CHAPTER II
THEORETICAL REVIEW

A. The Nature of Speaking Skill

1. Definition of Speaking Skill

People cannot deny the importance of speaking skill in our daily life. In fact, Bygate (1997) stated that speaking skill is the vehicle *par excellence* of social solidarity, social ranking, professional advancement and business. However, it is necessary to understand what speaking skill is. There are several definitions of speaking skill stated by the experts.

Started from Smith (2005) who stated that speaking means several things such as thinking of what someone wishes to say, choosing the appropriate words from the vocabulary, putting the words in the proper grammatical framework, communicating the feelings that someone has, and so on. It shows that speaking involves variety of aspects before it has meaning in communication. These must be considered in order to deliver a proper speaking.

On the other hand, Chaney in Kayi (2006) defined speaking as the process of building and sharing meaning process through verbal and non-verbal symbols usage, in various contexts. It means that speaking is the whole process of communication from thinking the idea, creating it, then transferring it through symbols either verbally or non-verbally. Similar to Chaney, Florez (1999: 1) constructed a definition of speaking as “an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing and receiving and processing information”.

Referring to McLaughlin in O’Malley and Chamot (1996: 66), speaking is defined as “an example of a complex cognitive skill that can be differentiated into various hierarchical subskills, some of which might require controlled processing while others could be processed automatically”. Different from the other previous definitions, McLaughlin sees speaking as a skill. O’Malley and Chamot (1996) explained more detail about subskills mentioned on that statement through an
example; in speaking, it may need levels of goals, such as to express specific intentions, to decide on a topic, to organize the phrases, to choose the vocabularies, and so on. The levels of goals show the form of subskills which has similar meaning with Smith’s statement above. In line with McLaughlin idea, Nunan (2003: 48) argued that “speaking is the productive aural/oral skill”. In addition, speaking consists of the produce of systematic verbal utterances to convey meaning.

From the above definitions, it comes to a conclusion that speaking skill is a productive cognitive aural/oral skill of constructing and sharing meaning through symbols either verbally or non-verbally. The skill of speaking is divided into levels of subskills which sometimes come naturally but other times it requires more thought to find correct words to say. In addition, speaking requires the learner to know how to produce specific points of language such as grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary and also the context of the language such as when, why, and in what way the language is produced (Florez, 1999).

2. **Elements of Speaking**

According to Harmer (2001), language features and mental/social processing presuppose the ability of fluent speaking especially in English language. The language features and mental/social processing contain of seven elements which are necessary for spoken production, they are:

a. **Language Features**

1) **Connected speech**

Connected speech refers to the sounds which are modified (assimilation), omitted (elision), added (linking r), or weakened (through contractions and stress patterning).

2) **Expressive devices**

Expressive devices include changing the pitch and stress of particular parts of utterances, varying volume and speed, showing by other physical and non-verbal (paralinguistic) especially in face-to-face interaction in order to convey meanings in spoken language.
3) Lexis and grammar
   It has something to do with the use of a number of common lexical phrases, especially in the performance of certain language functions such as expressing agreeing or disagreeing.

4) Negotiation language
   Negotiatory language is used to seek clarification and to show the structure of what we are saying. For example, in asking clarification, we may say “could you explain that again please”. Meanwhile, to structure our discourse, we may say “the important thing to grasp is that...”

b. Mental/social processing
   1) Language processing
      Language processing means the ability to process language in the speaker’s head and put it into coherent order so that it comes out in forms that are not only comprehensible, but also convey the meanings that are intended. Language processing involves the retrieval of words and phrases from memory and speaker’s assembly into syntactically and proportionally appropriate sequences.

   2) Interacting with others
      Since in most speaking involves interaction with one or more participants, it is necessary to know how to interact effectively with other people. It includes a good deal of listening, an understanding of how the other participants are feeling, and knowledge of how linguistically to take turns or allow others to do so.

   3) (On-the-spot) information processing
      It refers to the ability to process the information the moment the speaker gets it. The sooner speaker processes the information the more effective communication goes.

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3. Teaching Speaking

Nunan (2003) said that teaching speaking sometimes considered as a simple process. Since, it is found that commercial language schools around the world hire people without training to teach conversation. Although speaking is totally natural, speaking in foreign language is anything but simple.

Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill and Pincas (2003) argued that past teaching techniques have led to a good passive understanding of the language but no capacity to use it. Yet, through massive pattern practice in audio-lingual and audio-visual courses recently, the students in the classroom can produce the adequate responses perfectly when their teacher gives a clear stimulus. In fact, the perfect responses in classroom do not guarantee that students can apply it in real life especially when they have to deal with native speakers.

Teaching speaking is not only about the technique used but also about the role of teacher in class. Broughton et al. (2003) then explained that the teacher should control the speech produced by the student at first. As progress is made, there should be less rigorous guidance, culminating in situations where the student is free to produce utterances appropriate to the situation. For beginner stages there will be heavy emphasis on controlled and guided practice and more freedom at advanced levels.

It is emphasized that the teacher must prepared students for actual communication with others (apart from monologues and talking to oneself, speech is basically a communicative, social art), and this competence must develop learner’s ability by the teaching process (Broughton et al., 2003). The speaking ability can be beneficial for students especially when they have to face native speakers in real life. Therefore, the teachers must understand what it is required in teaching speaking. In the modern society, it is required that the aim of teaching speaking can develop students’ communicative ability so that the students can express themselves and learn how to comply with the appropriate social and cultural rules in a particular communicative circumstance (Chang, 2010). Nunan in Kayi (2006) explained...
systematically that teaching speaking requires the teachers to teach the English second language learners to be able in:

a. producing the English speech sounds and sound patterns;
b. using word and sentence stress, intonation patterns and the rhythm of the second language;
c. selecting appropriate words and sentences according to the proper social setting, audience, situation and subject matter;
d. organizing their thoughts in a meaningful and logical sequence;
e. using language as a means of expressing values and judgments;
f. using the language quickly and confidently with few unnatural pauses (fluency).

4. Principals of Teaching Speaking

Solcova (2011) stated that the speaking skills training do not meet the students’ need in traditional classroom setting. Since, in traditional classroom setting, the teachers teach written form language instead of speaking skills. There are five principals for teaching speaking stated by Nunan (2003). These principals can make the teachers focus on their aims teaching speaking skill. Below is the detail explanation of each principal.

a. Aware the differences between second language and foreign language learning contexts.

Speaking is learned in two different contexts, as foreign language and second language situation. Foreign language (FL) context means that the target language is not the language of communication in the society, for example learning English in Japan. In this case, learners have a very few opportunities to use the target language outside the classroom and find it very difficult to understand what native speakers speaking. Whereas, second language (SL) context reverses from FL where the target language is the language of communication in society, for example English in the UK. SL learners include refugees, international students, and immigrants which achieve notable speaking skills, but some of them who
progress to a certain proficiency level and the go no further. Their speech seems to stop developing at a point where it still contains noticeable, patterned errors.

b. Giving the students fluency and accuracy practice.

In language lessons, especially at the beginning and intermediate levels, learners must be given opportunities to develop both their fluency and accuracy. Nunan (2003) explained that accuracy is the extent that students’ speech matches with what people actually say when they use the target language. In addition, British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) (2003) also explained that accuracy is that speaking without errors of grammar and vocabulary. Whereas, fluency is the extent that the speakers use the language quickly and confidently, with few hesitations or unnatural pauses, false starts, word searchers, etc (Nunan, 2003). In line with Nunan, BBC (2003) defined fluency as an ability to communicate the ideas without having to stop and think too much about what the speaker wanting to say.

c. Providing opportunities for students to talk by using group work or pair work, and limiting teacher talk.

Teachers can use pair work and group work in order to increase the amount of time that learners get to speak in the target language during lesson. It will be also give students more opportunities for students to talk more rather than the teacher.

d. Planning speaking task that involve negotiation for meaning.

Negotiating for meaning is a process of communicating in the target language using interaction which necessarily involves speaker trying to understand and making the speaker him/herself understood. For example, asking for clarification, repetition, or explanations during conversations.

e. Designing classroom activities that involve guidance and practice in both transactional and interactional speaking.

In real life, people usually speak for interactional or transactional purposes. Interactional speech means communicating with someone for social purposes. Whereas, transactional speech is communicating to get something done, including the exchange of goods and/or services.
5. General Outline of Speaking Lesson

In speaking lesson, there are five stages which are planned and followed to make the lesson going systematically. Florez (1999) suggested a usual pattern used in speaking lesson as follows:

a. Preparation

Preparation stage is used to establish a context for the speaking task (where, when, why, and with whom it will occur) and to initiate awareness that speaking skill is the target (asking for clarification, stressing words, using reduced forms of words).

b. Presentation

In this stage, the teacher can provide learners with a preproduction model that comprehend learner further and helps them become more attentive observer of language use.

c. Practice

In practice stage, learners reproduce the targeted structure, usually in a controlled or highly supported manner.

d. Evaluation

Evaluation involves directing attention to the skill being examined and asking learners to monitor and assess their own progress.

e. Extension

This last stage consists of activities that ask learners to use the strategy or skill in a different context of authentic communicative situation, or to integrate use of the new skill or strategy with previously acquired ones.

6. Speaking Tasks

In order to develop learners' ability to express themselves through speech, classroom activities would therefore seem an important component of language course (Ur, 1996). Brown in Florez (1999) categorized six possible tasks which can be selected by the teachers to develop learners' ability.
a. Imitative

The task used in this category is drilling which keep the learners repeat a phrase (e.g. “Excuse me.” or “Can you help me?”) or structure for clarity and accuracy.

b. Intensive

Similar to imitative task, the intensive category also uses drills or repetitions. Yet, intensive task focuses on specific phonological or grammatical points such as minimal pairs or repetition of a series of imperative sentences.

c. Responsive

The task applies responsive category is short replies to teacher or learner questions or comments such as a series of answers to yes/no questions.

d. Transactional

Transactional is conducted into dialogues for the purpose of information exchange such as information gathering interviews, role plays, or debates.

e. Interpersonal

Different from transactional, interpersonal type focuses on establishing or maintaining social relationships, such as personal interviews or casual conversations, and role plays.

f. Extensive

Extensive refers to the extended monologues such as short speeches, oral reports, or oral summaries.

In addition, these tasks are not sequential and even can be used independently or integrated with one another, depending on learners’ needs.

7. Characteristics of Successful Speaking Activity

Finding out whether the speaking activity used is helpful in developing learners’ ability or not, Ur (1996) categorized the characteristics of a successful speaking activity as follows:

a. Learners talk a lot

In period time allotted, the learners occupy the activity by talking as much as possible. Yet, of course the teacher often takes the time to talk or do some pauses.
b. Participation of the learners is even
   A minority of talkative participants does not only dominate classroom activity but all learners get a chance to speak and to distribute contributions in the activity fairly.

c. High motivation
   High motivation is seen when the learners are eager to speak. It is because the topic is interesting and the learners have something new to say about it or because the learners want to contribute to achieving task objective.

d. Acceptable level of language
   Learners can express themselves in acceptable level of language which refers to relevant utterances, comprehensible, and language accuracy.

8. Problems and Solutions of Speaking Activities
   In speaking activities, there are problems that may happen particularly in getting learners to talk in the classroom. According to Ur (1996), the problems with speaking activities are:

a. Inhibition
   Inhibition for learners is for example when they are trying to say things in foreign language in the classroom include, worried about making mistakes, fearful or criticism or losing face, or simply shy of the attention that their speech attracts. The inhibitions are related to the exposure of facing the audience.

b. Nothing to say
   Learners often complain that they have no idea of what to say. They have no motivation to express themselves or feeling guilty because they do not speak.

c. Low or uneven participation of the learners
   In a large group, each student will have only a little time to talk because only one participant can talk at a time if he or she is to be heard. A problem appears by some learners dominating the discussion that causes the other has a very little time or even does not speak at all.
d. Using mother-tongue

In classes where most of the learners share the same mother tongue, the learners tend to use their mother tongue rather than the target language. The reasons are because the mother tongue is easier, then it feels unnatural to speak to one another in a foreign language, and the learners feel less ‘exposed’ when speaking in their mother tongue. It is a problem of the learners keep talking using their mother tongue rather than the target language.

There are several solutions to overcome the above problems suggested by Ur (1996). They are:

a. Using group work

This technique can increase the number of learners to talk in a limited period and lower the inhabitation of learners who are not motivated to speak in front of the class.

b. Making the activity base on easy language

The aim of this solution is that the learners can speak fluently without hesitation. For a discussion, it should use a level of language that is easily recalled and produced by the participants. It is also suggested that the teacher teaches or reviews essential vocabulary before the activity starts.

c. Making a careful choice of topic and task to stimulate interest

The point is that the participants will be more motivated if the purpose of the discussion is clear. In order to stimulate the learners' interest, the teachers must choose a good topic and task. A good topic refers to a topic which learners can relate using ideas from their own experience and knowledge. A task is essentially goal-oriented which requires the group, or pair, to achieve an objective that is usually expressed by an observable result such as brief notes or lists, a rearrangement of jumbled items, a drawing, or a spoken summary.

d. Giving some instruction or training in discussion skills

The clear instructions of participation must be given in the introduction of the task if task is based on group discussion (e.g. tell learners to make sure that participants in the group contribute in the discussion).
e. Keeping students to speak the target language

There are various ways to keep students speaking the target language. For example, the teacher asks someone in the group to be a monitor who reminds the participants to speak in the target language, and may report later to the teacher how well the group is able to keep speaking in the target language. The monitor can help the participants’ awareness to speak more careful.

9. Micro and Macro Skills of Speaking

An assessment is used to observe the students’ speaking performance. Brown (2004) stated that micro- and microskills involve the variety of components to make up the criteria for assessment especially for speaking skill. Micro skills refer to producing the smaller chunks of language, such as phonemes, morphemes, words, collocations, and phrasal units. Whereas, macroskills focus on the speaker’s larger elements, such as fluency, discourse, function, style, cohesion, nonverbal communication, and strategic options.

This expert differentiates micro- and macroskills into 16 objectives to assess in speaking. The micro- and macroskills can be selected only one or several of them that will become the objective(s) of an assessment task. The 16 components of micro- and macroskills are below:

a. Micro skills

1) Producing differences among English phonemes and allophonic variants.
2) Producing chunks of language of different lengths.
3) Producing English stress patterns, words in stressed and unstressed positions, rhythmic structure, and intonation contours.
4) Producing reduced forms of words and phrases.
5) Using an adequate number of lexical units (called as words) to accomplish pragmatic purposes.
6) Producing fluent speech at different rates of delivery.
7) Monitoring one’s own oral production and use various strategic devices: pauses, fillers, self corrections, backtracking to enhance the clarity of the message.

8) Using grammatical word classes (such as nouns, verbs, etc.) systems (for example tense, agreement, and pluralization), word order, patterns, rules, and elliptical forms.

9) Producing speech in natural constituents: in appropriate phrases, pause groups, breathe groups, and sentence constituents.

10) Expressing a particular meaning in different grammatical forms.

11) Using cohesive devices in spoken discourse.

b. Macro skills

12) Appropriately accomplish communicative functions according to situations, participants, and goals.

13) Using appropriate styles, registers, implicature, redundancies, pragmatic conventions, conversation rules, floor-keeping and floor-yielding, interrupting, and other sociolinguistic features in face-to-face conversations.

14) Conveying links and connections between events and communicating such relations as focal and peripheral ideas, events and feeling, new information and given information, generalization and exemplification.

15) Conveying facial features, kinesics, body language, and other nonverbal cues along with verbal language.

16) Developing and using a battery of speaking strategies, such as emphasising key words, rephrasing, providing a context for interpreting the meaning of words, appealing for help, and accurately assessing how well the interlocutor is understanding the speaker.

10. Scale of Speaking Test Criteria

The scoring rubric below is adapted from Ur (1996: 135) for assessing speaking skill.
Table 2.1 Criteria of Speaking Scoring

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Accuracy</th>
<th>Fluency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Little or no language produced</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor vocabulary, mistake in basic grammar, may have very strong foreign accent</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequate but not rich vocabulary, makes obvious grammar mistakes, slight foreign accent</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good range of vocabulary, occasional grammar slips, slight foreign accent</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wide vocabulary appropriately used, virtually no grammar mistakes, native-like or slight foreign accent</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Score out of 10: ...

Below is the assessment scale of speaking adopted from the above criteria of speaking scoring by Ur.

Table 2.2 Scoring Rubric of Speaking Skill

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Accuracy</th>
<th>Fluency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Little or no language produced</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor vocabulary, mistakes in basic grammar, frequent pronunciation errors</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequate but not rich vocabulary, makes obvious grammar mistakes, occasional mispronunciations</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good range of vocabulary, occasionally grammar slips, slight mispronunciations</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wide vocabulary appropriately used, virtually no grammar mistakes, no conspicuous mispronunciation</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Score out of 100: ...

B. The Nature of Reflective Practice

1. Definition of Reflective Practice

Reflective practice is often confused with reflection but in fact, it is neither a solitary nor a relaxed meditative process (Osterman and Kottamp, 1993). Osterman
and Kottamp explained that reflective practice is challenging, demanding, and often trying process that is most successful as a collaborative effort which means that it is not only contain of one activity but several activities connecting each other. The term of reflective practice is interpreted and understood in different ways. These experts defined reflective practice as a way to develop a greater lever of self-awareness about the nature and impact of the performance, an awareness that creates opportunities for professional growth and development.

In line with above idea, Finlay (2008) said that reflective practice is the process of learning through and from experience towards gaining new insights of self and/or practice. It often involves examining assumptions of everyday practice. The activity of reflective practice also tends to involve the individual practitioner in being self-aware and critically evaluating their own responses to practice situations which mean that reflective practice involves both of the learners and the teachers. Finlay added that the point of this activity is to recapture practice experiences and mull them over critically in order to gain new understandings and so improve future practice.

Different idea of reflective practice came up from Cunningham in Surgenor (2011). Reflective practice means that practitioners engage in a continuous cycle of self-observation and self-evaluation in order to understand their own actions and the reactions they prompt in themselves and in others. It can be interpreted that reflective practice is continuous process of self-observation and self-evaluation. Through this process, the practitioners can see their own actions and reactions which affect themselves or others.

In conclusion, reflective practice is a continuous learning process of self-awareness, self-observation and self-evaluation about the nature impact of the performance in order to understand the actions and reactions of self and/or practice. This activity gives opportunities to recapture practice experiences and think them over critically in order to gain new understandings and so improve future practice. In addition, it also tends to involve both of the learners and the teacher to practice situations.

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2. Reflective Practice Model

Rolfe, Freshwater and Jasper in Surgenor (2001) proposed a framework called the ‘what’ model. This model advocates using three questions to reflect on a situation: “What? So what? Now What?”. The following figure is the cycle of the ‘what’ model.

![Diagram of Reflective Practice Model](image)

**Figure 2.1. Overview of Rolfe’s Reflective Model**
(Source: Surgenor, 2011)

The first level is descriptive level of reflection. In this level, individual reflects on the situation order to describe it. In the second level, that is theory and knowledge building, the personal theory of understanding about the event/incident is constructed in order to learn from it. The final level or action orientated level of reflection is reflecting on action about what can be done to improve the incident and about the consequences of such action. In addition, Quinn in Finlay (2008) said that the model...
of reflective practice has three fundamental processes. The first is retrospection, for instance thinking back about a situation or experience. The second is of self-evaluation, for instance critically analyzing and evaluating the actions and feelings associated with the experience through theoretical perspectives. The last is reorientation, for instance using the results of self-evaluation to influence future approaches to similar situations or experiences.

3. Reflective Practice Methods

Queensland Occupational Therapy Fieldwork Collaborative or QOTFC (2007) stated that the practice of active reflection is another valuable vehicle for learning. Whilst feedback tends to promote skill acquisition and competency, reflection leads to individual growth and interpretation of the greater meaning and implications of an experience or action. They also provide the following methods to encourage student engagement in reflective practice:

a. Use of a reflective journal and self-evaluative tools

Reflective journal and self-evaluative tools can be medium where the student can write their feelings down and analyse their actions, as well as make future action plans for improvement (Reid & McKay in QOTFC, 2007). In addition, Copley in QOTFC (2007) stated that using self-reflection forms assists students to comfortably reflect in a balanced way which they can notice both strengths and areas for improvement.

b. Peer learning

Reid & McKay in QOTFC (2001) stated that peer learning can be facilitated through discussion and interaction with peers. Through these activities, students can identify areas of strength and limitation as well as draw on one another to find solutions to problems, to share resources and to learn through shared experiences. It is particularly advantageous for students participating in the multiple mentoring or collaborative placement models which. Peer learning can be encouraged through involving students in group, as well as individual, or supervision sessions.

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c. De-briefing
De-briefing provides immediate support to the student through engagement in formal structured reflection of actions and incidents after they have occurred (generally within 12 to 48 hours). It can occur either as a group or individual process.

d. Exchange of Feedback
The student received constructive feedback and has opportunity to provide the educator or supervisor with feedback regarding their experiences of, and contributing factors to, learning in the educational context. In addition, QOTFC (2007) constructed the differentiation between feedback and evaluation. In feedback, it provides objective information and knowledge about actual performance and the relation with the performance expectations, as well as the actions consequences. Feedback is formative which means pointing the student to the direction of improving his competency and moving toward goal achievement. Feedback also encourages reflective and self-evaluative practice. Meanwhile, evaluation is more into summative which means presenting an assessment about how well a student has performed and/or achieve a given goal or competency. Evaluation usually follows feedback and a period of efforts at improving performance in given skills or competencies.

4. Reflective Log
In order to examine issues on the aspects of speaking and listening that the practitioner focusing on, Department for Education and Skills (2007) suggested to write down or examine the reflections. The practitioner may like to consider using the following options.

a. Continuous prose
b. Notes
c. Annotated diagrams
d. Tables
e. E-discussions with a peer
f. Brainstorming – it allows the practitioner to record all ideas on a topic, initially without making any judgments about the relative merits of different ideas.

g. Mind maps – it illustrates the connections between, for example, main points or between main and sub-points.

h. Flow charts – for example, to illustrate the progress between different stages or teaching and learning.

i. Using some of the questions in a reflective log as the basis for discussion with a trusted peer or in team meetings.

j. Audio or video record selected sessions. The practitioner can then listen or watch the recording to examine the use of speaking and listening.

C. The Nature of Video Recording

1. Definition of Video Recording

Hatch (2002) stated that video recording can provide a powerful means for capturing data which can improve the quality of many studies. It is true since video recording captures every single moves and sounds in contextualized situation. He also added that video recording can be thought of as having a documentary function, as a way of preserving a record in the same way a historian may make a written record. It is beneficial, since the person creating the video recording can observe and portray more detail without missing any information that might have been missed in a written record. Here are the definitions of video recording to make the meaning of 'video recording' clearer.

According to The Free Dictionary by Farlex, video recording is a recording of both the visual and audible components. Different from audio recording which only records the sound, video recording records both of the visual and the sound. Thus, the viewer of video recording can watch the image and listen to the sound on that video as well.

It is also stated that video recording means a recording, in any form, from which a moving image may by any means be reproduced and includes data stored on
a computer disc or by other electronic means which is capable of conversion into a moving image (Great Britain, 2006). This means that the moving image can be stored as data on a computer disc or other electronic media and can be converted back into a moving image format.

Similar to previous definition, Silfia and Narius (2012: 158) defined video recording as "the technology of electronically capturing, recording, processing, storing transmitting, and reconstructing a sequence of still images representing scenes in motion". In this definition, it shows that video recording is more like process how the images can be represented into scenes in motion.

It can be concluded from the above definitions that video recording is a process of the technology of electronically capturing, recording, processing, storing, transmitting, and reconstructing a moving image and audible component stored into a data of computer disc or other electronic media. Furthermore, the data of video recording can be converted back into a moving image format.

2. Video Camera

Video recording cannot work without a video camera. Hornby (2005) explained that video camera is a camera for taking video film. It represents the video camera as the tool to record the video. Harmer (1998) stated that video cameras are incredibly useful in the English foreign language classroom. This expert writes several points regarding the use of video camera in English foreign language classroom, as follow:

a. The video camera must be ease of use (just in case the inexperienced people are going to use it) and have good microphones. There is no point in recording students if the sound cannot be listened.

b. There are two main uses of video camera in the classroom, they are:

1) Teacher films the students doing activity using the video camera. After that, the teacher plays the tape so that both the teacher and students can discuss the activity.

2) The students make films as part of a project of an activity using the video camera. For example, the students can record their own news broadcasts or
documentary. They can also record and perform their own play or soap opera. The video camera can be used to interview people as well. A lot of English language is learned and used in the planning and execution of these tasks.

c. There are several things to watch out for with video cameras/camcorders.
   1) The video camera user needs to be able to use the video camera properly. It is also good to do some training for teacher and students.
   2) Students do not take the situation seriously enough and just fool around with the camera.
   3) The teacher has to make sure that a student does not get stuck behind the camera and therefore lose out of chances to practice English.

3. Using the Video Camera

Katchen (1992) stated that video camera is just a machine which one we learn to operate one model, then others are basically the same. In fact, video cameras have become smaller, lighter, cheaper, and easier to use. However, as with any tool, using it without proper preparation can cause no end of trouble. A little practice with the video camera and attention to a few details will minimize the problems. Below are the useful pointers written by Katchen (1992).

a. Preparing equipment

The user must know how to use the video camera and practice how to use it. The user tries to set the video camera up by him/herself and make a test recording. The user can play back the recording within the camera visually, without sound to see that it worked. This step is purposed for teachers who should be able to operate the camera. Before using the camera, it must be checked whether the camera is in working order, the batteries are charged, and the blank tape or recently using memory card is ready.

b. Planning logistics

The teacher must consider about several situations such as: 1) appropriateness the classroom for videotaping, 2) where the students sit, 3) the place for students to
perform, 4) the spot to place the camera, 5) lighting, 6) minimum noise, 7) able to get good shots and the sound of the students, 8) the time planned for the activity.

c. Explaining procedures

The teacher must tell class if there are any special rules or procedures before the activity begins or during the previous class. For example, when the teacher records speeches, then the doors is closed. If a student should come late or be early for the next session, she waits outside the classroom until she hears applause, indicating the speech is over, and then enters between speeches. It is purposed to avoid unnecessary disruption.

d. Videotaping

The teacher is in the classroom early to set up and always have a contingency plan such as: 1) preparing a plan if videotape cannot be done, 2) preparing a quieter classroom if the recent classroom is too noisy, 3) ready for the electricity black out which will affect the lighting.

e. Checking and copying the tape

After the videotaping done, the teacher watches the result as soon as possible to check it for any problems. It also can be done by watching (and even grading) while copying it to save time. It is not suggested to give the original video to the students unless there is a knowledgeable student who will copy it for the teacher. The teacher should have the copy so that he/she can grade at his/her own convenience.

f. Viewing the tape

If the teacher plans to watch the tape with the students right after the recording, the teacher has to know how to connect the video camera to the particular TV. It is to avoid the time wasted because the teacher fusses with the dials and connections. Another option is that the students may take a copy and watch it on their own or if the teacher has an audio-visual center, the teacher can put a copy there for the students to watch at their convenience.
g. Grading the students
Since videotape can be watched more than one, then grading videotaped oral performances can be more detailed. The teacher may make an evaluation form to emphasize the important areas to be grading. The teacher can give the students a copy so they can see how the teacher graded them and why. The teacher can make self-evaluation sheets for students when they watch their own speeches. Another option if the teacher requires students to turn in their self-evaluation sheets, the teacher has to check on whether they actually went to view their speeches, and the teacher can see how critical the students are of themselves.

h. Evaluating the activity
Before the end of semester, the teacher gets the students’ reactions to the activity and asks for their suggestions on how to improve it. In fact, sometimes students have some very good ideas.

4. Video Playback Machines
In playing the videos, it is not only about the video itself but it must also consider about the video playback machines and anything related. According to Harmer (1998), there are several things related to video playback machines that need to consider before playing the videos.

b. Good quality playback machine. The functions to look for include a food remote control device, fast winding and clear ‘freeze frame’ device.

c. The monitors need to be enough and put in the right place so that everyone can see them.

d. Good speakers so that they can be properly heard.

5. Benefits of Using Video Recordings in the Spoken English Class
Mund (2012) explained that a planned use of video shoots in any spoken English class could help both the teacher as well as the students.
For students:

a. In language production, the students can see, hear and assess their own areas of improvement.

b. On seeing the students' video footage, they get to know why and where the feedback given by the teacher and peers.

c. Feedback and self assessment build a confidence among the students.

d. Students see their own mistakes and they do not have to recollect and think of what and then the mistakes were made.

e. Once the students see their mistakes, they develop their own strategy and self effort to overcome their mistakes, hence boosting learner autonomy.

f. Video recording helps to work on body language too, a vital part of non verbal communication.

g. Video recording gives a scope to understand right tone and accent.

h. Video recording is a helpful tool to get specific and objective feedback.

i. Video recording gives a scope to the students to clarify their sentence structure, use of grammar and vocabulary with reference to their own mistakes.

j. The students can learn from the self realization of mistakes.

For teachers:

a. Teacher’s feedback can be more accurate and specific.

b. Teachers have a scope to review the recorded videos and can maintain feedback or improvement chart that could be handed over to the students in the following class.

c. Teachers have a scope for personalized feedback.

d. Video recording helps in developing a bond between the teacher and the student.

e. Video recording would make the teacher’s job easier as the teacher gets a scope to review the videos even at a later stage.

f. Video recording increases the scope for accuracy.

g. Teacher gets scope to evaluate and observe on every detail of spoken English like use of grammar, vocabulary, and coherence.

h. Teacher’s feedback becomes specific and objective.
D. The Nature of Dialogue

1. Definition of Dialogue

Ghanim and Khalaf (2012) stated that dialogue is a part of teaching language and dialogue also motivates people to practice with foreigners. It emphasizes the important role of dialogue in language teaching particularly in speaking practice. According to Bohm (1996), the word dialogue comes from the Greek word called *dialogos*. *Logos* has a meaning “the word” and *dia* means “through”. Furthermore, there are several experts who also define the meaning of dialogue.

Stott, Young and Bryan (2001) defined dialogue as the speaking that passes backwards and forwards between two persons. It can be viewed that when somebody talks to person and the other person replies, they are conversing and this can be seen as a type of interaction. In line with above idea, Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill, and Pincas (2003) said that a dialogue is a natural language interaction between people, which fulfils the communicative criterion. Broughton et al. view that the subject involved in a dialogue is not only between two people but can be more than that. In addition, dialogue is seen as an interaction aimed for communication.

Unlike the above idea, Jenlink and Banathy (2005: 4) stated that “dialogue is a culturally and historically specific way of social discourse accomplished through the use of language and verbal transactions”. It is explain that social interaction happens through dialogue as a part of culture from a long time ago. Jenlink and Banathy also explain that dialogue process happen specifically using language and verbal transactions.

Last, a brief definition brought by Bohm (1996) who defined dialogue as a stream of meaning flowing among and through us and between us. One conclusion that may be drawn from this statement is that dialogue is a type of media full of meaning to be transferred between people. In addition, Bohm explained that dialogue is not just between two people but it also can be among any number of people.

The above definitions of dialogue can be concluded into the social interaction through conversation between two or more people, both speaking and listening, using
language and verbal transactions in order to convey meaning. Even though Stott et al. (2001) defined that dialogue is the speaking between two people, Broughton et al. (2003) and Bohm (2003) explained that dialogue can be among more than two people. It indicates that dialogue can be between two or more people.

2. **Criteria of Dialogue Constructions**

Teachers present new language material functionally in a communicative situation by using dialogues and the learners can grasp the material easier through that way (Ghanim and Khalaf, 2012). Nevertheless, Byrne (1980) argued that dialogues will be less effective as a teaching device if it is not well constructed. Furthermore, this expert provides several criteria in constructing the dialogues and evaluating the dialogues available on textbooks or other material sources. The criteria are:

a. **Relevant language**

   The language used in the dialogue should be relevant with students’ need for communication, for example practicing the expressions of obligation, approval and disapproval, agreement and disagreement, likes and dislikes, apologizing and accepting apologize, et cetera.

b. **Appropriate language**

   This criterion requires that the language should be appropriate which refers to the forms of typical spoken language. For example, dialogue employ numerous contractions like “you’ve” for you have (Kuehn, 2013).

c. **Realistic and relevant situations**

   Realistic and relevant situations mean that the dialogue should portray behavior of real people in real life situations. For example, in the context of social situations, it may cover introductions, time, weather, telephoning, cinema, and so on.

d. **Limited structural items**

   The structural items presented in the dialogue should concentrate on presenting one or at the most two main structures. The structures should be exemplified well
in the dialogue without repeating it too often, otherwise the languages will sound unnatural.

e. Restricted lexical items
The vocabularies used in the dialogue should appropriate to the situations and should not confuse the learners from the learning of key structural items. Thus, dialogue is not suitable to teach a great mass of vocabulary.

f. Dialogue should not be too long
The dialogue that presents too long will be unwieldy for teaching purposes. A maximum length of dialogue is perhaps 8-10 exchanges with limited utterances in each exchange.

g. Interesting dialogue
Interesting dialogue will make students absorbing the content of dialogue easily. For example, the dialogue contains of excitement or humor or suspense. Besides, the way presenting the dialogue should use some activity like dramatization rather than read it aloud.

3. Presenting and Learning from Dialogue
Rivers and Temperley in Ratna Kurnia Dewi (2011) stated that teachers can use various ways of presenting the dialogue. They provide five aspects of the dialogue activity in order to grow students' ability to function freely in the language. These experts suggest a number of possible activities that the teacher can select the activities among them. Below is the explanation of the aspects.

a. Setting of the scene to arouse student interest in the dialogue content and facilitate language used comprehension.
For example: students act out of the conversation, with appropriate properties, in the native language, or else through mime; or discussion of the content of the dialogue with the help of pictures, slides, flashcards, projected diagrams, maps, plans.
b. Technique for focusing student attention on the interchange meaning.
   For example: students listen to the whole dialogue on tape several times as a
   listening comprehension exercise, with opportunity between each hearing for
   group piecing together of the meaning.

c. Students familiarization with the actual utterances in the dialogue through an
   activity which makes cognitive demands on them.
   For example: in order to develop fluency in the students’ production, the students
   in the initial stage repeat the lines of the dialogue. The students take roles, group
   speaking to group or class to teacher until they can handle the material with
   reasonable efficiency.

d. Formal manipulation of the material in the dialogue, exploiting the useful
   expressions in a conversation facilitation dialogue or the morphological and
   syntactic items in a grammar demonstration dialogue.
   For example: the teacher can use directed or chain dialogue or guided
   conversation. The teacher can also ask the students to analyze the rules
   demonstrated in the material.

e. Some ways in which the dialogue material can be used in the creation of new
   utterances and new dialogue to express the students’ own whims, feelings, and
   imaginings.
   For example: the students create a dialogue with similar situation in another
   setting. Another option is that through group preparation. The teacher prepares a
   series of pictures of a different setting and a climactic utterance as a basis for a
   dialogue with a similar point of story with the one already studied.

4. Setting up and Managing Dialogue

   Bilbrough (2007) stated that pairwork is the best format for practicing
   dialogue in class because dialogue is interaction between two people. Furthermore,
   this expert (2007) explained several the formats of pairwork to set up and manage the
   use of dialogue that can be used in the classroom. The formats are:
a. Closed pairs
The teacher explains the topic and then gives a clear signal to let all students in the class turn to the person on their left or right and start talking. In this kind of setting, the teacher can monitor the students by moving around the different pairs even though it will be difficult to hear everybody’s language.

b. Open pairs
This kind of form demands two students to engage in dialogue while the rest of the class listens. Open pairs can be a follow-up format after the closed pairs. Another option is that open pairs can provide an opportunity for individual pairs to ‘perform’ (more accurately or more fluently) what the students have been ‘rehearsing’ in closed pairs.

c. Back-to-back pairs
The setting of this form is that the students talk back-to-back to avoid visual clues and encourage students to communicate through the sound of their words alone. This kind of form can be used in telephone dialogues or other situations which omit visual clues.

d. Line dance formation
Students stand in two rows, face each other and then enact the dialogue. Afterwards, the teacher gives a signal to the student at the head of one row to move to the tail of the same row and all the other students in that row move up one, so that they have a new partner. Lastly, the students re-enact their dialogue with their new partner.

e. Dyadic circles
The students make two circles, one circle inside the other, and the students in the inner circle facing those in the outer. The number of people should be equal in each circle. The students start a dialogue with the person facing them. The teacher gives a signal to the outer circle to move round one place so that everyone is now facing a different person. With the new partner, the students start a new dialogue with similar or different topic. These steps can be repeated many times. If the
class is small, there is another option by arranging the students to seat in two concentric circles of chairs.

f. Milling
This form is started with the whole class standing up in a space where they are free to move around. The students have a dialogue with someone of their choosing and then move on to someone new when the dialogue has reached a natural conclusion or after the signal from the teacher. This kind of pair work is particularly suited to conducting various forms of survey.

g. The ever widening gap
This type of format is particularly good for students who need to develop the ability to speak more loudly and clearly. First, the students stand in two lines facing each other in the middle of the room. Then, the students start the dialogue with the person in their opposite side. As the dialogue continues, the students move gradually away from each other by walking slowly backwards. Lastly when the students reach the opposite ends of the room, they have to raise their voice considerably. In addition, this activity can be extended by asking the students to move freely around in the space, while they still continue the conversation.

E. Review of Related Research

There are several studies that have relations and also support this research. A study about reflective practice was written by Philip (2006) entitled “Encouraging reflective practice amongst students: a direct assessment approach”. The research was done at the students in Luxhay, England. Philip outlined the benefits of reflection as a technique use in direct assessment approach. For example, there are not just the better performing students who are encouraged to reflect but also the other students. The students are allowed to be aware of their reflective ability and the process being undertaken guided by the reflection activity. In direct assessment approach, the other desirable learning outcomes is measured along with the reflection. It means that the reflection technique can work with other techniques as well. It was also found that the
students learnt from the mistakes and uprate their future learning because they reflected academically in a subject-specific as well as on employability. It means that reflection is not limited to the development of the skills but also in developing learning and understanding of the subject. The last advantage is that the students are further encouraged to learn from the reflection when they doing badly at a task and may gain additional marks from their realisations.

Ratna Kurnia Dewi (2011) did a research related to dialogue entitled “Improving Students’ Speaking Skill through Dialogue (An Action Research Conducted at the Tenth Year Students of SMA N 1 Teras, Boyolali of the Academic Year 2010/2011)”. There are positive results found through the research conducted by by Ratna Kurnia Dewi. The result of this study showed that teaching speaking through dialogue can improve students’ speaking skill particularly in using the correct grammar, using the appropriate vocabulary, and pronouncing the word correctly with small number of pauses. It was found that the class situation is more alive when the teacher applied dialogue activities technique. It can be seen from the improvement of students’ participation in the teaching and learning process. Besides, students are more active in asking and answering questions activity during the lesson. By doing the dialogue activities, the students practice to speak English more with their friends. The students also do all the assignments and exercises from the teacher more seriously which affect to the improvement of the students attention. In addition, with continuous practice dialogue activities, the students are able to speak more fluently.

Another study is related to video recording that is “The Use of Video Recordings as an Effective Tool to Improve Presentation Skills” by Guo (2013). The findings of the study revealed that the use of video recordings helped improve students’ presentation skills in the area of verbal and non-verbal communications, organization, and engagement of the audience. In the experimental research conducted by Guo, it was found that the students in the experimental group which is the group that the video recordings usage was implemented enjoy the engaging aspects of using video recordings. From the students’ point of view, it was found that
the students are easy to improve their next presentations after watching the students’ video recordings. The students show very positive act toward the use of video for writing their reflections on their presentations. By using the video recordings, most of the students can identify which areas need an improvement and then make new plans for changes in their next presentation. Guo argued that through the video recordings, the students are empowered to control their own learning process. Besides, the students can improve their behaviors because the students do not only focus on their physical appearances when watching the video recordings. Guo concluded that the advantages of using video recordings allow students to identify their weaknesses and therefore they can make plan for improvement.

Last, Kirkgoz (2011) also wrote a journal about video recording entitled “A Blended Learning Study on Implementing Video Recorded Speaking Tasks in Task-Based Classroom Instruction”. Based on this journal, it comes a conclusion that video recordings is proven as a very useful learning tool in recording and evaluating the speaking tasks with the learners involved in Kirkgoz study. The students perceive that video recording facilitates the learning through adding innovation to the traditional face-to-face classroom teaching. The students prepare better when they know that they will be recorded. Generally, students like seeing their recorded speeches because they can identify their problems and see their improvements. The students’ awareness of their own mistakes can increase by watching and evaluating their recordings. Besides, it is also enabling students to trace their own progress. In this research, Kirkgoz integrates video recording with the course which also has a positive result such as helping students overcome their anxiety, gain fluency and useful communication strategies.

E. Rationale

The pre research showed that speaking is a difficult skill to master for students of SMP Kristen 4 Monginsidi Surakarta, particularly students of class VII-A. It was
indicated from the student's mean score in the speaking pre-test that was 35. This score was under the passing grade which is 60.

The students that had low proficiency in speaking was indicated from: (1) students' vocabularies were limited; (2) several students frequently produced unacceptable pronunciation when they were speaking; (3) several students were not able to deliver the speech fluently; (4) most of the students were difficult to produce grammatically correct phrase or sentence. There were four possible causes of the students' speaking skill problem that were: 1) most of the students did not pay much attention to the lesson; 2) most of the students were easily distracted and often spoke or yelled about subject matter which was off topic; 3) several students were not interested due to the teacher's monotonous media; 4) Several students were not interested due to the teacher's assignments.

I use reflective practice through students' dialogue video recording to overcome the students' problems. This method facilitates students to make and perform a dialogue and then reflect and evaluate their speaking dialogue performance on video recording of their performance. Reflective practice facilitates students to find out their mistakes. By learning from mistakes, students know which part that they have to refine. Beside that, the students can also find out the strengths of their speaking which should be keep or develop. In addition, it also has positive effects such as building self confidence and motivating students to pay attention and involve in the activity. Since this activity has something to do with multimedia equipments which are different than usual classroom setting, students' motivation will arise.

In overall, the reflective practice of through students' dialogue video recording will be a good combination to boost students speaking skill. It facilitates students to practice their speaking skill, reflect and evaluate their speaking performance, and learn from the mistakes their made in order to improve their speaking skill.