CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

A. Speaking

1. The definition of Speaking

Speaking is ability to express articulation voices or words and to extend ideas and emotions. Furthermore, speaking is human behaviors, which use the physics, considerable as the done need to human important tools as social controls. Many definition about speaking have been proposed by language. Speaking derives from the word “speak”. According to oxford dictionary, “speak” means say things, talk, be able to use a language, make a speech, express ideas, feelings, etc.¹

Douglas brown, in language assessments principles and classroom practice, said that speaking is productive skill can be directly and empirically observed, those observation are invariable colored by the accuracy and effectiveness of a test-takers listening skill, which necessarily compromises the reliability and validity of an oral production task.²

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Speaking is physically situated face to face interaction: usually speakers can see each other and so can refer to the physical context and use a number of physical signals to indicate.\(^3\) Speaking is an activity used by someone to communicate with other. It takes place very where and has become part of our daily activities. And when someone speaks, he or she interacts and uses the language to express his or her ideas, feeling and thought. And also shares information to other through communication.

Based on definition above, speaking is mutual communication process of transferring messages to other people that involved articulating sounds in the form of utterances.

2. **Types of Speaking**

Brown (2004) further states that there are some basic types of speaking as in the following taxonomy:

a. 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 possible a sentence. While this purely phonetic level of oral production, a number of prosodic, lexical, nd grammatical properties of language may be included in the criterion performance.

\(^3\) Ronald carted and david nunan, the Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages, (Cambridge university press: 2001), p. 16.
b. Intensive. The production of short oral language designed to demonstrate competence in a narrow band of grammatical, phrasal, lexical, or phonological relationships.

c. Responsive. Responsive include interaction and test comprehension but at the somewhat limited level of very short conversations, standard greetings and small talk, simple request and comments. This is kind of short replies to teacher or student initiated questions or comments, giving instructions and directions. Those replies are usually sufficient and meaningful.

d. Interactive. The difference between responsive and interactive speaking is the length and complexity of the interaction, which sometimes includes multiple exchanges and or multiple participants. Interaction can take two forms of transactional language, which has the purpose of exchanging specific information or interpersonal exchanges which have the purpose of maintaining social relationship.

e. Extensive (monologue). Extensive oral production tasks include speeches, oral representations, and storytelling, during which the
opportunity for oral interaction from listeners is either highly limited (perhaps to nonverbal responses) or ruled out together.\textsuperscript{4}

3. **Elements of speaking**

Harmer state that “the ability to speak fluently presupposes not only knowledge of language features, but also the ability to process information and language on the spot.”\textsuperscript{5} Dealing with research purpose to improve students speaking, the researcher needs to elaborate elements of speaking in the following:

a. Connected speech

Effective speakers of English need to be able not only to procedure the individual phonemes of English but also use fluent ‘connected speech’.

b. Expressive devices

Native speakers of English change the pitch and stress of particular parts of utterances, vary volume and speed, and show by other physical and non-verbal (paralinguistic) means how they are feeling (especially in face-to-face interaction).

c. Lexis and grammar

\textsuperscript{4} H. douglas brown, language assessments principles and classroom practice, (longman:2004), p.140
Spontaneous speech is marked by use of a number of common lexical phrases, especially in the performance of certain language functions.

d. Negotiation language

Effective speaking benefits the negotiation of language we use to seek clarification and show the structure of what we are saying.

4. Assessing speaking

According to brown, 2001. There are some assessments for speaking:

a. Fluently

The ability to keep going when speaking spontaneously. When speaking fluently students should be able to get the message across with whatever resources and abilities they have got, regardless of grammatical and another mistakes.

b. Accent

Errors in pronunciation are frequent but can be understood by a native speaker used to dealing with foreigners attempting to speak their language.

c. Grammar

Able to use the language accurately on all levels normally pertinent to professional needs. Errors in grammar are quite rare.
d. Vocabulary

Able to speak the language with the sufficient vocabulary to participate affectively in most formal and informal conversations on practical, social and professional topics.

e. Comprehension

Quite complete at a normal rate of speech and can understand any conversation within the range of experience.

5. Classroom speaking activities

Many of the classroom speaking activities which are currently in use fall at or near the communicative end and the communicative continuum. There are a number of widely used categories of speaking activity, and we will start by looking at them before going on to specific speaking examples.6

a. Acting from a script

When choosing who should come out to the front of the class we need to be careful not to choose the shyest student first, and we need to work to create the right kind supportive atmosphere in the class. And we need to give students time to rehearse their dialogues before they are asked to perform them. Where the whole class is

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working on the some dialogue or play extract, we can go through the script as if we were theatre directors, drawing attention to appropriate stress, intonation, and speed.

By giving students practice in these things before they give their final performances, we ensure that acting out is both a learning and language producing activity. We can ask our students to act out scenes from plays and/or their coursebooks, sometimes filming the results. Students will act out dialogues they have written themselves.

b. Communication games

There are many communication games, all of which aim to get students talking as quickly and fluently as possible. 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, put things in the right order, or find similarities and differences between pictures.

c. Discussion

Discussion ranges from highly formal, whole group staged events to informal small group interaction. One of the reasons that discussion fails 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 the language they might use to say it. Many students feel extremely exposed in discussion situation.

d. Prepared talks

A popular kind of activity is the prepared talk where 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 than this. However, if possible, students should speak from notes rather than from a script.

Prepared talks represent a defined and useful speaking game, and if properly organized, can be extremely interesting for both speakers and listeners. Just as in process writing the development of the talk, from original ideas to finisher work, will be of vital importance.

e. Simulation and role play

Simulation and role play can be used to encourage general oral fluency, or train students for specific situation, for simulation to work it must, according to Ken Jones, have the following characteristic:

a) Reality of function: the student must not think themselves as students, but as real participant in real situation.
b) A simulated environment: teacher says that the classroom is an airport check-in area, hospital, for example.

c) Structure: student must see how the activity is constructed and they must be given the necessary information to carry out the simulation effectively.

B. Coop-Dis Q Strategy

1. Meaning of Coop-Dis-Q Strategy

Coop-Dis-Q was developed by incorporating the elements of cooperative learning, discussion, and questioning into one strategy (Gauthier, 2001). The premise is that the combined strengths of each element will create a synergistic instructional effect.\(^7\)

1) Cooperative learning,

Cooperative learning is a student centered, instructor-facilitated instructional strategy in which a small group of students is responsible for its own learning and the learning of all group members. Students interact with each other in the same group to acquire and practice the elements of a subject matter in order to solve a problem, complete a task or achieve a goal.\(^8\)


\(^8\) Li, m.p. & lam, b. h. (2013), cooperative learning, the active classroom :the hongkong institute of education.
2) Discussion,

Discussion is an effective way to facilitate learning, can provide the instructor with an opportunity to assess student understanding of course material. Most importantly, discussion allow students to actively participate in the learning process. Thus students will be more motivated in learning if the learning process looks very interesting and makes them active in learning process.

3) Questioning.

Asking and answering questions is a key ingredient in the learning process and in effective teaching.

This strategy was developed in taking from the three elements above in one strategy. Coop-dis-q strategy will indirectly force students to play an active role in the learning process.

2. The strengths of Coop-Dis-Q strategy

Students can work out problems they are having together instead of alone. The strength of each will augment the benefits of the other two,
creating a synergistic instructional effect. According to Gauthier (2001), the strengths are as follow:\(^{11}\):

a. Create a synergistic instructional effect.
b. Compel students to take active roles.
c. Assume students responsibility for decision.
d. Realize student the many roles that are often required to solve authentic problems.
e. Convey a respect for students’ thoughts and opinions.
f. Increase students’ full participation in classroom activities
g. Guide students’ search for meaning.

Gauthier mentions that when students work together, communicate their thoughts, and seek answers to different questions.

3. **Teaching Coop-Dis-Q Strategy**

   In teaching Coop-Dis-Q strategy the teacher will asks the students to read the material, discuss the material, speak together each group, and ask questions and answer each other to improve speaking ability. It is very useful in speaking class because when students speak it will increase students’ confidence in speaking ability.

   The following are the procedures to teach it\(^ {12}\):

\(^{11}\) William n.bender and Martha j.larkin, reading strategies for elementary students with learning difficulties, (thousand oaks : California, 2003

\(^{12}\) William n.bender and Martha j.larkin, reading strategies for elementary students with learning difficulties, (thousand oaks : California, 2003
1) Create the groups.

Teachers should determine groups of a maximum of six students each by taking into account both individual and group needs.

2) Prepare a set of questions.

The teacher formulates the questions; these questions should reflect the different processes involved in material.

3) Groups discuss the story and divide questions.

Groups engage in general discussion about the text. Teachers must allow the students to control the direction of the discussion. And questions are then presented and groups are again divided into two triads to promote more opportunities for discussion, and questions evenly distributed among groups of three.

4) Triads discuss, answer and add questions.

Teachers should encourage students to express their own opinions but also try to analyze ideas and perspectives of peers. Triads should also try to come up with additional questions that emphasize important details of the story.

5) Triads present and discuss their answers

- Two triads rejoin and a discussion of each answer takes place.

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• Students should be encouraged to offer alternative responses that take different points of view.

• Teacher must moderate discussion and promote quality reasoning and thinking processes.

• Activity complete when all questions answered and discussion points carefully reviewed.