

II. FRAME OF THEORIES

This chapter discusses concepts covered in this research. The concepts come from the review of related previous researches and related literatures.

2.1. Review of Previous Researches

Concerning formulation of the problem in this research, there are some researches carried out will be discussed below:

1. Yufrizal, Hery (2007) in *Negotiation of Meaning by Indonesia EFL Learners* states many Indonesians are capable of communicating in English with native speakers or other non-native speakers. Many are able to finish undergraduate and graduate degrees in universities in English speaking countries with satisfactory results. The basic questions arising from the situations above is how will the students develop their competence in English despite their lack of contact with native speaker? When the students have the opportunity to communicate in English with their peers, will they constantly use English or will they switch to Indonesian when communication breakdown is likely occur? Can the students get the advantage of getting comprehensible input and producing modification of output, as it should occur if they were interacting with native speakers?.

From that issues, he investigated 1) the difference between the patterns of interaction and negotiation of meaning in second language settings and foreign language settings, 2) the type of task and learner arrangements that might influence the patterns of interaction and negotiation of meaning, 3) the factors that influence the patterns of interaction and negotiation of meaning.

An analysis of the effect of task type shows that Information gap tasks generate more interactions than Jigsaw tasks and Role-play tasks. Information gap tasks generate longer times of speaking, more turns taken, and more c-units than Jigsaw tasks and Role-play tasks. It was also found that Jigsaws tasks generate longer times of speaking, more turns taken, and more c-units than Role-play tasks. Information gap tasks generated more negotiations of meaning than Jigsaw tasks and Role-play tasks. Information gap tasks generated more negotiations of meaning components, more signals, more responses, more modifications of input and more modifications of output than Jigsaw tasks, and Role-play tasks. Additionally, in terms of the number of negotiation of meaning sequences, Information gap tasks also generated more sequences than Jigsaw tasks and Role-play tasks.

Analysis of the effect of gender showed that male subjects did not produce significantly longer times of speaking or turns taken than female subjects. Male subjects produced a significantly greater numbers of c-units than female subjects only in Information gap tasks. Male subjects did not produce significantly greater numbers of signals, responses, modifications of inputs,

and modifications of output across the three task types. However, male subjects were found to produce significantly more negotiation of meaning components in Information gap tasks.

Analysis of the effect of proficiency showed that there was a significant difference in the length of time speaking, the number turns taken, and the number of c-units by lower and higher proficiency subjects. However it was found that the lower proficiency subjects produced more interaction than the higher proficiency subjects. Higher proficiency subjects were found to produce significantly more negotiation of meaning components, and more responses than the lower proficiency subjects. However, lower proficiency subjects produced more modifications of output than higher proficiency subjects.

Analysis of the effect of learning style showed that Communicative learners were found to produce longer times of speaking at least in Jigsaws tasks.

2. Emayuta (2007) from Lampung University compared students' production of utterances and negotiation of meaning using information gap task in pair and small group in speaking class in the second grade of SMK Karya Pembangunan Gajah Mada Metro. She investigated the use of information gap task in pair and small group in speaking class whether they had different effect or not for the students. According to Emayuta (2007) that the students still often found difficulties in understanding and using spoken language because they mostly could not produce a short dialogue fluently when practicing it. She stated that the problem was influenced by inappropriateness of teaching method which

was used by the teacher in teaching speaking. Her result shows that information gap task and two kind of sitting arrangement, pair work and small group work, were able to stimulate the students to speak in the target language. Based on her research, the number of C-units and negotiation of meaning (trigger, signal, response, and follow up) which were produced in small group work was higher than in pair work.

3. Nurdiana, Novita (2011) from Lampung University analyzed negotiation of meaning which was used by the students' interaction in SMAN 4 Bandar Lampung. According to her, the students had difficulties in comprehending the messages, materials, and improving their English ability well in communication. It was caused by misunderstanding which occurred in the teaching learning process. She applied jigsaw task and information gap task. Her result shows that there were two components of negotiation of meaning which were rarely used in the students' interaction; they were confirmation or negate response and confirmation check through repetition.
4. Irawan, Dian (2012) from Lampung University compared between the students' production utterances using information gap task and the students' production utterances using role play task at the second year of SMAN 8 Bandar Lampung. Based on his pre-observation, he found that the students were often acutely embarrassed if they made mistake and were corrected or laughed at. The students were rarely trained to speak in the target language in the class. They still looked prude and hesitate to interact with their friends and

their teacher by using the target language. Based on his research finding, there was a relatively different result between information gap task and role play task in generating and effecting interaction toward the students' producing utterances. His results show that the total number of utterances or C-units which was produced by the students by using information gap task was 848 C-units. The result in role play task shows that the total number of utterances or C-units which was produced by the students was 813 C-units.

The difference of this research from the related previous researches is the implementation of speaking activity. The previous researches implemented the technique such as information gap task, role play, and jigsaw. In this research, the activity which was implemented was Task-based Learning. It makes the students are directly and naturally do the conversation. Because it is more student-centered, allows for more meaningful communication. According to Willis (1996), task is an activity where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome.

As long as there are any communicative purposes, certainly there any productive and receptive skill of understanding. Negotiation of meaning appears to be an important element in facilitating the learners to gain comprehensible input for non-native speaker based responses or signals of understanding. The researcher believes that negotiation of meaning is also one of the important factors which occurs comprehending meaning in natural communication. Because misunderstanding meaning often occurs between speaker and listener especially

for non-native speaker. According to Yufrizal (2007), negotiation of meaning defines as a series of exchanges conducted by addressor and addressees to help themselves understand and be understood by their interlocutors. Therefore, this research analyzed negotiation of meaning in the implementing Task-based Learning in speaking which is believed could make the students better in understanding and comprehending the meaning from the interlocutors.

This research was conducted in the second year of senior high school. Because of the communication which happens in that grade belong to the first generation of task in Task-based Learning (Ribé and Vidal, 1993). First generation of task tends to achieve communicative development which often occurs misunderstanding meaning in their conversation. According to Ribé and Vidal (1993), the aim of 'first generation' tasks is to develop students' communicative ability in a specific type of situation or area of language. The task is often structured around a particular set of functions or a simple problem.

2.2 Review of Related Literature

2.2.1 Concept of Speaking

According to Halliday (1985) as quoted by Thomas and Hawes, spoken language is used to the major functions of language; the ideational function and interpersonal function. The interpersonal function of language is reflected in the kind of social talk that we participate in throughout the day in conversational exchanges with family, friends, colleagues, etc. This kind of relaxed verbal

interaction is the use of language to establish and maintain social relationship. The ideational function corresponds to a function of language quite different from its use for social relations. This is the use of language to express content and to communicate information.

According to Irawati (2003) in Emayuta (2007), speaking is one of the central elements of communication of an interactive process in which an individual alternately takes the roles of speakers and listeners used to communicate information, ideas, and emotions to others using oral language. According to Rowiyah (2008) in Nurdiana (2011), speaking is as transferring a messages or idea to the other persons that need good sentences forms and good speaking ability, so the listener will understand what the speaker means. According to Lado (1961), speaking is described as the ability to express oneself in life situation, converse, to report acts or situation in precise words or the ability to express a sequence of ideal fluently. It means that in speaking process, there must be at least two people. One is the listener who receives the information.

According to Haris (1974), speaking is encoding process where people can communicate the ideas, thought and feeling orally. It means that we produce spoken message to someone. Spoken message is our ideas, thinking and feeling about what we want to share, influence, or interact to other people. Therefore speaking situation involves a speaker who put a message with words or sentence to a listener. According to Welty (1976), speaking is the main skill in

communication. Based on these ideas, speaking can communicate or express what we want in order to understand one another.

According to Rivers (1978), through speaking, someone can express his ideas, emotions, attentions, reaction, to other person and situation and influence other people. According to Murcia (1978), speaking is the primary element of language and it can be developed from the beginning when someone was born, from the first contact with the language. It can be concluded that speaking is developed since people were born even it only occurs the first language.

According to Byrne (1985), speaking or oral communication is as two processes between speaker and listener and involves the productive skills and receptive skills of understanding. It can be inferred that in order to be able to speak, one should master the productive skills as well as receptive skills. Mastering of productive skills means that one has ability in speaking, for instance, how to make listener understand what the speaker delivers in communication. Mastering the receptive skills means that one has ability in listening such as how to catch and understand what the listener listens.

According to Brown (2001), speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning which involves producing, receiving and processing information. In line with this idea, there are three important points that must occur from the participants of communication (speakers and listener) to construct the meaning during the interaction among them: producing, receiving and processing

information. According to Brown (2001) the types of spoken language are classified as follow:

1. Monologue

In monologue, the speaker uses spoken language like speech, lecture, etc. The hearer must process long stretches of speech without interruption the stream.

The speech will go on whether any or no the listener comprehension.

e.g.

Anne : *Hello, my name is Anne. I live on Garuntang street no. 10. I am twelve years old. My hobby is singing.*

2. Dialogue

Dialogue involves two or more speakers and can be subdivided into interpersonal and transactional. An interpersonal language is a dialogue with the purpose is to promote social relationship between speakers. A transactional language is a dialogue which involves two or more speakers and the purpose is to convey propositional or factual information.

e.g.

Jacky : *Hello, what is your name?*

Mary : *Hi, my name is Mary. And you?*

Jacky : *My name is Jacky. What class are you in?*

Mary : *I am in the first class.*

Brown (2001) also provides type of classroom speaking activity. They are:

1. Imitative

The imitation is carried out not for the purpose of meaningful interaction, but for focusing on some particular element of language form. Its example is practice an intonation contour or try to pinpoint a certain vowel sounds.

2. Intensive

Intensive speaking includes any speaking activity which is designed to practice some phonological or grammatical aspect of language. It goes one-stop beyond imitative speaking.

3. Responsive

A good deal of student's speech in the classroom is responsive short replies to teacher or students-initiated questions or comments. These replies are usually sufficient and do not extend into dialogues. The dialogue example is:

T : How are you?
S : Pretty good, thanks, and you?
T : What is the main idea in this essay?
S : The United Nations should have more authority.
T : So, what did you write for question number one?
S : Well, I wasn't sure, so I left it blank.

4. Transactional (dialogue)

Transactional dialogue is carried out for the purpose of conveying or exchanging specific information or idea. It is an extended of responsive language. The dialogue example is:

T : What is the main idea in this essay?
S : The United Nations should have more authority.
T : More authority than what?
S : Than it does right now.
T : What do you mean?
S : Well, for example, the UN should have the power to force country like Iraq to destroy its nuclear weapons.
T : You don't think the UN has that power now?
S : Obviously not, Iraq is still manufacturing nuclear bombs.

5. Interpersonal

Interpersonal dialogue is carried out more for maintaining social relationship than the transmission of facts and information. The conversation is little trickier for learners because they can involve some or all of the following factors: a

casual register, colloquial language, emotionally, charged language, slag, ellipsis, sarcasm, and convert “agenda”. The dialogue example is:

Amy : Hi, Bob, how’s it going?
Bob : Oh, so-so.
Amy : Not a great weekend, huh?
Bob : Well, far be it from me to criticize, but I’m pretty miffed about last week.
Amy : What are you talking about?
Bob : Oh, that...How come you get so bent out of shape over something like that?
Amy : Well, whose fault was it, huh?
Bob : Oh, wow, this is great. Wonderful! Back to square one. For crying out loud, Amy, I thought we’d settled this before. Well, what more can I say?

6. Extensive

Extensive monologue is extended monologues in the form of oral reports, summaries, or perhaps short speeches. In this case, the register are more formal and deliberative. This monologue can be planned or impromptu.

According to Welty (1976), speaking is one of four basic skills of language and it has important role in daily life because it is the main skill in communication.

Speaking must fulfill these following criteria:

1. Pronunciation

There are 3 basic which can be involved to assist pupils in learning pronunciation. The first is exhortation. Exhortation is the instruction to imitate and mimic, to make a sound, without father explanation. The second is speech training. It is the construction of special games and exercises which entail the use of word or sentence: practices particular sounds, sequences of sounds, stress-patterns, rhythm, and intonation. The third is practical phonetics which including

description of the speech organ, description of the sounds articulation, description of stress, rhythm and intonation.

2. Grammar

The study of how words and their component combine to form sentences, structural relationship in language or in a language, sometimes including pronunciation, meaning, and linguistic history. Grammar is the set of logical and structural rules which governs the composition of sentences, phrases, and words in any given natural language. Grammar is a kind of regularity of sounds structure which nobody could learn language without grammar.

3. Vocabulary

Vocabulary means the appropriate diction which is used in communication (Syakur, 2011). Vocabulary is divided in to two parts, close class and open class. Close class consist of preposition, pronoun, conjunction, e.g.

And : I like dancing and singing
A : I eat a bowl of meatball
Your : What is your favorite food?
My : my hobby is riding bicycle
But : I do not like meatball but I like noodle

Open class consist of noun, adjective, verb, adverb, e.g

Noun

I : I love playing badminton
My : My hobby is reading story book
Basketball : Basketball is Rahmi's favorite sport

Verb

Play : Rudi is playing football with his brother
Go : Romi go to the fields to play football
Makes : Mother makes a cup of coffee for my father

Adjective

Good : Markus is a good singer

Bore : I always bore if I stay at home alone

4. Fluency

Fluency is the smoothness of flow in which sounds, syllables, words, and phrases are joined together in conversation. According to Brumfit (1984) in Nation, fluency is as the maximum affective operation of the language system so far acquired by the students. It refers to the one who express a language quickly and easily without any difficulty.

5. Comprehension

Comprehension is the language study about how the students understand the message, or helps them to improve their understanding of it; in which they read a piece of writing or listen to speaking, and then answer the question.

Comprehension is the ability to completely understand and be familiar with a situation, facts, etc. It refers to the ability of understanding of the speakers' intension and general meaning.

2.2.2 Speaking Technique

Of all the four skill (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), speaking intuitively as seems the most important; people who know a language are referred to as “speakers” of the language. According to Brown (2001) there are principles for designing speaking technique:

1. Use technique that covers the spectrum of learners needs, from language-based focused on accuracy of message based on interaction, meaning, and fluency. In our current zeal for interaction language speaking, we can easily slip into a pattern of providing content-based, interactive activities that do not capitalize on grammatical pointers or pronunciation tips.

2. Provide intrinsically motivating technique.

Try to appeal the student's ultimate goals, interests, and also their need of knowledge. It is for status, achieving competency and autonomy, and "being all that they can be". Even those techniques do not make the students enjoy, help them to see how the activity benefit them. We ask them to do certain things which can pay to tell them.

3. Encourage the use of authentic language in meaningful context.

It takes energy and creativity to device authentic contexts and meaningful interaction by disconnected little grammar exercises. It can be done also by teacher resource material.

4. Provide appropriate feedbacks and corrections.

In EFL situation, the students are mostly depended on the teacher for the used of linguistic feedback. In ESL situations, they may get such feedback "out there" beyond the classroom in great benefit position. It is important that we take advantages of *our* knowledge of English to inject the kinds of corrective feedbacks which are appropriate for the moment.

5. Capitalize on the natural link between speaking and listening.

Many interactive techniques involve speaking and also include listening. When we focused on speaking goals, listening goals may naturally coincide, and the two skills can reinforce each other. They are often initiated through comprehension in producing language.

6. Give students opportunities to initiate oral communication.

A good deal of typical classroom interaction is characterized by teacher initiation of language. We ask questions, give directions, and provide information, and the students have been conditioned only to speak when spoken to. Part of oral communication competence is the ability to initiate conversations, to nominate topics, to ask questions, to control conversations, and to change the subject. When we design and use speaking techniques, we have allowed students to initiate the language.

7. Encourage the development of speaking strategies.

The concept of strategic competence is one of few beginning language in which students are aware of. They have not simply thought about developing their own personal strategies for accomplishing oral communicative purposes. Our classroom can be one in which students become aware of, and have a chance to practice.

2.2.3 Concept of Teaching Speaking

Teaching speaking means how to use the language for communication, for transferring idea to other people. According to Rivers (1978), speaking is developed from the first contact with the language that we learn, because by the speaking we can transfer our ideas or thought to other people. According to Johnson (1983), the essence of human language is human activity on the part of the individual to make him understood by another and activity on the part of the other understands what was on the first. Then, he adds the languages as an activity which permits people to communicate with each other. Therefore language is very important. We can not only teach what will be spoken but also the situation what we deal with. The teacher teaches speaking by carrying out the students in certain situation when the topic is being talked about. The topic must be familiar with the students. What the ideas have an oral command of the language need to describe the topic.

Therefore, if students do not learn how to speak or do not get any opportunity to speak in the classroom, they may soon lose their motivation and interest in learning. In the other hand, if the good activities are taught in the right way, speaking in class can be a lot of fun, raise general learner motivation and make the English language classroom is fun and dynamic place. Teaching speaking is to teach English language learners to:

1. Produce the English speech sounds patterns.
2. Use word and sentences stress, intonation patterns and the rhythm of the second language.

3. Select appropriate words and sentences according to the proper social setting, audience, situation, and subject matter.
4. Organize their thought in a meaningful and logical sequence.
5. Use language as a mean of expressing values and judgments.
6. Use the language quickly and confidently with few unnatural pauses, which are called as fluency (Nunnan, 2003).

It can be concluded that speaking is the ability to express one's thought in form of oral communication. There are several ways of teaching speaking that can be used during teaching learning process. In order to teach second language learners how to speak in the best way possible, that teacher must use speaking activities that can be practiced and applied in the classroom.

2.2.4 Aspect of Oral Ability

There are crucial component of this skill: pronunciation, fluency and comprehensibility. According to Hedge (2000), part of speaking the language competently is the ability to produce its sounds in ways that are intelligible to other speaker and defines fluency as the ability to link units of speech together with facility and without strain or inappropriate slowness, or undue hesitation. Much more spontaneity is present in communicative classroom. Meanwhile, comprehensibility focuses on the students' understanding of the conversation. These aspects of speaking are important for the learners to mastery English communication.

2.2.5 Concept of Negotiation of Meaning

Negotiation of meaning is defined as a series of exchanges conducted by addressors and addressees to help themselves understand and be understood by their interlocutors (Yufrizal, 2007). In this case, when native speakers and non-native speakers are involved in an interaction, both interlocutors work together to solve any potential misunderstanding that occurs, by checking each others' comprehension, requesting clarification and confirmation and by repairing and adjusting speech (Pica, 1991).

According to Pica et al (1991) there are basically four components in negotiation of meaning, namely:

1. Trigger

Trigger is utterance that contains elements that create communication breakdown. It can also be defined as prime of negotiation of meaning which involves or stimulate incomplete understanding on the part of the hearer (Varonis and Gass: 1985). A trigger exists when a speaker:

- a) Shows uncertainty or hesitation about the expressions going to be used. For example:

A : *and I need very energetic person that uh ...
can what it can ...*
B : *can attract*

- b) Produces a comprehension check that requires further clarification work from the listener. If a comprehension check can be responded by the listener in a short confirmation or negation, then the comprehension check itself serves as a signal for negotiation of meaning. However, when a comprehension check

is produced by a speaker and it causes the listener to produce a confirmation check or clarification request, then the comprehension check serves as a trigger for a negotiation of meaning.

- The example of the comprehension check is a signal:

A : *do you see what, what I mean?*
B : *yes, uh ...what time is it ..., uh ..., what time?*

- The examples of comprehension check is a trigger:

1. A : *who run in the sand of the beach ... You know sand of beach, hu uh*
B : *no what is the mean sand it the beach*
A : *you know like uh what we call in Lampung we have uh Pasir Putih or*

2. A : *and the ..., the right cupboard right cupboard is uh ..., the first first shelf on the right is a ..., uh hmm set up cup setdo you know a cup set?*
B : *in the right?*
A : *yes yes three cup set uh ..., and the next ..., ..., there are uh ..., three glass*

c) Produces an utterance that contains something the interlocutor perceives as a mistake. This perception of a mistake in one of elements of the utterance causes the listener to correct or to elaborate the utterance. For examples:

1. A : *the mouth is like uh the people uh, ... when when the people hungry maybe*
B : *angry you mean?*
A : *angry oh ... I'm sorry angry*

2. A : *yeah but the man uh ... he use glasses wh, uh circlr glasses*
B : *with ehm glasses, with a circle fram? Circle frame?*
A : *circle fram ... frame*

d) Produces an utterance which contains an unclear word or phrase. For example:

A : *after that, and ..., there's ... uh ..., have knife, on the ..., what,*

what
That's knife and knob
 B : *I beg your pardon? ...*
 A : *knife*

- e) Produces an utterance which contains an idea that is unclear to the listener.

For example:

A : *uh how about the what is it the button in this coat there their
 what how many button in your picture in your picture I think*
 B : *pardon me?*
 A : *in his in his coat in your picture the man use coat right?*

- f) Produces utterances in the speaker's L1. For example:

A : *he has uh ... one ..., ... one [kancing] in Indonesian*
 B : *[kancing]? One uh ... you mean on the blazer*
 A : *u..hu.*
 B : *Oh, I see ...*

2. Signals

This component refers to an indicator from a listener that understanding is not complete. According to Gass and Varonis (1984), signal as an indicator from a listener that understanding is not complete. This indication is triggered by the speaker's previous utterance. In many studies of negotiation of meaning, signals have been closely linked to two concepts: confirmation checks and clarification of request (Varonis and Gass: 1984).

Signals are divided into confirmation check and clarification request.

- a. Confirmation check.

It is defined as listener's inquiry as to whether correct or not their expressed understanding of the speaker's previous utterance (Foster, 1998). According to Pica et al (1989), confirmation check could occur in the three ways:

- a) Confirmation check through repetition is the interlocutor repeats all of parts of the speaker utterance. The dialogue example is:

Student A: Café it's too in South Street

Student B: South Street?

Student A: Next to grocers

- b) Confirmation check through modification is the interlocutor corrects or completes what the previous speaker has said. The dialogue example is:

Student A: Uh the story it tell about the man who wants to.....

Student B: To trip?

Student A: To trap a bear but he.....

- c) Confirmation check through completion is the interlocutor elaborates or modifies what the speaker has said in order to confirm whether his/her understanding of what speaker has said is correct. The dialogue example is:

*Student A: He see a frog is on the water..., yeah, it seems it's on uh...
what is it kind of leafs on the water and then just... she just
smile the girl is stand on the left side of the picture.*

Student B: Do you mean that she's watching the frog?

Student A: Yeah she was watching the frog

b. Clarification request.

A clarification request is a request for further information from an interlocutor about a previous utterance (Foster: 1998). Unlike confirmation checks where the listener listened to the speaker's utterance with some degree or non understanding, in clarification the listener has totally not understood what the speaker has said. A clarification request can be expressed in the form of a wh-question or a yes/no question with rising intonation. For example:

A : *so the title?*
B : *what?*
A : *so the good title of it?*

A clarification request can also be expressed through special expressions such as ‘pardon’, or ‘I beg your pardon?’. For example:

A : *uh where is the car park?*
B : *pardon?*
A : *car park*

Sometimes a clarification request is expressed in a back-channel clue. For example:

A : *oh, I mean uh ... you just move here?*
B : *yeah?*
A : *where do you come from?*

3. Response

It refers to a speaker's attempt to clear up what the listener has said (unaccepted input). In many studies of negotiation of meaning, responses were related to the discussion of the repair, that is, corrections, made by non-native speaker as a response to a modification of input action by native speaker (Foster: 1998). There are six categories of responses. They are:

a. Self-Repetition Response

It refers to a response produced by a speaker in the form of part or all an utterance produced in the trigger (Pica: 1989). The dialogue example is:

Student A: Now I in pub.
Student B: What... pub?
Student A: Pub

b. Other-Repetition Response

It is category, the speaker repeats what the listener says in the signal (Pica: 1989).

In the speaker's response to the signal, we can see that the speaker has changed his output based on the input from the listener. Since the listener's signal is triggered by inability to interpret the speaker's utterance, the signal always modifies the trigger toward the listener's assumed interpretation. Therefore in this case, the speaker has produced modified output. The dialogue example is:

Student A: I think like a suit, us, usual

Student B: Like usual suit

Student A: Yes, usual suit

c. Self-Modification Response

This category, the speaker modifies the trigger as a response to the listener's a signal of negotiation of meaning (Pica: 1991). The modification made by the speaker can be at level phonology, morphology, or syntax, or at the semantic level. The dialogue example is:

Student A: And then uh... . I think this picture tell tell us about ironic ironic picture.

Student B: Can you spell it.

Student A: Ironic ironic ironic in Indonesia ironi.

d. Other-Modification Response

Other-modification response is a modification by the speaker to reflect the signal given by the listener. The dialogue example is:

Student A: Uh...uh...what they have done?

Student B: What has she done...

Student A: What has she done to the frog.

e. Confirm or Negate Response

It refers to a response in form of confirmation or negotiation. A 'yes' confirmation response is usually short. The dialogue example is:

Student A: Yes I see...what about his hair?

Student B: His hair...

Student A: Yes

In cases where the answer is a negation, there might be some modifications by the speaker. For example:

A : uh ... you you you have told me that you have a lot of experience in another countries. And may I know your ... your reason. Why you leave the comp these company?

B : uh ... my reason to join this company?

A : no no no no to join our company but why you leave

4. Follow-Up

It refers to information about whether the modifications have been successful or not in communication. In a long negotiation of meaning, interlocutors usually repeat the signal-response exchanged until an agreement is achieved. In short negotiation of meaning sequence, two kinds of follow-up are indentified:

- a) Full comprehension of message being confirmed. For example:

Student A: On the top of cooker

Student B: Pardon?

Student A: On the top of the cooker

Student B: Yes, on the top of the cooker

- b) Continuation move

The interlocutors change their topic after a process of trigger-signal-response.

For example:

A : I think like a suit, us, usual suit

B : like usual suit?

A : yes, usual suit

B : does the man smoke? (follow-up continuation move)

According to Varonis and Gass (1984), a simpler model for exchanges that create negotiation of meaning consists of four primes. They are called:

- a) Trigger (T) which invokes or stimulates incomplete understanding on the part of the hearer.
- b) Indicator (I), which is hearer's signal of incomplete understanding.
- c) Response (R) is the original speaker's attempt to clear up the unaccepted-input.
- d) Reaction to the response (RR), which is an element that hearer signal's acceptance or continued difficulty with the speaker's repair.

2.2.6 The Role of Negotiation of Meaning in Second Language Acquisition

According to Pica (1996) in Yufrizal (2007) admitted that although there has been empirical evidence of a direct link between negotiation of meaning and second/foreign language development: research studies in negotiation of meaning for the last two decades have shown that there are two obvious contributions of negotiation of meaning to second language acquisition. Firstly through negotiation of meaning (particularly in interaction involving native speakers) non-native speaker obtain comprehensible input necessary for second language acquisition much more frequently than in interaction without negotiation of meaning (Pica, 1996) in Yufrizal (2007).

Secondly, negotiation of meaning provides opportunities for non-native speaker to comprehensible output necessary for second language acquisition much more frequently than in interaction without negotiation of meaning (Pica, 1996) in Yufrizal (2007). Another important role of negotiation of meaning which may not have direct impact on second language acquisition but it is also an important element for second language learning; through communication is that negotiation of meaning can function as an indication of pursuit of communication.

2.2.7 Negotiation of Meaning in Second and Foreign Language Setting

The majority of interaction studies deals with interaction involving native speakers and non-native speakers have been conducted in the target language setting. A set of research papers by Pica (1985a; 1985b; Pica and Doughty, 1985, 1986; Pica, young and Doughty, 1987; Pica et al, (1989); Pica et al, 1991 and Pica et al (1996)) has shown that when non-native speakers indicate that they do not understand message, expressed through comments such as ‘pardon me’, ‘uuh?’, ‘what?’, ‘Excuse me?’, ‘I ... don’t understand’, the native speaker helps non-native speakers to comprehend by modifying their utterances.

A communicative interaction in a foreign language setting, in which non-native speakers interact with other non-native speakers from the same L1 background, might result in different pattern of interaction from those in second language setting and from interaction which involves a native speaker. In the former setting, the interaction takes place for the sake of language practice rather than for communicative purpose.

Language input is usually confined to classroom and communication with foreign language teachers. The participants usually have a shared L1 knowledge, which some time hinders from negotiating of meaning and/ or permits them to use an alternative channel of communication. In the latter setting, the participant is usually geared toward purely communicative purpose, i.e. to understand or be understood by their interlocutors. Language input is not confined to teachers and classroom situation but is abundant from social life outside the classroom. The participants in conversation usually have a gap in linguistic knowledge, the native speakers being in the position of superior and non-native speakers being in the position of inferior. Consequently, there are some strategies applied by either the speaker or interlocutor in order to understand or to be understood.

2.2.8 Concept of Task-based Learning

Language-learning is defined task as including almost anything that students are asked (or choose) to do in the classroom, including formal learning activities such as grammar exercises and controlled practice activities, and providing the objective of the activity is related to learning the language. This is the view, for example, of Williams and Burden (1997):

“A task is any activity that learners engage in to further the process of learning a language.”

Many teachers use a more restricted definition. They conduct the activities where the learners are focusing on formal aspects of the language (such as grammar,

pronunciation or vocabulary) and reserve the term ‘task’ for activities in which the purpose is related to the communication of meanings (i.e. for what Nunan, 1989, p. 10, calls a “communicative task”). Willis (1996, p. 23) adopts this definition: “Tasks are always activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome.” It is the ‘communicative’ definition that is used in most public discussions about Task-based Learning in Hong Kong. Based on the *Secondary School Syllabus for English Language* referred to earlier, tasks should include these features:

Further Characteristics of Tasks in the Hong Kong Syllabuses

- They involve communicative language use in which the learners’ attention is focused on meaning rather than linguistic structures.
- They should be authentic and as close as possible to the real world and daily life experience of the learners.
- They should involve learners in various activities in which they are required to negotiate meaning and make choices in what, when and how to learn.

(CDC, 1999a, p. 43)

Learning activities in which students focus upon and practise specific elements of knowledge, skills and strategies needed for the task (CDC, 1999). The main advantages of Task-based Learning are that language is used for a genuine purpose of meaning, real communication should take place. The students are forced to consider language form in general rather than concentrating on a single form. One of the feature keys from communicative task is that the learners focus on meanings rather than learning or practicing forms.

Problem-based Learning is a student-centered pedagogy in which the students learn the subject in the context of complex, multifaceted, and realistic problems. The activity reflects the real life. The students are free to use any language they want. Playing a game, solving a problem or sharing information or experiences, can all be considered as relevant and authentic tasks. Producing an agreement or finding the right solution can be considered as a genuine task in Task-based Learning.

The major role (task) is that the teacher changes from phase to phase. It also has a different focus in work with beginners than in work with advanced students. The emphasized meanings are believed being increase, the students pay no more attention to the forms they are producing (and which, indeed, they may just have been taught). This might be the case in this role, if students are asked to perform it after learning different ways (Harmer, 1991).

The task-based lessons were aimed to create a need to learn and use language. The tasks will generate their own language and create an opportunity for language acquisition (Krashen, 1996). The students should be given the opportunity to use English in the classroom as they use their own languages in everyday life. Teachers have a responsibility to enrich their students' language when they see it is necessary.

2.2.9 Procedure of Teaching Speaking through Task-based Learning

In Task-based Learning, the teachers' role is changed from an instructor and prosecutor of errors to be a supporter and inventor of tasks. The core of the lesson is, as the name suggests, the task. All parts of the language used are emphasized during the activity in order to make students focus on the task. Although there may be several effective frameworks for creating a Task-based Learning lesson, here is a rather comprehensive one suggested by Willis (1996).

1. Pre-task

In the pre-task, the teacher would present what would be expected of the students in the task phase. Additionally, the teacher may prime the students with key vocabulary or grammatical constructs, although, in "pure" Task-based Learning lessons, these would be presented as suggestions. Therefore the students would be encouraged to use what they were comfortable with in order to complete the task.

2. Task

During the task phase, the students discuss the task, typically in small groups, although it was depended on the type of activity and unless the teacher played a particular role in the task. The teacher's role is typically limited to one of an observer or counselor, thus the reason for it being a more student-centered methodology.

3. Planning

Having completed the task, the students prepared either a written or oral report to present to the class. The instructor monitors the students.

4. Report

The teacher may provide written or oral feedback, as appropriate, and the students observing may do the same.

5. Analysis

The teacher reviewed what happened in the task, in regard to language. It may include: language form which is used by the students, the students' problems, and forms which need to be covered more or are not used enough.

6. Practice

Practicing may be used to cover material mentioned by the teacher in the analysis stage. It is the teacher's role to emphasize key points of language.

2.2.10 The Advantages of Task-based Learning

Task-based Learning is advantageous to the student because it is more student-centered, allows for more meaningful communication, and often provides for practical extra-linguistic skill building. As the tasks are likely to be familiar to the students (e.g.: visiting the doctor), students are more likely to be engaged, which may further motivate them in their language learning.

Additionally, tasks promote language acquisition through the types of language and interaction they require. Although the teacher may present language in the pre-task, the students are ultimately free to use what grammar construction and vocabulary they want. This allows them to use all the language they know and are learning, rather than just the 'target language' of the lesson. On the other hand, tasks can also be designed to make certain target forms 'task-essential,' thus making it communicatively necessary for students to practice using them. Learners who are used to a more traditional approach based on a grammatical syllabus may find it difficult to come to terms with the apparent randomness of Task-based Learning. But if it is integrated with a systematic approach to grammar and lexis, the outcome can be a comprehensive.

2.2.11 The Disadvantages of Task-based Learning

While task-based language learning is increasingly promoted world-wide and has the advantages described above, there are trade-offs and pitfalls to be considered in planning instruction around it. These include the risk that students will stay within the narrow confines of familiar words and forms, just "getting by", so as to avoid the extra effort and risks of error that accompany stretching to use new words and forms. As with all group work, in group tasks, some students can "hide" and rely on others to do the bulk of the work and learning.

A second challenge is that the new learning elicited by the task-based lesson, one of its benefits, may yet be lost if the lesson did not include sufficient planning for, or runs out of time for, that new learning to be captured and reinforced while it is

still fresh. The third challenge, one applying to many otherwise valuable language teaching methods, is the difficulty of implementing task-based teaching where classes are large and space limited and/or inflexible.