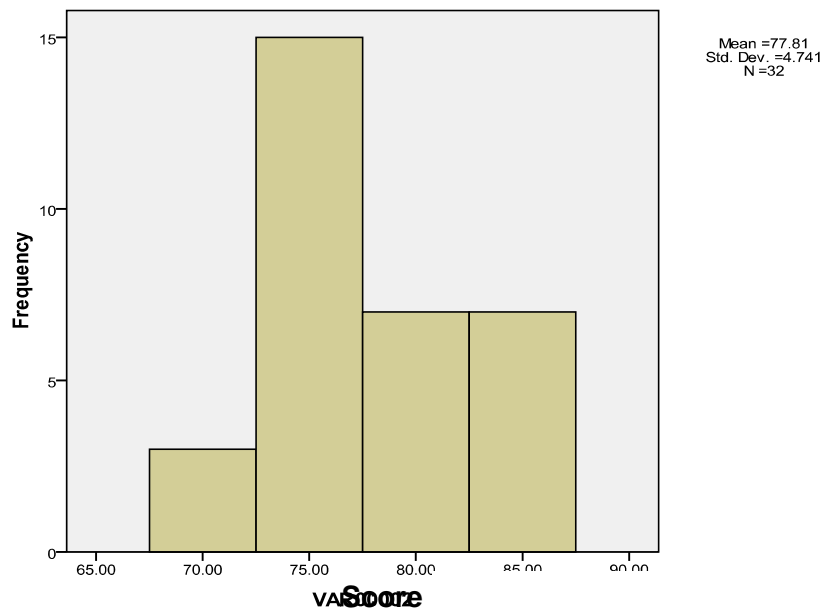
Table 10. Frequency Distribution of Students' Post-test Scores in Cycle Two

Score	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
70.00	3	9.4	9.4	9.4
75.00	15	46.9	46.9	56.3
80.00	7	21.9	21.9	78.1

85.00	7	21.9	21.9	100.0
Total	32	100.0	100.0	

The table illustrates that all students (100%) got score 70 up. This fact denoted that pairwork technique was effective applied in teaching speaking.

Figure 3. Histogram of Students' Post-test Scores in Cycle Two



In addition, the description of students' scores in cycle two can be seen in the histogram above whereas the the score increased. We can see that the scores in each cycle are in advance even they have slightly difference but it still shows the effectiveness of the pairwork technique in language teaching specially on speaking subject.

Table 11. Descriptive Statistics of Students' Pos-test Score in Cycle Two

No	Complete ness percentag e	Level of completeness	Number of students	Score interval	Cumulative Percent
1	< 70%	Incomplete	0	0 - 69	0%
2	≥ 70%	complete	32	70 - 100	100%
Total					100%

The following table illustrates the mean score of Post-test two,

Table 12. Descriptive Statistics of Students' Mean Post-test Score in Cycle Two

N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
32	70.00	85.00	77.81

To know the students' activities in the classroom during the class took place in cycle two, the following table pictures out the entire activities.

Table 13. The Result of Students Observation Sheet in Cycle Two

No.	Activity	Cycle Two			
		1 st . m.	2 nd . m.	Average	Category
1	The students come on time	4	4	4	Very good
2	The students pay attention to the lecturer's explanation	3	4	3.5	Good
3	The students focus on task and what need to be done	4	4	4	Very good
4	The students contribute to the class by offering ideas and asking question	3	4	3,5	Good
5	The students actively involved in their group (pairs)	4	4	4	Very good
6	The students listen to, share with, and support the efforts of others to talk	4	4	4	Very good
7	The students are interested in following the class activity by using pairwork technique	3	4	3,5	Good
8	The students answer questions given by lecturer	3	4	3,5	Good
9	The students feel freely	3	4	3,5	Good

	talking with their friends				
10	The students do not use their mother tongue	3	3	3	Good
Total		34	39	36.5	Good

- m: meeting

Note: 4: very good 3: good 2: fair 1: poor

$$\text{Score} = \frac{\text{Total average score}}{\text{Number of activities}}$$

$$= \frac{36,5}{10} = 3,65$$

The table above noticed that the students' participation in language teaching was at the level "good" with scores 3,65. In this case the technique used in the language teaching was appropriate to attract the students' attention.

$$\text{Percentage of students' participation} = \frac{\text{Total average score}}{\text{Maximum total score}} \times 100\%$$

$$= \frac{36,5}{40} \times 100\%$$

$$= 91,25\%$$

The percentage of students who took part in the language teaching was 91,25%, It meant that there were only 8,75 % of the entire students who did not take part seriously in the class activity. Further, the result of teacher observation sheet regarding his activity in his class of cycle two can be pictured out as in the following table.

Table 14. The Result of Teacher Observation sheet in Cycle Two

No.	Activity	Cycle Two			
		1 st .m	2 nd .m	Average	Category
1	The lecturer comes on time	4	4	4	Very good
2	The lecturer checks students' attendance list	4	4	4	Very good
3	The lecturer motivates students to take part in class activity	3	4	3,5	Good
4	The lecturer attracts the students' attention to speak English	4	4	4	Very good
5	The lecturer gives direction about pairwork strategy	4	3	3,5	Good
6	The lecturer gives	4	4	4	Very

	students much time to talk about the topic (in pairs)				good
7	The lecturer gives chance to the students to ask question	4	4	4	Very good
8	The lecturer responds students' question	4	4	4	Very good
9	The lecturer asks students' problems in English speaking	3	3	3	Good
10	The lecturer gives solution for the students' problem	3	4	3,5	Good
	Total	37	38	37,5	Good

Total average score

Score = _____

Number of activities

37,5

= _____

10

= 3,75

The table above draws the lecturer's activity in his class was good with scores 3,75. In the percentage form of the lecturer's activity can be seen in the following computation.

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{Total average score} \\
 \text{Percentage of students' participation} &= \frac{\text{Total average score}}{\text{Maximum total score}} \times 100\% \\
 &= \frac{37,5}{40} \times 100\% \\
 &= 93,75\%
 \end{aligned}$$

The result of computation above denoted that 97,75 % of the entire investigated activities done by the lecturer. The lecturer did improvement on his language teaching. By doing the attempts, the students' speaking ability before and after doing treatments increased. The improvement of students' scores can be seen in the following table.

Table 14. The Improvement of Students' Speaking Ability From Pre-cycle to Post-test 2

No.	Students' name	Score		
		Pre-cycle	Cycle I	Cycle II
1	DF	72	75	80

2	EUS	70	75	85
3	IYS	60	70	75
4	IN	68	75	75
5	IRW	65	80	80
6	IC	72	75	85
7	JA	70	70	75
8	JZ	58	75	70
9	KH	68	70	75
10	KHR	65	75	85
11	KA	75	70	75
12	KH	68	70	80
13	LH	68	65	70
14	LL	68	80	85
15	M	65	70	70
16	MS	64	65	75
17	MSF	68	70	75
18	MP	64	75	80
19	MJ	65	80	75
20	MD	70	75	75

21	MF	60	85	80
22	MRP	65	75	85
23	MU	58	70	75
24	MR	65	65	75
25	PK	70	80	85
26	SM	65	80	80
27	S	65	80	75
28	SRP	64	75	75
29	SR	68	70	85
30	SRK	65	75	75
31	USP	58	70	80
32	YEW	58	75	75
$\sum X$		$\sum X = 2.104$	$\sum x = 2.360$	$\sum x = 2.490$
\overline{X}		65,75	73,75	77,81

The percentage of students' ability improvement from pre-test to post-test two was presented in the following analysis.

- a. The percentage of students' score improvement from pre-test to post-test one

$$P = \frac{y_1 - y}{Y} \times 100\%$$

Notes:

P: percentage of students' improvement

y: pre-test score

y1: post-test score in cycle one

Y : Number of students

$$\begin{aligned} P &= \frac{2.3 - 2.1}{3} \times 100\% \\ &= \frac{256}{32} \times 100\% \\ &= 8\% \end{aligned}$$

- b. The percentage of students' score improvement from pre-test to post-test two.

$$P = \frac{y_2 - y}{Y} \times 100\%$$

Notes:

P: percentage of students' improvement

y: pre-test score

y2: post-test score 2

Y: Number of students

$$\begin{aligned} P &= \frac{2.490 - 2.104}{32} \times 100\% \\ &= \frac{3}{3} \times 100\% \\ &= 12\% \end{aligned}$$

4.3 Hypothesis Testing

The improvement of students' scores from cycle one to cycle two in terms of hypothesis testing can be seen in the following table.

Table 15. The scores of post-test one and two

No.	Students' name	Score			
		Post-test one	Post-test two	D	D2
1	DF	75	80	5	25
2	EUS	75	85	10	100
3	IYS	70	75	5	25
4	IN	75	75	0	0
5	IRW	80	80	0	0
6	IC	75	85	10	100
7	JA	70	75	5	25

8	JZ	75	70	-5	25
9	KH	70	75	5	25
10	KHR	75	85	10	100
11	KA	70	75	5	25
12	KH	70	80	10	100
13	LH	65	70	5	25
14	LL	80	85	5	25
15	M	70	70	0	0
16	MS	65	75	10	100
17	MSF	70	75	5	25
18	MP	75	80	5	25
19	MJ	80	75	-5	25
20	MD	75	75	0	0
21	MF	85	80	-5	25
22	MRP	75	85	10	100
23	MU	70	75	5	25
24	MR	65	75	10	100
25	PK	80	85	5	25
26	SM	80	80	0	0

27	S	80	75	-5	25
28	SRP	75	75	0	0
29	SR	70	85	10	100
30	SRK	75	75	0	0
31	USP	70	80	10	100
32	YEW	75	75	0	0
	Total			$\sum D = 125$	$\sum D^2 = 1.275$

$$t = \frac{\bar{D}}{\sqrt{\frac{\sum D^2 - \frac{(\sum D)^2}{N}}{N(N-1)}}$$

$$t = \frac{3,90}{\sqrt{\frac{1.275 - \frac{(125)^2}{32}}{32(32-1)}}$$

$$t = \frac{3,90}{\sqrt{\frac{1.275 - 488,3}{32(31)}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 t &= \frac{3,90}{\sqrt{\frac{786,7}{992}}} \\
 &= \frac{3,9}{\sqrt{0,7}} \\
 &= \frac{3,9}{\sqrt{0,7}} \\
 &= \frac{3,90}{0,89} \\
 &= 4,38
 \end{aligned}$$

Based on the calculation above, it found that t count = 4,38 and t table $dk = N-1=32-1=31$, it could be seen that coefficient of t -count 4,38 with the fact level $df = 0,05$ which the real level of t -table $31=2.04$ in the coefficient of t count $(4,38) > t$ table $(2,04)$. Thus, the alternative hypothesis (H_a) could be received. Based on the finding, the alternative hypothesis (H_a) stating the pairwork technique could improve the students' speaking ability.

4.4 Research Findings

Based on the result of the data analysis, it was found that the use of pairwork technique can attract the students' motivation to take part in language teaching and improve their ability at speaking. We can see the improvement of students' activities from cycle one to cycle two (82,5 % of the students took part in the teaching -learning

process or at level 3,3 ,good category to 91,25% or at the level 3,65, good category in cycle two, and the improvement of their scores was 7 students (21,9%) got score 70 up in pre cycle, 29 students (90,6 %) in cycle one and 32 students (100%) in cycle two. It can be stated that the pairwork technique is appropriate to apply in teaching speaking class.

The common problems of students in speaking are 1). **Inhibition.** The students are often inhibited about trying to say things in foreign language in the classroom: worried about making mistakes (grammar problem), fearful of criticism or loosing face, or simply shy of attention that their speech attracts. 2). **Nothing to say.** Even they are inhibited, they could not think of anything to say. 3). **Mother tongue use.** The students tend to switch code when they did not find a word to say something (vocabulary problem). This problem can be decreased by convincing them that reaching speaking ability needs long term process and practice was the one way to master a language.

4.5 Discussion

With reference to the research findings. It was found that the teaching-learning process in the application of workpair technique were in good atmosphere. The process of the technique attracted the students' interesting to take part in class activities.

An appropriate technique will affect on class activities. In teaching conversation for instance, Traditional teaching technique will

lead students to be good listeners where Students Talk Time (STT) tend is less than Teachers Talk Time. In recent years, language teaching has been focused on learning process rather than the teaching of the language. Workpair technique as one of the current techniques could bring the students feel interesting and enjoyable to take part in the class activities so the communicative language skills were attained, this technique brought students to speak naturally. This is actually should be done by Language instructor, he should not teach students with structured dialogue because they will never own creativity and critical thinking, they do not have chance to build their own sentences. In speaking class, students should be given more time to practice, the lecturer takes role as a facilitator and gives feedback to the students' activity, if possible he can give praise on the students' achievement. In brief, gaining communicative competence needs long term process, so a good language instructor should make students feel free to express their mind, they should not be given any correction on their utterances at the time they are speaking.

In teaching-learning process on speaking class, a good atmosphere in classroom can influence the students' interesting to take part in class activity. An appropriate technique will affect class activity. In teaching Speaking for instance, traditional teaching technique will lead students to be good listeners (teacher- centered) where Students Talk Time (STT) is less than Teachers Talk Time (TTT). In recent years, language teaching has been focused on learning process rather than the teaching of the language. Pairwork technique

is one of the alternative ways to create a live atmosphere of language teaching where the students get more opportunity to practice the target language with their classmates.

The communicative language skills can be attained by training students to speak naturally. Teachers should not ask students to learn by heart a structured dialogue because it will not help them explore their speaking competence. In speaking class, students' interaction should be carried out in natural communication. The components of speaking competence are pronunciation (including the segmental features vowel and consonants and the stress and the intonation patterns), grammar, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension. These components may be able to achieve through focusing more practice than listening to lecturer's explanation.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

5.1. Conclusion

The increasing of speaking skills needs long term process because there are some components should be mastered by language learners if they want to achieve speaking competence, the components are 1) Pronunciation including the segmental features-vowels and consonants – and the stress and intonation patterns, 2) Grammar, 3) Vocabulary, 4) Fluency and 5). Comprehension.

The ability of mastering the components of speaking skills above leads a speaker to be good speech producer. The role of lecturer in language teaching on speaking subject should be as facilitator in order the students have more opportunity to practice the target language and he should focus on the learning process rather than the teaching of the language. The emphasis is not only on linguistic competence of language learners but also on the development of the communicative ability because the learners need to learn how to use the target language in real life situation. Pairwork technique as this research could bring the students to get more practice the target language in speaking class.

5.2. Suggestion

Based on the result of this research, it is suggested to speaking lecturer to facilitate the language learners to practice more the target language instead of the linguistic competence, and not to give correction on the students' mistakes in speaking at the time they are

speaking, let them to speak as they can, the correction should be given at the end of the class. The speaking lecturer should also create relaxed atmosphere in class activity in order the students feel free to talk, pairwork is one of appropriate techniques can be applied to get the situation.

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