

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter discusses about the literature review that used in this research, such as: speaking (definition of speaking, components of speaking, functions of speaking), concept of teaching speaking, types of classroom speaking performance, concept of classroom interaction, negotiation of meaning in classroom interactions, the role of negotiation of meaning in second language acquisition, teaching media, concept of realia as the teaching aid, teaching speaking by using realia, procedure of teaching speaking by using realia, the advantages and disadvantages of realia in teaching speaking..

2.1 Concept of Speaking

2.1.1 Definition of Speaking

Speaking is a process of communication between at least two people. Speaking is a way to express someone's ideas to his or her interlocutor. Essentially, speaking is used as a means of communication among people in a society in order to keep the relationship going on well. Harris (1974) defines speaking as the encoding process whereby we communicate our ideas, thought, and feeling orally. In other word, we produce ideas, thought, and feeling that we want to share, influence, or interact with other people. So here, speaking situation involves a speaker who puts message with verbal

code (word or sentence) that has contents structure and a listener. Lado (1961) states that speaking is the ability to express oneself in life situation, or the ability to converse, or the ability to report acts or situation in precise words or the ability to express a sequence of idea fluently.

Furthermore, Byrne (1984) states that speaking or oral communication is a two way process between speaker and listener that involves productive and receptive skills and understanding. It means that speaking is a productive skill which the speaker produces or uses the language at the same time he tries to get idea or message across. In this case, there is a process of giving message or decoding process. Within a productive skill, the students need to learn words and phrases to express meaning in English. They also need to be able to produce basic structure correctly. Meanwhile, within receptive skills, the students need to understand words and structure in spoken and written form. Widdowson (1984:58) adds that communication through speaking is performed face to face interaction and occurs as part of a dialogue or other form of verbal exchange.

Actually, speaking activity happens for many reasons. One of the reasons is for a communicative need. For example a person speaking is driven by the fact that he/she needs to know a thing. Other reason is that a person speaking because he or she wants to find things out from other people. We can say that there is information gap between them. Here, the conversation helps to close this gap so that both speakers have the same information. So, speaking can also be said as one thing that makes people survive in their environment,

because through speaking they can ask other people what they need, through speaking they try to fulfill what other people ask them. Implicitly speaking is one of language skills that has social aspect.

In short, speaking is a way of communication with other people which involves not only producing correctly but also using language communicatively.

2.1.2 Components of Speaking

Welty states that (1976: 47) 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, they are:

1. Pronunciation

Pronunciation refers to the ability to produce easily comprehensible articulation. There are 3 basic of the main range of the teaching technique which can be involved to assist pupils in learning pronunciation. The first is exhortation. Exhortation is the instruction to imitate and mimic, to make such a sound, without further explanation. The second is speech training. It is the construction of special games and exercises which entail the use of word or sentence so as to practice particular sounds, sequences of sounds, stress-patterns, rhythm, and intonation. The third is practical phonetics which including description of the organ of speech, description of the articulation of sounds, description of stress, rhythm, and intonation.

2. Grammar

The study of how words and their component parts 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 that govern the composition of sentences, phrases, and words in any given natural language. Grammars refers it is a kind of regularity of sounds structure that nobody could learn language without grammar.

3. Vocabulary

Vocabulary means the appropriate diction which is used in communication. Vocabulary refers to the selection of words that suitable with content (Harris 1974: 68-69). 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 (conjunction)

A: I eat a bowl of meatball (preposition)

Your: What is your favorite food? (pronoun)

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

Noun

I: I love playing badminton

Book: My hobby is reading story book

Basketball: Basketball is Brahma's favorite sport

Verb

Play: Rudi is playing football with his brother

Go: Romi go to the fields to play football

Make: Mother makes a cup of coffee for my fathe

Adjective Good: Markus is a good singer

4. Fluency

Fluency is the smoothness of flow with which sounds, syllables, words, and phrases are joined together when speaking. It can be seen that

fluency as the maximal 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 the study how well students understand a language, or that helps them to improve their understanding of it, in which they read a piece of writing or listen to someone speaking, and then answer question. Beside that, comprehension is the ability to understand completely and be familiar with a situation, facts, etc. It refers to the ability of understanding the speakers' intension and general meaning.

2.1.3 Functions of Speaking

In speaking, there are numerous attempts that have been made to classify the functions of speaking in human interaction. Brown and Yule (1983) made a useful distinction between the interactional functions of speaking, in which it serves to establish and maintain social relation, and the transactional functions, which focus on the exchange of information.

There are three functions of speaking according to Brown and Yule (1983) in which each of the speech activity is quite distinct in terms of form and function, and each requires different teaching approach, as follow:

1. Speaking as Interaction

Speaking as interaction refers to what we normally mean by conversation and describes interaction that serves a primarily social function. When people meet, they exchange greeting, engage in small talk, recount recent

experience, and so on because they wish to be friendly and to establish a comfortable zone of interaction with others. The focus is more on the speakers and how they wish to present themselves to each other. Such exchange may be either casual or more formal, depending on circumstance and their nature.

Speaking as interaction is perhaps the most difficult skill to teach since interactional talk is very complex and subtle phenomenon that takes place under the control of unspoken rules.

2. Speaking as Transaction

Speaking as transaction refers to situation where the focus is on what is said or done. Making the message oneself understood clearly and accurately is the central focus, rather than the participants and how they interact socially each other. In such transaction, speaking is associated with other activities. For example, students may be engaged in hands-on activities (e.g., in English lesson) to explore concepts associated between speaking and other skills like listening, reading or writing. In this type of spoken language, students and teacher usually focus on meaning or on talking their way to understanding.

Speaking as transaction is more easily planned since current communicative materials are a rich resource of group activities, information gap, or role plays that can provide a source for practicing how to use talk for sharing and obtaining information.

3. Speaking as Performance

The third type of speaking that can be usefully distinguished has been called speaking as performance. This refers to public talk, that is, talk that transmits information before an audience, such as classroom presentation, public announcements, and speeches. Speaking as performance tends to be in the form of monologue rather than dialogue, often follows a recognizable format (e.g., a speech of welcome, telling the story, the presentation of chart), and it also closer to written language than conversational language.

In this research, the researcher used the third function of speaking ; speaking as performance with some modifications in the application. In order to see the negotiation of meaning of the students that could be seen in a conversation of two people (dialogue) not in a monologue.

2.2 Concept of Teaching Speaking

Teaching speaking is training students how to integrate skills to deliver oral “presentations” without articulation difficulties. The objective of the language teaching is the production of the speaker’s competence to communicate in the target language.

Rivers (1968) stated that teacher should give the students opportunities to practice speaking. If the students are able to practice the new speech habit throughout as the children do in his native language, the problem of speaking fluency of foreign language. When students lose their chance to speak, it will decrease their

motivation and interest in learning English. It means that when students getting enjoy in their study, the speaking class will walk better and create a fun English class.

According to Nunan (2003:54-56) there are five principles of teaching speaking:

- (1) Be aware of difference between second language and foreign language in learning context.
- (2) Give students chance to practice with both fluency and accuracy.
- (3) Provide opportunities for students to talk by using group work or pair work.
- (4) Plan speaking task that involve negotiation for meaning.
- (5) Design classroom activities that involve guidance and practice in both transactional and interaction speaking.

In teaching speaking teacher should know the types of spoken language that will make teaching activity easier. According to Nunan (2003) spoken language is drawn as such:

a. Monologues

In monologues, one speaker uses spoken language of any length of time, as in speeches, lectures, readings, news broadcaster, and the hearer must process long stretches of speech without interruptions-the stream of speech will go on whether or not the hearer comprehends. Monologues are divided into two kinds:

1. Planned usually manifest little redundancy and are therefore relatively difficult to comprehend.

2. Unplanned exhibits more redundancy, which makes for ease in comprehension, but the presence of more performance variables and other hesitations, can help or hinder comprehension.

b. Dialogues

Dialogues involve two or more speakers and can be exchanges that promote social relationship (interpersonal) and those for which the purpose is to convey propositional or factual information (transactional).

In teaching language, the teacher also needs to determine the focus of speaking skills in order to make the learning speaking in transactional form easier to be planned. In speaking there are some components to be considered. According to Harris (1974:84) there are five components they are, pronunciation, fluency, grammar, vocabulary and comprehension.

Meanwhile, in transactional speaking the components that can be reached according to Richards (1992:25) is that an issue that arises in practicing talk as transaction using different kinds of communicative tasks is the level of linguistic accuracy that students achieve when carrying out the tasks. Richards (1992) states that transactional speaking develops accuracy and fluency. We can see that if the students are able to deliver their mind accurately and fluently the comprehension will increase.

According to Richards (1992:34) further states that teaching speaking with transactional types can be arranged by determining the goal of speaking skill:

1. Mechanics (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary): Using the right words in the right order with the correct pronunciation

2. Functions (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.

2.3 Types of Classroom Speaking Performance

In speaking, there are some types of speaking performance. Brown (2001:35) provides types of classroom speaking performance, they are:

1. Imitative

Practicing an intonation contour or trying to pinpoint a certain vowel sounds is an example of imitative speaking. The imitation is carried out not for the purpose of meaningful interaction, but for focusing on some particular element of language form. Imitation of this kind is carried out not for the purpose of meaningful interaction, but for focusing on some particular element of language form.

2. Intensive

Intensive is the second type of speaking frequently employed in assessment context is the production of short stretches of oral language designed to demonstrate competence in a narrow band of grammatical, phrasal, lexical or phonological relationship.

3. Responsive

A good deal of students' 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. Such speech can be meaningful and authentic:

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 is an extended form of responsive language. Conversation, for example, that may have more negotiated nature to them than does responsive speech:

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 Dialogue

Interpersonal dialogue carries out more for maintaining social relationship than for the transition 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, ellipsis, sarcasm, and convert "agenda". For example:

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 Monologue

Finally, students at intermediate to advanced level are called on to give extended monologues in the forms of oral reports, summaries, or perhaps short speeches. In this, the register is more formal and deliberative. This monologue can be planned or impromptu.

In this case, the researcher used the fourth type of the speaking performance, that is transactional dialogue. The researcher used the fourth type of the speaking performance because it was proper with the type of activities in teaching speaking by using realia.

2.4 Concept of Classroom Interaction

Interaction is the collaborative exchange of thought, feeling, or ideas between two or more people, resulting in a reciprocal effect on each other. Theories of communicative competence emphasize the importance of interaction as human beings use language in various contexts to “negotiate” meaning or simply stated to get an idea of one person’s head into the head of another person (Brown, 2001).

Interaction is sometimes used in the favor of verbal interchange between teacher and pupils. Malamah and Thomas (1987) state that classroom interaction is as the establishment of rapport and a sense of community. Furthermore, Rivers (1987) finds that communication derived essentially from interaction. In the classroom the students achieve facilities in using a language when their attention is focused on conveying and receiving authentic message. This message contains interaction information to speaker and listener in a situation of importance to both, that is interaction.

Brower et al. in Babelan (2010) remark that teaching takes place when the teacher interacts with one or more learners. Chaudron (1998:10) states that the meaningfulness for learners of classroom events of any kinds whether thought of as interactive or not, will depend on the extent to which communication has been jointly constructed between the teacher and the learners. From that definition, it can be said that classroom interaction includes all of the classroom events, both verbal interaction and non-verbal interaction. The verbal interaction takes place because of the teacher and learners talk, while non-verbal interaction covers

gestures or facial expression by the teacher and learners when they communicate without using words

Interaction is a two-way communication between two people or more. Brown (1997) proposed that interaction is the collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings, or ideas between two or more people, resulting in a reciprocal effect on each other. Thus, interaction is an active process in which people try getting their meaning across to each other by imparting thoughts, feelings, or ideas. The interaction should be meaningful communication barrier. In a classroom interaction, therefore, it is important that meaningful communication should be created and fostered.

Interaction in language learning refers to the condition in which students achieve in using language. When their attention is focused on conveying and receiving authentic message, that is, message that contains information of interest to speaker and listener in a situation of importance (Rivers:1987). In addition, Rivers (1987:4-5) states through interaction students could increase their language as they listen to or read authentic linguistic material or even the output of the fellow students in discussion, problem solving tasks or dialogues journals. In interaction, students can use all of their possession of the language-all they have learned or casually absorbed-in real life exchanges. Interaction involves not only expression of one's own ideas but also comprehensions. One listens to other, one responds (either directly or indirectly), other listen and respond. Interaction in language classroom will lead the learners to a better learning, and will activate their competence (Malamah-Thomas, 1987:45). As the students' interest is aroused,

their anxiety, fear or even fatigue in the classroom will gradually diminish; if not completely disappear, and as a result they will actively involved in the classroom interaction.

Wagner in Yufrizal (2008) states that foreign language acquisition occurs especially when learners are engaged in the use of the language for communication. Pica et al. in Yufrizal (2008) states that, language is best learnt and taught through interaction. In this view, interaction is treated as one of the most important aspects that influence the success or failure in foreign language learning.

According to Wheeler in Ponda (1998: 7), interaction involves not just expression of one's own ideas but also comprehension. When speaker A says something to speaker B, he expects some kinds of reaction (not necessarily in word: he might get gesture, a facial expression or semi-verbal sound like "Mm"). In short, the diversity in interaction involves not only verbal communication but also paralinguistic elements such as pitch, stress and intonation.

Classroom interaction in the teaching-learning activity includes mime, request for clarification and confirmation check (Rivers, 1987). Mime means that the learner uses non-verbal interaction in place of lexical item or action, for instance, clapping, nodding or waving. Thus mime is language learner's interaction to substitute words or to make conversation clear (Chaika, 1982), for example, students a says, "*They congratulated for her birthday and shook hand with Rita*"(shaking hand).

Clarification request comprises all expressions designed to elicit clarification

of the preceding utterance and consists of WH-question, yes/no, un-inverted intonation and tag-question as well as statement such as "*I don't understand*" or "*Try again*" (Pica and Doughty, 1980). For example student A says, "*The time is up*" Student B responds, "*What? Repeat please.*" Hence, request for clarification is a language learner interaction when a learner wants to elicit clarification with WH-question, yes/no and tag-question. In addition, misunderstandings or request for clarification often occur in the course of verbal communication. It may not always be entirely clear to the addressee what the addresser's intentions are (Malamah, 1987).

Confirmation check is the simplest way of seeking confirmation by repeating the words or phrase. This consists of elicitation immediately following the previous speaker's utterances to confirm that the utterance has been understood or heard correctly. They are characterized by repetition with rising intonation of all parts speaker's preceding utterances (Pica and Doughty, 1980). For example student A says, "*When Anthony left the town?*" Student B responds, "*Anthony left the town? Anthony left the town this morning*". Accordingly, confirmation check is the language learner interaction, when the learner repeats the previous speaker's utterances with rising intonation to look for confirmation.

In line with the statements previously presented, it can be inferred that the interaction implies both reception and expression of message. Interaction takes place when interest is presented. Where there is no interest, communication of personal messages does not take place. To promote interaction in another language, the teacher, therefore, must maintain a lively attention and active

participation among students in the classroom (Rivers, 1987).

2.5 Negotiation of Meaning in Classroom Interaction

In human interaction, meanings are not simply transferred from one person to another but “negotiated”. Negotiation is the principal way that people redefine an old relationship that is not working to their satisfaction or establish a new relationship where none existed before. Because negotiation is such a common with problem-solving process, it is in everyone’s interest to become familiar negotiating dynamics and skills. If learners say something that their interlocutors do not understand, after negotiation the interlocutors may model the correct language form. In doing this, grammars can receive feedback on their production and on grammar that they have not yet mastered. The process of interaction may also results in learners. Receiving more input from their interlocutors then they would otherwise. Furthermore, if learners talk to clarify things that they do not understand, they may have more time to process the input they receive. This leads to better understanding and possibly the acquisition of new language form. Finally, interaction may serve as an away of focusing learners’ attention on difference between their knowledge of hearing; it may also focus their attention on a part on the target language of which they are not yet aware.

According to Pica in Yufrizal (2001: 94), negotiation of meaning is a series of exchanges conducted by addressers and addressees to help themselves

understand and be understood by their interlocutors. In this case, when the speakers are involved in an interaction, both of them work together to solve any potential misunderstanding that might happen, by checking each others' comprehension, requesting clarification and confirmation, and by repairing and adjusting speech.

During communicative exchanges in which addressees have difficulty understanding and addressors sense this difficulty, addressors can restructure the conversation in order to make their input comprehensible to addressees and thus allow the conversation to continue. In this restructuring, addressors can, for example, pause and question addressees as to whether they understand, or sensing confusion on the addressees' parts, addressors can simply repeat themselves verbatim or in a paraphrase. These same restructuring techniques can be used following utterance of the addressees. Such modifications will give the interlocutors more opportunities to negotiate for message meaning and allow addressees more time to process message content and thus sort out of the confusions it triggered. Addressees can restructure the conversation through requests to addressors for clarification or through utterances seeking to confirm whether what they hear is actually what have been said.

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). For example:

Students A: And I need very energetic people that uh...can what it can...

Student B: Can attract.

2. Signals

Gass and Varonis (1985) define signal as an indicator from a listener that understanding is not complete. This indication is triggered by a 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: 1985).

Signals are divided into confirmation check and clarification request. The detail explanation is discussed below.

a. Confirmation Check

It is defined as listener's inquiry as to whether or not their expressed understanding of the speaker's previous is correct. It could occur in the three ways:

- a) The interlocutor repeats all of parts of the speaker utterance. It is called confirmation check through repetition, e.g.:

Student A: Café it's too in South Street

Student B: South Street?

Student A: Next to grocers

- b) The interlocutor corrects or complete what the previous speaker has said, e.g.:

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

Student B: To trap?

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

- c) 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, e.g.:

*Student A: She sees 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 smiles 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 clarification request refers to an indicator that shows the listener has totally not understood what the speaker said, e.g.:

*A: She is Rihanna. Hair style Rihanna curly uh.... Her colour is black eh....little bit red. Eyes.... Big
B: Beg pardon?
A: Eyes are big. Lipstick's colour is red.*

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 are 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 five categories of responses. They are self-repetition response, other-repetition response, self modification, other-modification response, and confirm or negate response.

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). For example:

Student A: Now I in pub.

Student B: What... pub?

Student A: Pub

b. Other-Repetition Response

In this category, the speaker repeats what the listener says in the signal (Pica: 1989). Therefore, it is called other-repetition. In the speaker's response to the signal, we can see that the speaker has changed his/her 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, the speaker in this case has produced modified output, e.g.:

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

Student B: Like usual suit

Student A: Yes, usual suit

c. Self-Modification Response

In this category, the speaker modifies the trigger as a response to the listener's signal of negotiation of meaning. In 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, e.g.:

Student A: And then uh....

I think this picture tell us about 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, e.g.:

Student A: Uh...uh...what she has 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, e.g.:

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

Student B: His hair...

Student A: Yes.

4. Follow-Up

It refers to information about whether the communication modifications have been successful or not. In a long negotiation of meaning interlocutors usually repeat the signal-response exchange until an agreement is achieved, e.g.:

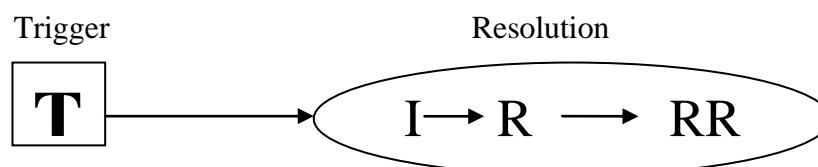
Student A: On the top of cooker

Student B: Pardon?

Student A: On the top of the cooker

Student B: Yes, on the top of the cooker

Varonis and Gass in Yufrizal (2001: 96) propose a simpler model for the exchanges that create negotiation of meaning. The model is elaborated into the following figure:



The model contains two components: the trigger component (T) and the resolution component. The resolution contains three elements: indicator (I, response (R) and reaction to response (RR). A trigger is defined as an utterance or portion of utterance on the part of the speaker, which results in some indication of non-understanding on the part of the hearer. The model suggests that from the trigger the hearer can indicate non-understanding (the indicator = I) which can be responded to (R) by the speaker in various ways. Reactions to response (RR) can be produced by either the speaker or the hearer.

Table 1. Specification of Components in Negotiation of Meaning by Pica

No	Component	Sub Components
1	Trigger invokes or stimulates incomplete understanding on the part of the hearer.	-
2	Signal is the hearer's signal of incomplete understanding.	Confirmation Check through Repetition (CCR) Confirmation Check through Modification (CCM) Confirmation Check through Completion (CCC) Clarification of Request (CR)
3	Response is the original speaker's attempt to clear up unaccented input.	Response Self- Repetition (RSP) Response Other - Repetition (ROP) Response Self – Modification (RSM) Response Other – Modification (ROM) Confirm or Negate Response (RN)
4	Follow Up is an element that signals either the hearer's acceptance or continued difficulty with the speaker's repair.	-

Example:

Student A : *I'm living in Osaka*
Student B : *Osaka*
Student A : *Yeah Osaka, Osaka*
Student B : *What do you mean?*
Student A : *Osaka (Japanese Word)*
Student B : *Oh*
Student A : *I'm not really mean Osaka city. It's near city.*
Student B : *Near city?*

(Adapted from Pica and Doughty in Yufrizal, 2001:97)

2.6 The Role of Negotiation of Meaning in Second Language Acquisition

According Yufrizal (2008), differences in definitions and description of negotiation of meaning from one researcher to another show that interest in the study negotiation of meaning has developed rapidly. Pica (1996) admits that although there has been no empirical evidence of a direct link between negotiation of meaning and second/foreign language development, research studies in negotiation 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 interactions involving native speaker) nonnative speakers obtain comprehensible input necessary for second language acquisition much more frequently than in interactions without negotiation of meaning. Secondly, negotiation of meaning provides opportunities for nonnative speakers to produce comprehensible output necessary for second language acquisition much more frequently than in interactions without negotiation of meaning. Another important role of negotiation of meaning which may not have a direct impact in second language acquisition but is also an important element for second language acquisition

through communication is that negotiation of meaning can function as an indication of pursuit of communication.

2.7 Teaching Media

Media would help establish the condition for the learners to identify/ describe someone or something. There are some experts giving their opinions dealing with media.

1. Gerlach and Ely

Media is any person, material, or event that establishes condition which enable the learners to acquire knowledge, skills, and attitude (1980:241).

2. Hamalik

Media are used to motivate students in learning (1989:18).

3. Brown

Tools or the physical things are used by the teacher to facilitate the instruction (1997:2).

From the definition above, it can be concluded that the use of media is significant as it would help the students in understanding and learning a particular lesson. For instance, if we want to explain about animal, media like dolls, realia, pictures, and so forth might help the students in visualizing the shape of those animals easily.

There are various kinds of media we can find. According to Gerlach and Ely (1980:297) the media to teach are classified in the six general categories, such as:

(1) Picture

Picture consists of photographs or any object or events, which may be larger or smaller than the object or event it represents.

(2) Audio recording

Recording is made on magnetic tape, disc, motion picture, and soundtrack. There are reproductions of actual event or soundtrack.

(3) Motion Picture

A motion picture is a moving image in color or black and white produced from live action or from graphic representation.

(4) TV

This category includes all types of Audio Video Electronic distribution system which eventually appear on TV monitor.

(5) Real things, simulation, and model includes people, events, objects, and demonstration real things as constructed with other media, are not substituted for the actual object or events.

Sadjiman *et al* (2003) argues that the instructional media for teaching learning process in Indonesia can be classified into five categories as:

(1) Games and Simulation; e.g. words, people, and role playing

(2) Visual media

Media that can be seen and its function is distributing the message from the sources to the receiver. The example of visual media are pictures/photo, sketch, diagram, chart, cartoon, map, globe, flannel board.

(3) Audio media

Audio media is a media that is useful because of its sounds. The examples of audio media are radio, tape, or Compact Disk.

(4) Audio-Visual media

It is a useful media because of its sounds and pictures. TV, Video, Computer, DVD, and so forth are the example of this kind of media.

(5) Still projected media

Slides, film strip, OHP, opaque projector, micro film, film are the model of still projected media.

From the categories given by Gerlach & Ely and Sadiman, there are many kinds of media that can be used by a teacher in explaining the material. Therefore, it must be borne in mind that to select the appropriate media, the teacher must consider the characteristics of the students which directly relate to the learning process (Gerlach & Ely, 1980:254). In other words, a teacher should also take a look at to the characteristics of the students in deciding what the most appropriate media are.

Therefore, Brown (1997:76) states six principles of media selection, which are summarized as follows:

(1) Content

Does the medium have significant relation with the lesson?

(2) Purpose

The media should contribute to the teaching-learning process. It should also able to facilitate the teaching-learning process.

(3) Price

The teacher should consider that the cost spent is in accordance with the educational result derived from its use.

(4) Circumstances

The teacher should take into account the environment (school) where she/he teaches.

(5) Learner's verification

The teacher should think that the aid has been tested to certain students. He/she should consider if the tested students are similar to the students whom he/she teaches.

(6) Validation

The teacher must think whether there are data providing that students learnt accurately through the use of the aid.

Based on the explanation above, it can be concluded that in deciding the media used, besides knowing the characteristics of the students, the teacher should pay attention to several principles in choosing it to make a better result of teaching. Furthermore, in this research, the researcher chooses realia as the teaching media. Realia means using real items found in everyday life as an aid to teaching English.

There are some reasons to choose realia as the teaching media:

- a. Realia (real thing) represents the actual conditions with which the learner will live.
- b. Realia helps to make English lessons memorable by creating a link between the objects and the word or phrase they represent.
- c. Realia makes lesson more interesting and enjoyable.

2.8 Concept of Realia as the Teaching Aid

Teaching aid is very important in teaching learning process because by using it, the process of teaching learning can be conducted and run effectively. Teaching aid, as its name suggests, is a kind of aids which support the teaching and learning activities of teachers and students. In short, teaching aids are the useful materials and equipments which help create motivation for teaching and learning environment. Teaching aids can be divided into three subgroups as follows: (1) visual aids (2) audio aids, and (3) audio-visual aids

a. Visual aids

Visual aids are anything visible to learners, which the teacher uses for different teaching purposes in the class. It is very useful for proving, explaining, or holding interest. Visual aids allow the students to become involved with their eyes as well. Using visual aids is obviously beneficial for language teaching and learning, it is helpful for teaching speaking as well. It is important for learners to have plenty of contextualized examples in making spoken form and to understand them. Visual aids can also contribute to the students understanding. It is undeniable that the teacher can present the material more easily, and visual aids can also help provide such contexts and situations. There are so many visuals aids that usually used in teaching learning, such as models, maps, object themselves (realia), movies, slide projection, pictures, and even the blackboard.

b. Audio aids

Audio aid can be defined as models and devices that can be heard, about the benefits of using audio aids in language classroom. On the one hand, this type of aid enables the teacher to modify the teaching method and technique, and change the classroom situation quickly and immediately as necessary: and on the other, it attracts the student's attention. Stirs their imagination, reduces their exhaustion, motivates them to be engaged in the learning process, and thus helps them to acquire expected proficiency in the language skills especially listening and speaking. With the help of audio aids, the students discussed, the teachers can successfully deal with the weak and indifferent students as these aids are seen to reduce the teacher talk and the chalk method, hence, reversely increase the student's interaction and active participation. Also, by using audio tapes, the teacher can provide as much practice as necessary. Audio aids may include recorded materials, radios, cassette players, cassettes.

c. Audio-Visual aids

Audio-visual aids are tools of record to improve speaking skill that are use for several times and more than others. These things have been employed for many years in the classroom. Audio-visual aids dealing with what is heard and seen: music, drums, radio. Tape recorder, projectors, DVD, and any sound effect that can be heard and any film that can be seen.

Since audio and audio-visual aids are difficult and also limited to be provided in some schools, visual aids become the best chosen as teaching aids in order to help the teacher in conducting the teaching learning process.

In this research, the researcher used one kind of visual aid in teaching learning process. Realia meant using real items found in everyday life as an aid to teach English. Using realia helped to make English lessons memorable by creating a link between the objects and the word or phrase they represented.

2.9 Teaching Speaking by Using Realia

Media are often neglected in a very predictable way in the classroom, usually as a starting point for teaching speaking, thus they can also be a key of importance in the communicative and interactive classrooms.

In the TEFL classroom, realia is defined as objects and teaching props from the world outside the classroom that are used for teaching and learning (Nunan, 1999). Under this statement, realia is considered as real objects which are used to aid in practicing a new language, as a way to present meaningful examples from the real world. Using realia helps to make English lessons memorable by creating a link between the objects and the word or phrase they represent. Realia are physical objects that are related to the target culture. Realia refers to objects or items from real life, which is used in the classroom to illustrate and teach vocabulary or to serve as an aid to facilitate language acquisition and production. Realia are objects from real life used in classroom instruction by educators to improve students understanding of other cultures and real life situations.

Realia(real things) represent the actual conditions with where the learners live. As such, realia should be used whenever possible if real things are unavailable. The task is to locate them and put them to use in helping students learn. Examples of realia are: insects; coins; rocks; plants; pets; and stamps.

Ralia is actual objects and items which are brought into a classroom as examples or as aids to be talked or written about and used in language teaching such as: articles of clothing, kitchen utensils, items of food, etc (Richards, 1992). Anything has a purpose of the ESL classroom and can be brought into the classroom (Robertson, 1995). Everyday objects that surround us by relating them to language and looking at them in new ways.

The unexpectedness of having to suddenly interact with real objects will keep students on their toes; it will create excitement, and they'll have fun. Students have the chance to practice real life situations like using maps and asking for directions in a foreign language, but with the guidance of someone who speaks fluently and will help them get it right. Once they hit the street, they will feel more confident in speaking the language with the locals. Students will clearly understand the reason they're learning a particular ESL component. Instead of wondering when and where they might have use for a particular language element, they will know the reason.

A lot of activities using realia can be brought to the class. The teacher can ask the students to enjoy role-playing and playing games. Making up simple stories using

toy animals or puppets can make the students enjoy their English lessons, and be motivated to learn.

2.10 Procedure of Teaching Speaking by Using Realia

According to Nunan (1997), the procedure of teaching speaking by using realia might be divided into some phases generally:

1. Selection of Suitable Material

As it is obvious from the realia categorization, there is a wide choice of materials the teacher can use. While choosing a suitable realia, the teacher has to consider the following criteria: appropriate English level of the students (especially realia's shape and knowledge about English as a foreign language), students' needs (type of course) and age of the students.

2. Preparation by The Teacher

The preparation phase might be time consuming for the teacher. First, the teacher explores concrete source, collect appropriate realia and sorts them out. More concretely, the teacher chooses the realia that will be used in a speaking class based on the lesson plan. As well as their language counterparts, activities by using realia also have to be planned. The planning procedure is included in the preparation phase and consists mainly of timing, consideration the methods, work organization and aims which should be achieved.

3. Introduction of The Material to The Students

In the lesson plan the teacher introduces the realia activity, main topic and realia type and clarifies the aims of the activity.

4. Activity Procedure

The activity procedure might be divided into two sequences. First is the explanation of the activity and giving instructions to the students how to proceed. Second is the activity itself, when the teacher is observing the class, coordinates the procedure and assists the students if needed.

5. Summary, Conclusion

In the last phase the teacher tests the student's speaking, reviews the student's task and gives feedback to the students in the end. Overall conclusion is important because the students realize what aims they have achieved and what they have learned from the activity.

2.11 Advantages and Disadvantages of Realia in Teaching Speaking

According to Jones (1994), using realia in teaching learning activity has some advantages and disadvantages.

2.11.1 Advantages of Realia in Teaching Speaking

1. Experience with real things with which one will interact in life is the best learning situation possible.
2. Real objects are plentiful and available everywhere.
3. Real items can be observed and handled, providing concrete learning experiences for the student.
4. Dealing with realia motivates the learner.
5. Realia can be used as part of the evaluation system.
6. Realia learning can be extended through the use of displays.

2.11.2 Disadvantages of Realia in Teaching Speaking

Beside gives positive effect in teaching-learning process, realia also has some disadvantages (Jones, 1994). Realia is not always practical for use in the classroom;

- a. Size of a real object may be too large (a submarine) or too small (a single human cell) for classroom study.
- b. Potential hazards: realia such as live animals, certain electrical and mechanical equipment, etc., can represent potential hazards for the learner and the teacher.
- c. Cost: real objects often are expensive.
- d. Need to maintain original structure: while some realia can be dismantled, many others cannot be, e.g., cutting open a person to see how the heart functions.
- e. Affective learning is unpredictable through realia.
- f. If left sitting around the classroom, realia can be a distraction.
- g. Storage and retrieval can create some problems.