2.1 Concept of Speaking

According to Byrne (1984: 8), speaking is oral communication. It is a two-way process between speaker and listener and involves productive and receptive skills of understanding. Therefore, in the process of speaking there must be at least two peoples i.e. one is the speaker who gives information and the other is the listener who receives information.

Sister (2004: 7) also states that 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. So, the situation of student’s emotion affects their quality of speaking, whether it is fluency or structure. The main goal of speaking is to communicate. So, to deliver the idea effectively the speaker has to understand the meaning of all things that will be delivered; she/he has to evaluate the effect of communication toward the listener; and she/he has to understand the principle that becomes the basis of communication.
Furthermore, Chaney (1998: 13) defines speaking as a process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbol, in a variety of contexts. Speaking can take place if the speaker uses verbal symbols like words and sentences and non-verbal symbols like gestures or signs to convey meaning.

Meanwhile, Lado (1961: 240) describes speaking as the ability to express oneself in life situation, or the ability to report acts or situations in precise words, or the ability to converse, or to express a sequence of ideas fluently. This idea means that speaking emphasizes more to the ability of an individual to convey something whether it is in the form of expression, report, etc with the language he has.

From the definition above, it can be inferred that speaking is a matter of expressing ideas, opinions, or feelings to others. Besides, speaking is a process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols in a variety of context that involves producing, receiving, and processing information.

2.2 Types of Classroom Speaking Performance

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

1. Imitative

A very limited portion of classroom speaking time may legitimately be spent by generating ”human tape-recorder” speech, where for example, learner practice an
intonation contour or try to pinpoint a certain vowel sound. Imitation of this kind is carried out not for the purpose of meaningful interaction, but for focusing on some particular element of language form.

2. Intensive

Intensive speaking goes one-step beyond imitative to include any speaking performance that is designed to practice some phonological or grammatical aspect of language. Intensive speaking can be self-initiated or it can even form part of some pair work activity, where learners are “going over” certain forms of language.

3. Responsive

A good dealt of student speech in the group work 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 today?”
S: “Pretty good, thanks, and you?”
T: “What is the main idea of this essay?”
S: “The United Nations should have more authority.”
T: “So, what did you write for question number one?”
S: “Well, I was not sure, so I left it blank.”
4. Transactional Dialogue

Transactional dialogue, which is carried out for the purposes of conveying or exchanging specific information is an extended form of responsive language. Conversation, for example, may have more of a negotiate nature to them than does responsive speech e.g.:

T: “What is the main idea of this essay?”

S: “The United States 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 a 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 is carried out more for maintaining social relationships than for the transmissions of facts and information. The conversations are a little trickier for learners because they can involve some or all of the following factors:

A casual register
Colloquial language
Emotionally charged language

Slang
Ellipsis
Sarcasm
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 critics, but I’m pretty miffed about last week.”

Amy : “What are you talking about?”

Bob : “I think you know perfectly well what I am talking about.”

Amy : “Oh, that….how come you get so bent out of shape over something like that?”

Bob : “Well, whose fault was it, huh?”

Amy : “Oh, wow, this is great, wonderful. Back to square one. For crying out loud, bob, 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.

Based on the explanation above, it can be inferred that the type of speaking in information gap and role play are classified into fourth and fifth types of the speaking performance, i.e. transactional and interpersonal dialogue. The students make
conversation with their own dialogue (transactional or interpersonal dialogue) in the group work base on the task that given by the teacher.

2.3 Concept of Teaching Speaking

Speaking is the way for students to express their emotions, communicative needs, to interact and to influence other persons in any situation. For this reason, in teaching speaking skill, it is necessary to have clear understanding involved in speech.

Teaching speaking means teaching how to use language for communication, for transferring ideas, thought or even feeling to other people. The goal of teaching speaking skills is to make the students communicate efficiently (Burnkart. 1998: 2). Learners should be able to make themselves understood, using their current proficiency to the fullest. They should try to avoid confusion in the message due to faulty pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary and to observe the social and cultural rules applied in each communication situation.

In teaching speaking teacher should know the types of spoken language that will make teaching activity easier. According to Nunan (1991: 20-21), spoken language is drawn as such:

Monologues : 1. Planned
               2. Unplanned

Dialogue : 1. Interpersonal: familiar and unfamiliar
               2. Transactional: familiar and unfamiliar
In monologues when one speaker uses spoken language for 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; i.e. planed and unplanned.

Planned usually manifest little redundancy and are therefore relatively difficult to comprehend. Unplanned exhibit more redundancy, which makes for ease in comprehension, but the presence of more performance variables and other hesitations, can help or hinder comprehension.

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

In teaching language, it is also needed to determine the focus of speaking skill in order to make the learning speaking in transactional form easier to be planned. In speaking, there are some aspects to be considered. According to Haris (1974: 84) there are five components of speaking, they are pronunciation, fluency, grammar, vocabulary and comprehension. Meanwhile in transactional speaking, the components that can be reached according to Richards (1990) that an issue that arises in practicing talk as transaction using different kinds of communicative tasks is accuracy. Furthermore, Higgs and Clifford (1990) state that transactional speaking
develops accuracy and fluency. If the students are able to deliver their mind accurately and fluently the comprehension will increase.

According to Richards (1990), 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.

From the explanation above, the researcher taught speaking as a dialogue (interpersonal and transactional dialogue) in group work to encourage students to express their emotions, communicative needs, interact and influence to other persons in any situation. The researcher also concerned to make the students mastered in five components of speaking: pronunciation, fluency, grammar, vocabulary and comprehension by giving the students chance to more active and more practice in their group work.
2.4 Tasks in Group Work

In learning process, one way to make the students comfortable is by grouping them. Pica and Doughty (1985) suggest that students talk more in their groups than when talking with their teacher. Besides that, group work may improve the quality of talk. It provides face-to-face natural communication. It has also cohesive and coherent utterances, all members take equal roles in the interactions, and it produces a variety of utterances and expressions. Therefore, it is recommended to use pair or group work in teaching speaking. Nation (1989: 28) states there are many kinds of tasks that can be used in group work.

The most suitable tasks for combining arrangement of group work include:

1. Completing, e.g. completing a picture by exchanging information, completing a story by pooling ideas.

2. Providing directions, e.g. describing a picture for someone to draw, telling someone how to make something.

3. Matching, classifying, distinguishing e.g. deciding if one’s partner’s drawing is the same as his, arranging pictures in the same order as his partner’s unseen pictures.

4. Ordering, e.g. putting the sentences or pictures of story in order.

5. Discussion: learners work in pair or group to give his/her ideas based on the topic given.

6. Role play: The students are asked to imagine that they are in different situation and act accordingly.
7. Surveys: one way of provoking conversation and opinion exchange is to get students to conduct questionnaires and surveys.

8. Information gap: Where two speakers have different parts of information making up whole. Because they have different information, there is a gap between them, one popular information gap activity is called “describe and draw”. In this activity one student has picture which he/she must not show his/her partner. All the partner has to do is drawing the picture without looking at the original.

All of the tasks mentioned above are usually used in pair work or group work. However, the tasks should be used based on the student’s level, whether it is intermediate, advanced, or high level because teachers should give the task appropriate with the ability of the students. Role play and information gap were chosen as the tasks and they will be explained in more detail below.

2.5 Concept of Information Gap

Information Gap is the activity in which the students are given different information. By sharing the separate information they can complete a task. The students can be put in pairs or groups. Each student has different information, so in order to get information he wants to know he must ask his partner.
William (1987: 17) states that there are some activities the teacher might do to encourage the students’ speaking, namely:

1. To give reason for students to speak.
2. To improve motivation.
3. To create a context which support learning.
4. To give natural learning.
5. To provide task practice.

Types of activities which are based on Information Gap are:

1. Discovering identical pairs
   
   Four pictures are distributed among four students and the fifth student holds a duplicate of one of the picture. He must ask the others to discover which student has the same picture as his.

2. Finding the differences
   
   The students are distributed pictures which look the same but actually they are different. The students have to find the differences.

3. Completing drawing
   
   One student has a complete drawing and the other has incomplete one.

4. Finding missing information
   
   Two students have the same text but each student has missing information, the two students have different missing information. Student A has the information needed by student B and vice versa. So, the student should communicate in order to know the information.
5. Completing the crossword

Two students have the same crossword in which some of the boxes are blank. Student A should ask student B and student B should ask student A in order to get the words he needs. When student A or student B wants to give the words, he should explain them. It is forbidden to say the words. In this activity the students use their own sentences in explaining the words.

In this study, the researcher used the first type of activities in information gap, discovering identical pair. The teacher distributed four pictures to each group, one of which picture was the same as one of the three pictures duplicated. The students in the group should make a dialogue to each member and explain their picture to find out who held the same picture in their group.

2.6 Teaching Speaking in Group Work through Information Gap Task

Long and Porter (1985) say that group work provides the learners with a conductive climate to participate in a conversation. In group work, particularly when all members are familiar each other, the students do not feel inhibited to talk because it provides a relatively unthreatening and intimate climate. They tend to be at ease to talk, and they are not afraid of making language errors.
According to Brown (2001) there are some steps in teaching speaking by using Information Gap. The principles are as follows:

1. Decide on the teaching materials

The teacher must decide which teaching materials will be used for Information Gap activities. The teaching materials can be taken from textbooks of senior high school in the second grade. The material is selected ahead of time by the teacher. The teacher can also create his/her own authentic teaching materials for Information Gap activities. The teaching materials should be decided based on students’ level and interests, teaching objectives and appropriateness for teaching.

2. Select situations and create dialogues

Then a situation should be selected. For every situation, dialogs should be provided (by the teaching materials/teacher) or created by the students themselves.

3. Teach the dialogues for Information Gap

The teacher needs to teach vocabulary, sentences, and dialogues necessary for the situations. The teacher needs to make sure that the students know how to use vocabulary, sentences, and dialogues prior to doing the Information Gap activities. Otherwise, the teacher should allow the students to ask how to say the words they want to say.

4. Have students practice the Information Gap

Students can practice to make conversation in group work. After they have played their own parts a few times, they, then, exchange roles. By doing this,
the students can play different roles and practice all of the lines in the
Information Gap. When the students are confident enough to demonstrate or
perform in front of the class, the teacher can ask them to do so for their
classmates.

5. Have students modify the situations and dialogues

Once students have finished and become familiar with an original situation,
they can modify the situations or dialogues to create a variation of the original
Information Gap.

6. Evaluate and check students’ comprehension

Finally, the teacher has to evaluate the effectiveness of the Information Gap
activities and check if the students have successfully comprehended the
meaning of the vocabulary, sentences and dialogues. There are several ways
to do student evaluations. Students can be given oral and listening tests related
to the Information Gap. The example of oral tests can include the following.

1. Students are asked to answer some simple questions related to the pictures.

2. Students are asked to re-enact the Information Gap.

3. Students are asked to translate the pictures into their native language.

In brief, it is better for the teacher to teach speaking through Information Gap
technique based on the procedure above. So, it helps the teacher and the students to
understand what is going to do in the class by using Information Gap.
2.7 Procedures of Applying Information Gap in the Class

In line with the principles according to Brown (2001), the researcher modifies the procedure of teaching speaking through Information Gap in the class as follows:

Pre activity; the teacher

1. greets the students.
2. checks the students’ attendance list.
3. shows the picture and leads in question related to the theme.
   a. What is the picture about?
   b. What do you think of………?

While activity; the teacher

4. gives the example of expression of asking and giving opinion.
5. tells them a picture related to opinion.
6. discusses the vocabulary and language feature related to the theme.
7. divides the students into groups.
8. distributes picture cards to each group.
9. gives the students a few minutes to speak with the others and work out their dialogues from the picture.
10. moves from one group to another and helps the students, for example, in dealing with difficult about vocabulary and expression.
11. asks the students to perform their parts in front of the class.
12. makes the situation conducive to make the play run smoothly and ask the students to make a note about misspelling pronunciation and wherever possible wrong grammar or difficult vocabulary that student need.

Post activity; the teacher

13. asks the students’ difficulty related to the lesson.

14. delivers the summarization of the lesson.

15. closes the meeting.

By applying this procedure, the researcher expected that the student would learn speaking easily in group work and used information gap as the task.

2.8 Concept of Role Play

Role play is a type of drama activities. Harmer (1983) states that role play activities are those where the students are asked to imagine that they are in different situation and act accordingly. Moreover, Welty (1976: 54) said that role play is a type of creative drama in which the players take on the characteristics and problem of members of group other than themselves.

Pauslton and Burder (1976: 70) say that role-play is exercises where the students are assigned fiction roles from which they have to improvise some kinds of behavior toward the other roles in the exercise. Sharon Illiles (1988: 68) states that role play is dramatization of real life situation in which the students assume roles. Here, the
ability to choose role play scenes exposes students to the types of situation they likely to encounter inside or outside the classroom. Considering the explanation above, the writer implies that the students will face with real communication situation in a second language, they have a real need for the communication practice they are receiving in the class.

Gillian Porter Ladousse (1995: 5) illustrates that when students assume a “Role”, they play a part (either their own or somebody else’s) in specific situation. Play means that it is taken on in safe environment in which students are as inventive and playful as possible.

From some definitions above, the researcher point out that Role play is an activity where the teacher gives roles to the students and asks them to act the roles orally based on the particular ideas, situations, and attitudes. And also, the students have to behave and speak in some ways as the role task.

2.9 Teaching Speaking in Group Work through Role Play Task

Pica (1980) says that students engage in more negotiation for meaning in group than in teacher-fronted, whole class setting. In group work, learners negotiate more with other learners who are at different level of second or foreign language proficiency. Group work can be successful if the teacher plans it well. Besides that, tasks are important in making success of group work. Role play seems to be one of appropriate tasks to use in group work.
Role play can make the students speak constantly. Students pretend they are in various social contexts and have a variety of social roles. In role play activities, the teacher gives information to the learners such as who they are and what they think or feel. It is hoped that what the students gain from role play is that they can play action because they have to struggle to say what they mean and they pretend to mean what they say. It is widely agreed that learning takes place when activities are engaging and memorable.

According to Alan (1971), there are some general procedures in teaching speaking through role-play:

1. Language input. This will often mean the presentation and practice stages in teaching of a language item, which is now to be practiced stages within a freer framework. It may also mean that the pre teaching of the vocabulary and other language is considered useful for the context of the role-play. This pre teaching may occur after context of the role has been set.

2. Setting of the context. This should be done to help the students fully appreciate the situation. Visualization can help this more effective, for example a troublesome boy with a knife in the schools role-play provide vital contextual information.

3. Allocation of roles. The teacher should decide this. Otherwise, if the vice is throwing open to volunteers, the extrovert will always get the best roles and the introvert will not have enough change to show up.
4. Statement of the aim(s). This is vital because it gives the students a concrete result to aim for, in the role to play those provide motivation and preset the activity. It also provides a clean-cut result to discuss in the report back phase.

5. Familiarization with the role. This can take the form of reading role cards in the students’ discussion.

6. Demonstration. This optimal phase is generally not applicable to a role-play. However, although the students are unfamiliar with it, it remain useful. It is advisable to choose the best students for this, as they can provide a good model.

7. Role-play and achievement of aim(s). One point to note here is that some groups finish significantly earlier than the others do. The teacher should prepare one or two ideas for an activity, which can keep them occupied, while they wait. This should ideally be in the form of an extension of role-play, for example, writing up final decision.

8. Report work. This will concern how the different group reaches its aim(s), for example what decision each group make, etc. This is an important phase because the students are usually interested in comparing their decision with those of the other groups. It also gives the students opportunities to talk about the problem they have in the group work.

9. Follow up. This can have two forms, firstly, written work based on role-play, perhaps set for homework, and secondly, remedial work based on mistakes noted by the teacher while monitoring the students’ performance.
By following the procedure above, the teaching and learning process will run smoothly and the students follow the material of speaking easily (role play) that is given by the teacher.

2.10 Procedure of Applying Role Play in the Class

Based on Klippel (1984), the procedures of applying role-play in the class are divided into three terms: pre activity, while activity and post activity. Here are the procedures of teaching speaking through role play:

Pre Activities; the teacher

1. greets the students.
2. checks the students’ attendance list.
3. gives leading question or brainstorms the students related to the topic that they are going to learn
   1. Do you like going to a party?
   2. Do you know how to invite someone and accept and refuse an invitation?
4. gives a chance for some students to share their opinion.
While Activities; the teacher

5. introduces expressions of making, accepting and refusing an invitation.

6. teaches them how to use the expression and gives the material in a paper which contents table of accepting and refusing, and how to pronounce some difficult words accurately and fluently.

7. asks their comprehension and new difficult vocabularies.

8. explains the material and introduces the role play task by giving little demonstration to the students.

9. asks the students to think for about 3 minutes about the topic.

10. asks randomly the students whether they have got the answer or not by asking them “do you have any idea how to express yourself?” it is intended to force them in order to elaborate their expression about the topic.

11. divides the class in group and may consist of five or six students.

12. Then, the students are asked to move to their dialogue with their group related to the topic and work out their dialogue.

13. moves from one group to another and helps students, for example in vocabulary, expression and pronunciation. The teacher monitors the class and offers assistance as and when necessary.

14. asks the students to perform their role play in front of the class.

15. makes the situation conductive to make the play run smoothly and asks the students to make note about misspelling pronunciation, difficult vocabulary, comprehension, and wherever possible wrong grammar that students meet or hear. The teacher will make a note of common mistakes and that the students
do not lose motivation by being corrected directly or straight after the role play.

16. evaluate students’ speaking ability (pronunciation, fluency, and comprehensibility) using oral test sheet consist of students’ score on their oral production.

Post Activities; the teacher

17. gives comment and explains necessary thing, such as wrong pronunciation, wrong grammatical use, intonation and gesture.

18. provides a chance to ask question and answers them.

19. concludes the lesson on each topic that he has given to the students’ knowledge.

20. closes the class.

These procedures helped the students be more active because they had opportunities to develop their imagination to speak in their group work. Besides these procedures also made the teacher easily monitor the difficulties faced by the students.

2.11 Theoretical Assumption

Using appropriate tasks in students learning process is important. Information gap and Role play tasks are two of some tasks that worth doing in practicing students’ speaking ability. When the students are asked to do the task in different types, they will have different result of the task.
Based on the definition above, the writer assumed that there was a difference in the aspects of interaction and number of utterances between information gap and role play tasks in term of C-unit. Thus, the writer was interested in investigating the implementation of information gap and role play tasks in group work in the speaking class to find out the significant differences between two types of the tasks.