THE TEACHING OF EFL SPEAKING
IN THE INDONESIAN CONTEXT:
THE STATE OF THE ART

Utami Widiati
Bambang Yudi Cahyono

Abstract: This article reviews the teaching of EFL speaking in the Indonesian context by outlining the recent development and highlighting the future trends. It discusses problems in the teaching of EFL speaking, activities commonly performed, materials usually used in EFL speaking classes, and assessment of oral English proficiency. Based on the review, the article also provides some recommendations on what teachers or researchers of EFL speaking can do in order to achieve a higher quality of the teaching of EFL speaking and to improve the speaking skill of Indonesian EFL learners.

Key words: EFL speaking, ESL/EFL speaking pedagogy, language teaching methodology, the teaching of speaking skill.

Nowadays, along with the strengthening position of English as a language for international communication, the teaching of speaking skill has become increasingly important in the English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL) context. The teaching of speaking skill is also important due to the large number of students who want to study English in order to be able to use English for communicative purposes. This is apparent in Richards and Renandya's (2002) publication where they stated, "A large percentage of the world's language learners study English in order to develop proficiency in speaking" (p. 201). Moreover, students of second/foreign language education programs are considered successful if they can communicate effectively in the language (Riggenback & Lazaraton, 1991). The new parameter used to determine success in second/foreign language education programs appears

to revise the previously-held conviction that students' success or lack of success in ESL/EFL was judged by the accuracy of the language they produced. Thus, the great number of learners wanting to develop English speaking proficiency and the shift of criteria of learning success from accuracy to fluency and communicative effectiveness signify the teaching of ESL/EFL speaking.

This article presents a review of the teaching of EFL speaking in the Indonesian context within the broader perspective of ESL/EFL language teaching methodology. It aims to examine whether or not the teaching of EFL speaking in Indonesia has been informed by the theoretical framework of the ESL/EFL speaking pedagogy. It also provides an account on which areas of teaching EFL speaking have not been much investigated or explored in the literature. In order to achieve these purposes, the following section will firstly discuss ESL/EFL speaking within the historical perspective of the methodology of language teaching.

ESL/EFL SPEAKING AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

The modern history of language teaching started with the adoption of the approach used for teaching Latin in European countries. Under the approach, known as the Grammar Translation Method, the purpose to learn a language is primarily to read the literature published in the language (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:3). As reading and writing considered to be the focus of language teaching, the ability to speak a foreign language was regarded as irrelevant (Prator, 1991:11). Speaking was then made the primary aim of language when the Direct Method came. In the era of this method oral communication became the basis of grading the language teaching programs (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:10). However, the Reading Approach that followed believed that reading was the only language skill which could really be taught within the available time. Thus, the essence of the teaching of speaking or oral communication in the earlier days of language teaching history depended on the approach which was in fashion during those days.

The primacy of speech was once again insisted on in the era of the Audiolingual Method (ALM). Based on the structural analysis of spoken language, this "new, scientific" Audiolingual Method (Savignon, 1983) came to be known, won the day, and was popular for many years. It believed that mimicry and memorization are the most efficient route to second language use and it relied on active drill of the structural patterns of the lan-

guage. This view on language learning is reflected in its conviction stating that "language behavior is not a matter of solving problems but of performing habits so well learned that they are automatic" (Brooks, 1961:3, cited in Savignon, 1983:19). In short, the primacy of the oral language in the ALM was unquestioned regardless of the goals of the learner. In other words, the mastery of the fundamentals of the language must be through speech.

The ALM was later criticized for not providing language learners with the spontaneous use of the target language. The mimicry, memorization, and pattern manipulation were said to have questionable values if the goal of language teaching and learning was the communication of ideas, the sharing of information. This has led to the idea of communicative competence in language teaching which was emphasized by another approach to language teaching coming later, that is, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Before elaborating the notion of communicative competence, the nature of communication is discussed in the following section.

THE NATURE OF COMMUNICATION

Communication is an important part of human civilization and it is a means of cultural transformation. Communication using languages can be conducted in two ways: orally and in a written form. In the context of language learning, it is commonly believed that to communicate in a written form (writing) is more difficult than orally (speaking), suggesting that writing is a more complex language skill than speaking. However, in reality, as Artini (1998) suggests, although the complexity of spoken and written languages differs, the differences do not reveal that one is easier than the other. Unlike written language, spoken language involves paralinguistic features such as tamber (breathy, creaky), voice qualities, tempo, loudness, facial and bodily gestures, as well as prosodic features such as intonation, pitch, stress, rhythm, and pausing. Thus, spoken language which employs variability and flexibility is in fact as complex as written language, meaning that each is complex in its own way. Additionally, the two means of language communication are equally important. It is speech, not writing, which serves as the natural means of communication between members of community (Byrne, 1980), both for the expression of thought and as a form of social behavior. Writing is a means of recording speech, in spite of its function as a medium of communication in its own right.

According to Harmer (1991:46-47), there are three reasons why people communicate. First, people communicate because "they want to say something" (p. 46). As Harmer explained, the word 'want' refers to intentional desire the speaker has in order to convey messages to other people. Simply stated, people speak because they just do not want to keep silent. Second, people communicate because "they have some communicative purpose" (p. 46). By having some communicative purpose it means that the speakers want something to happen as a result of what they say. For example, they may express a request if they need a help from other people or they command if they want other people to do something. Thus, two things are important in communicating: "the message they wish to convey and the effect they want it to have" (Harmer, 2001:46). Finally, when people communicate, "they select from their language store" (p. 47). The third reason is the consequence of the desire to say something (first reason) and the purpose in conducting communicative activities (second reason). As they have language storage, they will select language expressions appropriate to get messages across to other people. Harmer used the three reasons to explain the nature of communication which can be presented graphically in Figure 1 as follows.
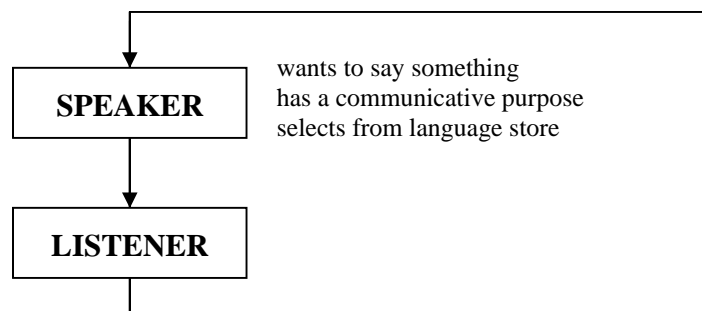

Figure 1. The nature of communication with a focus on the speaker
(Adapted from Harmer, 2001:48)

Harmer (1991) added that when two people communicate, each of them normally has something that they need to know from the other. The interlocutor supplies information or knowledge that the speaker does not have. Thus, in natural communication, people communicate because there is an *information gap* between them, and they genuinely need information from other people. In the context of EFL/ESL learning, the ability to convey messages in natural communication is of paramount importance. In order to communicate naturally, EFL/ESL learners need to acquire communicative competence, an issue which is discussed in the following section.

COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

The concept of communicative competence developed under the views of language as context, language as interaction, and language as negotiation. Learning to speak English requires more than knowing its grammatical and semantic rules. Students need to know how native speakers use the language in the context of structured interpersonal exchange. In other words, "effective oral communication requires the ability to use the language appropriately in social interactions" (Shumin, 2002:204). Due to the importance of the notion of communicative competence, a number of language and language learning experts (e.g. Canale & Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1971) elaborated the nature of this concept. Hymes's (1971) theory of communicative competence consists of the interaction of grammatical, psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, and probabilistic language components. For Canale and Swain (1980), communicative competence includes four components of competence: grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. In the context of second/foreign language learning, Canale and Swain's interpretation of communicative competence has been frequently referred to. How these four components of competence underlie speaking proficiency is graphically shown by Shumin (2002:207) as in Figure 2.
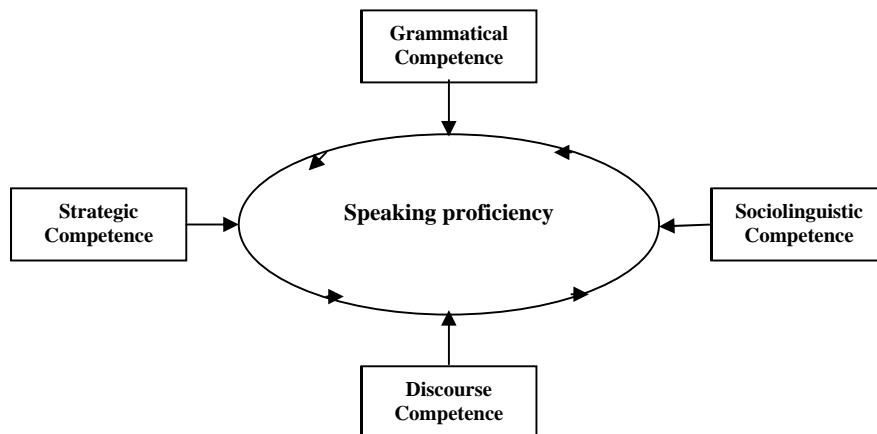
Figure 2. Speaking proficiency and the components of communicative competence (Shumin, 2002:207)

As can be seen from the figure, speaking proficiency is influenced by all four components of competence. Grammatical competence, the first component, is linguistic competence (Savignon, 1983:36), that is, the ability to perform the grammatical well-formedness. It is mastery of the linguistic code, the ability to recognize the lexical, morphological, syntactic, and phonological features of a language and to manipulate these features to form words and sentences. In the case of speaking activities, grammatical competence enables speakers to use and understand English-language structures accurately, which in turn contributes to their fluency.

Another component is sociolinguistic competence, which requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the roles of the participants, the information they share, and the function of interaction (Savignon, 1983:37). This competence helps prepare speakers for effective and appropriate use of the target language. They should employ the rules and norms governing the appropriate timing and realization of speech acts (Shumin, 2002:207). Understanding the sociolinguistic side of language enables speakers to know what comments are appropriate, how to ask questions during interaction and how to respond nonverbally according to the purpose of the speaking.

In addition, students need to develop discourse competence. This is concerned with the connection of a series of sentences or utterances, or intersentential relationships, to form a meaningful whole (Savignon, 1983:38). To become effective speakers, students should acquire a large repertoire of structures and discourse markers to express ideas. Using this, students can manage turn taking in communication (Shumin, 2002:207). In their review of a discourse-based approach in the teaching of EFL speaking, Luciana and Aruan (2005:15) stated that the discourse-based approach "enables students to develop and utilize the basic elements of spoken discourse in English involving not only a full linguistic properties but also the knowledge of proposition, context and sociocultural norms underlying the speech".

The fourth component of communicative competence is strategic competence, that is, the ability to employ strategies to compensate for imperfect knowledge of rules (Savignon, 1983:39), be it linguistic, sociolinguistic, or discourse rules. It is analogous to the need for coping or survival strategies. With reference to speaking activities, strategic competence refers to the ability to keep a conversation going. For example, when second/ foreign language learners encounter a communication breakdown as they forget what a particular word in the target language is to refer to a particular thing, they try to explain it by mentioning the characteristics of the thing, thus employing a type of communication strategies (Cahyono, 1989).

The concept of communicative competence as explained above implies also the essential purposes of spoken language. Spoken language functions interactionally and transactionally. Interactionally, spoken language is intended to maintain social relationships, while transactionally, it is meant to convey information and ideas (Yule, 2001:6). Speaking activities involve two or more people using the language for either interactional or transactional purposes. Because much of our daily communication remains interactional (Shumin, 2002:208), *interaction* is the key to teaching language for communication. In addition, as believed by the "interaction hypothesis" in second language acquisition, learners learn faster through interacting, or active use of language (Miller, 1998). It is also important to note that interaction requires understanding of the social background of those involved in communication. In her article addressing oral proficiency from the intercultural perspective, Luciana (2005) suggested that when two parties are interacting, they need to consider some sociocultural aspects that they bring with them, thus necessitating the importance of intercultural understanding.

To summarize, it becomes clear to us that speaking or oral communication has been considered an important language skill for second/foreign language learners even though, depending on the approaches and methods of language teaching, this skill was not treated as equally important to the other language skills. It is also apparent that, naturally, to speak is not only to convey a message that someone else needs or to get information which has not been known, but, more importantly, to interact with other people. The remainder of this article focuses on the discussion of the teaching of EFL speaking in the Indonesian context by using these two aspects (i.e., information gap and interaction) as the pedagogical basis in the analysis of EFL speaking instruction. The following section will first provide the background to speaking English in Indonesia before other aspects of the practice of teaching of EFL speaking such as activities, materials, and students' oral proficiency, are discussed.

SPEAKING ENGLISH IN THE INDONESIAN CONTEXT

Considering the current status of English as a foreign language in Indonesia, not so many people use it in their day-to-day communication. However, in certain communities in this country English has been used for various reasons (Musyahda, 2002), leading to the fact that some people use it as the second language. For example, in the academic level, some of the scholars are quite familiar with English and occasionally use it as a means for communicating. Those involved in the main level of management such as bankers and government officials also use code-mixing and code-switching in Indonesian and English. The use of English among teenagers such as in seminars for youth or among middle-level workers in the workplaces and the use of English by radio announcers or television presenters can be easily found (Azis, 2003). Moreover, the development of tourism lead to the growing number of people from this sector, such as tour guides and hotel receptionists, who use English.

In spite of the fact that more Indonesians use English in their daily life, many (e.g., Nur, 2004; Renandya, 2004) consider that English instruction is a failure in this country. One of the reasons for the failure is that there has been no unified national system of English education (Huda, 1997) and, therefore, improvements of English communicative ability are painstakingly made. In reality, as the world is changing very rapidly towards a global vil-

lage, human resource development becomes a central issue and an ability to communicate internationally is an important quality of the manpower. Global market places often require the ability to use English.

The main challenge for this country thus is to develop an educational system resulting in human quality competitive at international level. This is relevant to the significant change that took place in the real needs for English in Indonesia (Huda, 1997). The need for English ability in the fifties and sixties was limited to academic purposes at the university level. Today, individuals need English in order to communicate with others at international forums. Accordingly, efforts need to be continuously made concerning quality improvements of English instruction in Indonesia. More particularly, curriculum of English education that can be effective to produce graduates who are able to communicate at international level is needed.

The challenge to compete at international level seems to have been thought of by some English language teaching researchers or specialists. Although an ideal curriculum may not be attempted in the near future, the challenge results in the application of some classroom activities in the teaching of EFL speaking. The following section examines the practice of teaching EFL speaking in the Indonesian context as the efforts of developing students' oral English proficiency.

THE PRACTICE OF TEACHING EFL SPEAKING IN THE INDONESIAN CONTEXT

In the last quarter of the century, the teaching of EFL speaking in Indonesia has been closely connected to the concept of communicative competence which is emphasized within the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach. As this approach values interaction among students in the process of language learning, classroom activities have a central role in enabling the students interact and thus improve their speaking proficiency. This section presents reports, either based on research or classroom practice, on how speaking teaching has been carried out in Indonesia. The reports, mostly dealing with tertiary-level students, can be categorized into those dealing with teaching problems, classroom activities, teaching materials, and assessment. Such reports will provide a glimpse view of teaching EFL speaking in Indonesian classrooms.

Reports on Teaching Problems

An issue which has been extensively discussed in the literature concerns the level of Indonesian learners' EFL speaking proficiency. A number of reports show that Indonesian learners commonly have not attained a good level of oral English proficiency. For example, Mukminatien (1999) found that students of English departments have a great number of errors when speaking. The errors include pronunciation (e.g., word stress and intonation), grammatical accuracy (e.g., tenses, preposition, and sentence construction), vocabulary (e.g., incorrect word choice), fluency (e.g., frequent repair), and interactive communication (i.e., difficulties in getting the meaning across or keeping the conversation going). Similarly, Ihsan (1999) found that students are likely to make errors which include the misuse of parts of speech, syntactical construction, lexical choice, and voice. Both Ihsan's and Mukminatien's research studies supported earlier results of research conducted by Eviyuliwati (1997) who reported that students had difficulties in using grammar and in applying new vocabulary items in speaking class. With regards to the students' frequent errors in speaking, Mukminatien (1999) suggested teachers provide their learners with more sufficient input for acquisition in the classroom and encourage them to use English either in or outside the classroom.

As the ability to speak English is a very complex task considering the nature of what is involved in speaking, not all of the students in an EFL speaking class have the courage to speak. Many of the students feel anxious in a speaking class (Padmadewi, 1998), and some are likely to keep silent (Tutyandari, 2005). Based on her research, Padmadewi (1998) found out that students attending a speaking class often felt anxious due to pressure from the speaking tasks which require them to present individually and spontaneously within limited time. Tutyandari (2005) mentioned that students keep silent because they lack self confidence, lack prior knowledge about topics, and because of poor teacher-learner relationship. In order to cope with students' limited knowledge, she advised speaking teachers activate the students' prior knowledge by asking questions related to topics under discussion. She also mentioned that students' self-confidence can be enhanced and their anxiety reduced by giving them tasks in small groups. Both Padmadewi and Tutyandari emphasized the importance of tolerance on the part of the teacher. More particularly, Tutyandari recommended that the teacher act as a

teacher-counselor who provides supports and supply students' needs for learning, rather than as one who imposes a predetermined program, while Padmadewi suggested that there should be a close relationship between the teacher and the students.

Citraningtyas (2005) stated that a silent speaking class can be made more alive by assigning tasks which promote students' critical and creative thinking skills. For example, when students discuss providing a shelter for homeless children of Aceh due to Tsunami, they may be asked whether adopting the children could be an option. Based on his classroom action research, Wasimin (2005) suggested that students' interaction in English can be improved by providing them with jazz chants exercises. Jazz chants exercises refer to recorded expressions based on English used in speech situations in the American context. Although expressions in jazz chants are not spoken naturally as everyday English, they are clearly pronounced, rhythmic and mostly repetitive (see Graham, 1978). Wasimin added that jazz chantz exercises improved students' accuracy in pronunciation and intonation, as well as their fluency in responding to questions addressed to them.

In short, the problems that Indonesian EFL learners face in developing their speaking performance relate not only to their linguistic and personality factors, but also the types of classroom tasks provided by the teachers. Thus, this section suggests that teachers have an important role in fostering learners' ability to speak English well. For this, teachers need to help maintain good relation with EFL learners, to encourage them to use English more often, and to create classroom activities in order to enhance students' interaction. The next section specifically presents reports on types of activities in EFL speaking classroom.

Report on Classroom Activities

The teaching of EFL speaking can be focused on either training the students to speak accurately (in terms of, for example, pronunciation and grammatical structures) or encouraging them to speak fluently. The former is considered to be form-based intruction while the latter is considered to be meaning-based instruction (Murdibjono, 1998). Each of these focuses of instruction has its own characteristics. Form-focused instruction aims to provide learners with language forms (e.g., phrases, sentences, or dialogues) which can be practiced and memorized so that these forms can be used

whenever the learners need them. The activities, usually teacher-centered, include repetition and substitution drills which are essentially used to activate phrases or sentences that learners have understood. In contrast, meaning-focused instruction, usually student-centered, aims to make learners able to communicate and the teacher, therefore, plays a role more as a facilitator than a teacher.

Our review of the literature on the teaching of EFL speaking in Indonesia shows that meaning-based instruction has been given more emphasis and it is conducted through various classroom activities. While many activities in the classrooms have been oriented to speaking for real communication (e.g., Rachmajanti, 1995), some activities are conducted merely for giving students opportunities to practice speaking, such as to "speak" through games (e.g., Murdibjono, 1998) or through repeating patterns (Hariyanto, 1997). Interestingly, activities described in those reports are usually based on the teaching experience of the authors. Although these types of activities are not necessarily based on keen research analysis, to a certain extent they seem to have a degree of reliability as they are based on observation following learners' practice.

In terms of the number of students involved, EFL speaking activities can be classified into individual and group activities. Individual activities such as story-telling, describing things, and public speech are usually transactional, while group activities such as role-plays, paper presentation, debates, small group/panel discussions are interactional. Unlike group activities which have been given much attention in the literature, individual activities are usually listed as activities which can be taught in EFL speaking, yet rarely explored in-depth. Therefore, in the following discussion, group activities are highlighted.

The use of role-plays in EFL speaking classrom is recommended by some authors (e.g., Danasaputra, 2003; Diani, 2005; Murdibjono, 1998). According to Murdibjono (1998), in a role play students are asked to pretend to be someone who is involved in a speech situation in the real-life, such as a shopkeeper and a buyer, people who are involved in shopping. Danusaputra (2003) compared the effectiveness of role-play and dialogue techniques to encourage students to speak in EFL classroom. The students were divided into two classes, each was taught using the two different techniques, but given the same topics. These topics were ones which had situation (e.g., at the grocery and at the restaurant) and language functions (e.g., complaining,

showing regret, and expressing uncertainty). She found that both techniques can be effectively used in EFL classrooms. However, dialogues were found to be more helpful than the role-plays to make students speak as naturally and communicatively as possible.

Diani (2005) combined role-play and dialogue techniques in the form of interviews. Four students in her class were assigned roles as interviewers who will recruit new staffs and the rest of the students were the interviewees having roles as job applicants. Prior to the interview, the interviewees were asked to prepare a job application letter and their curriculum vitae. They were also asked to ensure the interviewers that they have the skills for positions offered. Diani reported that this technique encouraged her students to do their best in the competition to get a job. She stated that assigning students to have an interview in a speaking class reduces their feeling of shyness and, in turn, encourages them to speak more. Thus, the combined dialogue and and role-play techniques in the forms of interview are effective in making students speak more actively in their speaking class.

Another activity that can be assigned to EFL students is paper presentation (e.g., Purjayanti, 2003; Tomasowa, 2000). Tomasowa (2000) assigned her students to have group works in order to conduct a paper presentation, which she called "seminar" (p. 5), of topics that have been provided in the available handbook. She stated that through presentation students had opportunities to talk about a particular topic and discuss mispronunciation or wrong word choice following the presentation. She added that presentation is effective to manage students in a large class. In a similar vein, Purjayanti (2003) found presentation to be helpful to encourage students to communicate ideas in their fields of study. As she stated, presentation is "a useful, interesting and favorable way of learning speaking" (p. 9). She added that through presentation and its preparation students were able not only to practice speaking, but also to search for materials and deliver them in an organized way.

Small group discussion is another activity that can be conducted in EFL speaking classroom. The aim of small group discussion is to enable learners to be actively involved in a discussion involving a limited number of students. Murdibjono (2001:141-142) argues that small group discussion is effective because students have more time to practice speaking and, as students practice speaking with classmates they have already known, they are not hindered by psychological barriers. In her classroom action research, Wi-

jayanti (2005) divided her students into a number of small groups and gave them a task called Talking about Something in English (TASE). Wijayanti found that small grouping with TASE task provided the students with opportunities to perform their speaking abilities and that they felt motivated to speak more. Similarly, Karana (2005) found out that her small groups of students were enthusiastic to perform a talk show on various topics of their choices as they have been familiar with a talk show program such as the one managed by a well-known American talk-show presenter, Oprah Winfrey.

Rachmajanti (1995) advised the use of "combining arrangement" to teach EFL speaking. Combining arrangement refers to meaning-based activities where learners are asked to perform tasks using information that can be gained from other learners. These activities aim to provide opportunities for learners to communicate in a natural situation. Some of the recommended activities include "completing incomplete pictures" and the variation which is called "same or different", and "partly completed crossword puzzle". These speaking activities are claimed to provide learners with a natural situation as learners ask "real questions" to their partners or other learners, not "display questions" (Lightbown & Spada, 1993:78) whose aswers have already been known.

The EFL speaking activities outlined above suggest that group activities are strikingly more dominant than individual activities, implying that Indonesian classrooms are rich with interaction of various patterns. As Kasim's (2004) research showed, EFL speaking classroom was of five interaction patterns: teacher-class, teacher-group, teacher-student, student-student, and student-teacher. Moreover, the frequency of group over individual activities increases the teacher's role as a facilitator in the students' negotiation of meaning. Kasim pointed out that the increasing motivation of the students to talk to each other in the target language as the semester progressed was partly due to the facilitation of the speaking class, which was done by focusing more on meaning rather than on form. While many of the group activities seem to increase interaction among EFL learners, only some (e.g., small group discussion and combining arrangement) uphold the information-gap feature of natural conversation. As a result, not all of the classroom activities have been conditioned for triggering students' more spontaneous expressions.

Reports on Teaching Materials

An important aspect of speaking activities is how students are made ready to speak. This deals with the importance of materials for communicative activities in the classroom. A traditional approach is to assign the students to search for materials of their own from any sources (e.g., magazines, books, and the Internet) and use them to complete tasks in the EFL classroom. The speaking tasks can be in the forms of individual and transactional message delivery such as describing objects, reporting, and telling stories (Rachmajanti, 2005), the presentation of which may be accompanied by the use of common media such as realia, pictures and, as Risnadedi (2005) reported, puppets.

A variation of the conventional approach is to assign the students to construct materials of their own based on their own prior knowledge and searched materials and then share these materials to other students in a small group before members of this group disperse to share the materials to classmates in other groups (Purjayanti, 2005). Because the students get the materials before they attend their speaking class, there is a possibility that they practice before performing in the class, thus the type of speech can be prefabricated utterances or it may lack spontaneity.

Another approach is to provide the students with input for speaking activities right in the classroom. Unlike the traditional approach which is based on the independent effort of the students in searching materials, this approach mainly depends on the teacher's decision making. The teacher designs tasks for the speaking activities, chooses types of materials, and determines the media for presenting the materials. As the students get the materials for speaking when they are in the classroom, they are likely to be more spontaneous, which is more natural, when expressing messages. Due to the importance of this classroom input provision approach, the remainder of this section focuses on various input providing activities to supply materials for students' speaking activities.

One of the ways to provide input for the learners is through watching video (e.g., Cahyono, 1997; Rachmajanti, 1994). In her article on video input in teaching speaking, Rachmajanti (1994) stated that video is beneficial to present both linguistic and non-linguistic aspects. The materials presented in the video include short films of the documentary and narrative types. She also prepared a number of lesson plans in order to help teachers use video in

their EFL speaking classrooms. Similarly, Cahyono (1997:134) stated that video, if used competently, can be a motivating means to learn English. He also outlined what teachers can do before students watch the video, when they are watching and after watching. Thus, both Rachmajanti and Cahyono agree that video is a resourceful tool for teaching EFL speaking.

Related to the use of visual materials, Rarastesa (2004:323) pointed out that students can be equipped with materials from movies. In her opinion, movies may have various topics that can be selected for classroom use. For example, the students in her classroom watched *My Best Friend's Wedding,* a movie combining topics of love, friendship, betrayal and sacrifice. Materials from the movie are considered advantageous as students learn not only about the topics that they could share in the classroom, but they can also express their own opinions and values with regard to cultural aspects of the movies.

Ruslan (1997) highlighted the values of reading literary works (e.g., novels or drama) in developing students' communicative competence. He stated that literary works are authentic materials as they contain native speakers' cultural samples and disclose social backgrounds of the characters which may resemble the real life. Thus, students can discover the life sides of the characters such as values, beliefs, attitudes, customs, and their secrets. Dukut (2004:312-313) supported Ruslan by explaining that literary works may be used to introduce cultural aspects of the native speakers. For example, she asked her students to read John Steinback's *The Grapes of Wrath* in order to know more about American cultural identity, especially in the era of the Great Depression.

The importance of teaching cultural aspects of the language is also emphasized by Gunawan (2005). However, according to him, cultural materials need to be taught more directly in the speaking classroom, not incidentally through movies or literary works. Such cultural materials may include issues such as punctuality, cross-cultural differences in terms of table manners, clothes, and social relationship. To teach these materials, for instance, teachers need to prepare worksheets or handouts (e.g., multiple choice questionnaire, anecdote texts, and a list of contradictory situations) containing cross-culturally different issues that can be used as materials for discussion. Gunawan pointed out that such cultural materials will be able to increase the student's awareness when using English to interact with native speakers, thus avoiding cross-cultural misunderstanding.

To sum up, materials for speaking can be prepared either by the students based on specific tasks assigned by the teacher or provided by the teacher alone. In practice the use of these two types of materials may involve students working individually or in groups. However, materials prepared by the students may result in memorized or prefabricated utterances, while those prepared by the teacher are likely to enhance spontaneity in students' speaking performance.

Reports on Speaking Assessment

In addition to the pedagogical issues, it is important to be aware of aspects related to the teaching of EFL speaking such as the availability of standards of EFL speaking proficiency that can be used as a guideline for instructional activities and the results of tests used to measure learners' speaking proficiency.

Rusdi (2003) emphasized the importance of having standards for students' speaking proficiency as standards will ensure their good command of English. The standards include what functions of language should be mastered by students and what type of evaluation should be used to assess students' speaking proficiency. With regard to the latter in particular, Rusdi argues that students who are considered to pass a speaking proficiency test are those who acquire more than seventy percent of the language functions set out in a period of instruction. Mukminatien (2005) argues that the standards applied for learners who are still in elementary level of oral proficiency should be different from those who are already in the higher levels. She suggested that assessment for the former group of students may be focused on aspects of uterance such as pronunciation, intonation, and stress, whereas for the latter group of students, assessment should be focused on language function such as abilities to tell stories, to report an event, and many other communicative purposes.

Once the standards for students' speaking proficiency have been determined and the language functions included in the instructional materials, the next thing to do is to test the students' speaking profiency. Speaking tests may be classified into two: direct approach, which aims at measuring students' speaking proficiency by asking them to speak, and indirect approach, which requires them to give or choose best responses for a speech situation (Mukminatien, 1995). Our literature review shows that discussion and re-

search results addressing students' speaking proficiency (e.g., Mukminatien, 1998) have been commonly based on the direct approach of testing (e.g., Sulistyo, 1998). The results of such testing are usually presented in the form of description of the level of students' speaking proficiency, problems the students face, and suggested methods to improve students' speaking proficiency.

An issue which may appear when applying the direct approach of testing concerns the objectivity of those in charge of testing. According to Yuliasri (2005:3-5), to increase objectivity, or reduce subjectivity, teachers are recommended to use "alternative assessment", which is the antithesis of the "standardized assessment" or "traditional assessment." In speaking, alternative assessment refers to "continuous assessment", a form of evaluation of students' speaking proficiency based on day-to-day record of evaluation. An important part of this type of assessment is the criteria to judge students' performance (e.g., students' speech comprehensibility, organization of the spoken materials, and the way the messages are delivered) and the quality categories of the students' performance (e.g., superior, advanced, intermediate, and novice). Yuliasri suggested that the clarity of these two components of alternative assessment will reduce subjectivity in assessing students' speaking proficiency.

The review of reports on the practice of EFL speaking as presented above shows that developing oral English proficiency has been the concern of researchers and educators in Indonesia. The discussion of various aspects of the practice also suggests the complex nature of what is involved in developing oral proficiency in a foreign language context. The review of reports on the problems in the teaching of EFL speaking indicates that teachers are challenged to cope with various factors in language learning either linguistic or non-linguistic ones. A variety of classroom activities and teaching materials appear to have been used to deal with these problems and these efforts have contributed to the increase in the learners' enthusiasm and interaction their speaking classes. However, as the results are not yet satisfactory, attention should be given to other factors that might inhibit or facilitate the production of spoken language. For example, learners need to be given more sufficient input for acquisition in the classroom through tasks reflecting the application of information gap feature of natural communication. Furthermore, due to the status of English as a foreign language, learners need to be encouraged to use English both in and outside the classroom (see Mukmi-

natien, 1999).

Richards & Renandya (2002) pointed out that the nature of speaking as well as the factors involved in producing fluent and appropriate speech, be it linguistic or non-linguistic, needs to be understood in developing oral proficiency. Accordingly, classroom activities should be selected on the basis of problems learners experience with different aspects of speaking and the kinds of interaction the activities provide. For example, form-based instruction (which emphasize language forms, pronunciation and memorization) is more suitable for elementary level of EFL learners, while meaning-based instruction (which focuses on speaking for communicative purposes) is given to more advanced level of learners (see Mukminatien, 2005; Murdibjono, 1998). Briefly stated, promoting competent speakers of English, especially as a foreign language and in the Indonesian context, is not a simple task; it requires careful analyses of components underlying effective communication, linguistic as well as non-linguistic factors, and various aspects contributing to successful instruction.

CONCLUSION

As one of the central elements of communication, speaking needs special attention and instruction in an EFL context like the one in Indonesia. Helping learners speak English fluently and appropriately needs carefully-prepared instruction (e.g., determining learning tasks, activities and materials) and a lot of practice (i.e., either facilitated by the teachers in the classroom or independently performed by the learners outside the classroom) due to minimal exposure to the target language and contact with native speakers in the context.

We have attempted to review the teaching practice and the research of EFL speaking in the Indonesian context. The review indicates that various classroom activities and teaching materials have been created, selected, and implemented to promote Indonesian learners' EFL speaking proficiency. However, a number of linguistic and non-linguistic factors need to be considered in conducting speaking classes.

Since there has been no unified national system concerning the development of oral proficiency in the English instruction, future programs and research should be directed toward providing rigorous guidance in developing competent speakers of English, involving considerations of components

underlying speaking effectiveness, factors affecting successful oral communication, and ways of improving speaking abilities.

REFERENCES

Artini, L. P. (1998). Is Speaking Easier than Wwriting? Exploring the Complexity of Spoken Language. *Jurnal Ilmu Pendidikan, 5* (Supplementary edition), 38-48.

Azis, E. A. (2003). Indonesian English: What's "det tuh"? *TEFLIN Journal, 14* (1): 140-148.

Byrne, D. (1980). *English Teaching Perspectives.* Essex, U. K.: Longman.

Cahyono, B. Y. Communication Strategies. *TEFLIN Journal, 2*(2), 17-29.

Cahyono, B. Y. (1997). *Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris: Teknik, Strategi, dan Hasil Penelitian.* Malang: Penerbit IKIP Malang.

Citraningtyas, C. E. C. (2005, Desember). *Breaking the Silence: Promoting Critical and Creative Thinking Skills Through the Traditionally Passive English Subjects.*

Danasaputra**,** I. R. (2003). *Dialogue vs Role Play Techniques.* Paper Presented at the 51st TEFLIN International Conference, Bandung, Indonesia.

Diani, A. (2005, March). *Some Techniques tomake shy students active.* Paper presented at LIA international conference, Jakarta.

Dukut, E. M. (2004). Making use of photographs to enhance cultural understanding: An American studies approach. In B. Y. Cahyono & U. Widiati (Eds*.), The tapestry of English language teaching and learning in Indonesia* (pp. 307-316). Malang: State University of Malang Press.

Eviyuliwati, I. (1997). *The teaching of functional skills and communicative expressions at SMU IKIP Malang based on the 1994 English curriculum:* A case study. *English Language Education, 3*(1), 55-60.

Graham, C. (1978). *Jazz chants, rhythm of American English for students of English as a second language.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Gunawan, M. H. (2005, March). *Cross-cultural activities: Strategies for intercultural communication in EFL context. Paper* presented at LIA international conference, Jakarta.

Hariyanto, S. (1997). Achieving a good communicative performance with better grammatical mastery using "bridging technique". In E. Sadtono (Ed.), *The Development of TEFL in Indonesia* (pp. 110-124). Malang:

Penerbit IKIP Malang.

Harmer, J. (1991). *The practice of English language teaching.* Essex, UK: Longman.

Huda, N. (1997). A national strategy in achieving English communication ability: Globalization perspectives. *Jurnal Ilmu Pendidikan, 4*(Special Edition), 281-292.

Ihsan, D. (1999). Speaking and writing errors made by students of English education. *Jurnal Ilmu Pendidikan*, 6(3), 222-234.

Karana, K. P. (2005, March). *Talk show as a way to encourage listening-speaking in the classroom.* Paper presented at LIA international conference, Jakarta.

Kasim, U. (2004). Classroom interaction in the English Department speaking class at State University of Malang. *Jurnal Ilmu Pendidikan, 11*(3), 232-243.

Lightbown, P. M. & Spada, N. (1993). *How languages are learned.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Luciana, & Aruan, D. A. (2005, March). *A discourse-based approach.* Paper presented at LIA international conference, Jakarta.

Luciana. (2005). Developing learner oral communication: Intercultural perspective. In J. A. Foley (Ed.), *New dimensions in the teaching of oral communication* (pp. 20-32). Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.

Miller, K. S. (1998). Teaching speaking. In K. Johnson & H. Johnson (Eds.), *Encyclopedic dictionary of applied* linguistics (pp. 335-341). Oxford: Blackwell.

Mukminatien, N. (1995). The scoring procedures of speaking assessment. *English Language Education, 1*(1), 17-25.

Mukminatien, N. (1999). The problem of developing speaking skills: Limitations of second language acquisition in an EFL classroom. *English Language Education, 5*(1), 1-10.

Mukminatien, N. (2005). Scoring rubrics for speaking assesment in the secondary school EFL classroom. In J. A. Foley (Ed.), *New dimensions in the teaching of oral communication* (pp. 228-239). Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.

Murdibjono. (1998). Teaching speaking: From form-focused to meaning-focused instruction. *English Language Education, 4*(1), 1-12.

Murdibjono. (2001). Conducting small group discussion. *Bahasa dan Seni,*

19(1), 139-150.

Musyahda, L. (2002). Becoming bilingual: A view towards cmmunicative competence. *TEFLIN Journal, 13*(1): 12-21.

Nur, C. (2004). English language teaching in Indonesia: Changing policies and practical constraints. In H. W. Kam & R. Y. L. Wong (Eds.), *English language teaching in East Asia today: Changing policies and practice* (pp. 178-186). Singapore: Eastern Universities Press.

Padmadewi, N. N. (1998). Students' anxiety in speaking class and ways of minimizing it. *Jurnal Ilmu Pendidikan, 5(*Supplementary Edition), 60-67).

Prator, C. H. (1991). Cornerstones of method and names for the profession. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (2nd ed.) (pp. 11-22). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Purjayanti, A. (2003, October). *Presentation in speaking class.* Paper presented at the 51st TEFLIN International conference, Bandung, Indonesia.

Purjayanti, A. (2005, December). *Shared materials in a speaking class.* Paper presented at the 53rd TEFLIN International conference, Yogyakarta, Indonesia.

Rachmajanti, S. (1994). Video input in teaching speaking. *Bahasa dan Seni, 22*(1), 52-65.

Rachmajanti, S. (1995). The role of the combining arrange in the speaking class. *English Language Education, 1*(1), 8-16.

Rachmajanti, S. (2005). *Course outline: Speaking II.* Course outline used in the first semester of 2005/2005 academic year at the English department of the State University of Malang.

Rarastesa, Z. (2004). Introducing culture in ELT classroom: Experience in the teaching of pronunciation and speaking. In B. Y. Cahyono & U. Widiati (Eds*.), The tapestry of English language teaching and learning in Indonesia* (pp. 317-325). Malang: State University of Malang Press.

Renandya, W. A. (2004). Indonesia. In. H. W. Kam & R. Y. L. Wong (Eds.), *Language policies and language education: The impact in East Asian countries in the next decade* (pp. 115-131). Singapore: Eastern Universities Press.

Richards, J. C., & Renandya, W. A. (Eds.). (2002), *Methodology in language teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (1986). *Approaches and methods in lan-*

guage teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge Language Teaching Library.

Riggenbach, H., & Lazaraton, A. (1991). Promoting oral communication skills. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (2nd ed.) (pp. 125-136). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Risnadedi. (2005, December). *Developing students' speaking ability through puppet shows at SMP Negeri 17 Pekanbaru.* Paper presented at the 53rd TEFLIN International conference, Yogyakarta, Indonesia.

Rusdi. (2003, October). *Developing standards for students' speaking skill at high schools.* Paper presented at the 51st TEFLIN International conference, Bandung, Indonesia.

Ruslan, S. (1997). Back to literature: A path to communicative competence. In E. Sadtono (Ed.), *The Development of TEFL in Indonesia* (pp. 202-206). Malang: Penerbit IKIP Malang.

Savignon, S. J. (1983). *Communicative competence: Theory and classroom practice.* Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.

Shumin, K. (2002). Factors to consider: Developing adult EFL students' speaking abilities. J. C. Richards, & W. A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching* (pp. 204-211). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sulistyo, G. H. (1999). Developing a scoring grid for assessing speaking abilities. *English Language Education, 5*(1), 13-26.

Tutyandari, C. (2005, December). *Breaking the silence of the students in an English language class.* Paper presented at the 53rd TEFLIN International conference, Yogyakarta, Indonesia.

Wasimin. (2005, December). *Improving students' English interaction through jazz chants model.* Paper presented at the 53rd TEFLIN International conference, Yogyakarta, Indonesia.

Wijayanti, T. (2005, December). *Improving the students' motivation in speaking through 'TASE' technique, or talking about something in English.* Paper presented at the 53rd TEFLIN International conference, Yogyakarta, Indonesia.

Yule, G. (2001). *The study of language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Yuliasri, I. (2005, March). *Minimizing Subjectivity in Assessing Speaking.* Paper Presented at LIA International Conference, Jakarta.