CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Theoretical Review

In this section, the researcher presents some terms and concepts that are related to the topic. These are speaking and pictures.

1. Speaking

a. The nature of speaking

To speak is to utter words, communicate orally, deliver a public talk or address, utter vocally, use or able to use words in speech as a foreign language (Webster, 1983).

According to Chaney (1998:13), speaking is the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts.

Florez (1999) as cited by Bailey (2005:2) asserts that speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving and processing information.

In addition, Valette (1983:120) also states that at functional level, speaking is making oneself understood. At a more refined level, speaking requires the correct and idiomatic use of the target language.

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983:140) consider that the speaking activity consists of mental and physical acts which are interrelated and which must take
place instantenously and simultaneously. They consider speaking as a complex skill which involves the knowledge of sounds, structures, vocabulary and culture subsystems of the language. Moreover, Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983:140) say that:

.....the speaker must think of the ideas they wish to express, either initiating in a conversation or responding to a previous speaker, b. Change the tongue, lips and jaw positions in order to articulate the appropriate sounds, c. Be consciously aware of the appropriate functional expressions, as well as of the grammatical, lexical, and cultural features needed to express the idea, d. Be sensitive to any change in the “register” or style necessitated by the person(s) to whom they are speaking and the situation in which the conversation is taking place, i.e. change the direction of their thought on the basis of other person’s responses.

In everyday language use, people normally focus their attention primarily on the meaning on what they say or hear rather than on its linguistic form. “Language is seen as a system of rules but also as a dynamic resource for creation of meaning” (Nunan, 1989). They would surely speak a language to communicate their ideas and feelings to others. They already know each other. They also will learn something from their neighborhood by speaking. “In speaking, we make conscious decisions about the messages we want to convey, but the lower-level choices of structure and vocabulary occur more or less automatically” (Littlewood, 1981).

Clark and Clark (1977) state that speaking is fundamentally an instrumental act. Speakers talk in order to have some effects on their listeners. They assert things to change their state of knowledge. They ask them questions to get them to provide information. They request things to get them to do things for them. They promise, bet, warn, and exclaim to affect them in still other ways. The
nature of the speech act should therefore play a central role in the process of speech production. Speakers begin with the intention of affecting their listeners in a particular way, and then select and utter a sentence they believe will bring about just this effect. Speaking, therefore, appears to be divided into two types of activity—planning and execution, utterers. Speaker firstly plan what they want to say based on how they want to change the mental state of their listeners. They then put their plan into execution, uttering the segments, words, phrases, and sentences that make up the plan.

In planning what to say, speakers implicitly have a problem to solve: What linguistic devices they should select to affect the listener the way they intend. The solution to this problem is not easy. It requires a battery of considerations, including these five:

1. Knowledge of the listener

Speech planning depends on what the speakers think about how much their listeners know. They may refer to a third person as she, my next door neighbour, the woman over there, and so on. Based on this knowledge the speakers will be able to plan their speech.

2. The Cooperative Principle

In this principle the speakers expect their listeners to assume that they are trying to be cooperative – that they are trying to tell the truth and be informative, relevant and clear. They can therefore make an exclamation about a glorious day out on a rainy day, for example, and be confident that their listeners will catch the irony.
3. The Reality Principle

Speakers expect their listeners to assume they will talk about comprehensible events, states, and facts. Thus the invented compound alligator-shoes will be constructed as “shoes made from alligators”, not as shoes for alligators, an unreal analogus to the legitimate horse-shoes.

4. The Social Context

Different social contexts lead to different uses of vocabulary. Depending on the listener’s status, speakers will address him as Floyd or Mr. Thursby. Depending on the formality of the situation, they will refer to the police as policemen or cops.

5. The Linguistic Devices Available

Many things speakers may want to talk about have no ready linguistic expression. To refer to an odd-looking house one may have to use a circumlocution like ranch-style cottage with Californian gothic trim simply because no better single expression available.

O’Malley and Pierce (1996) as quoted by Hughes (2002:74) state that speaking means negotiating intended meaning and adjusting one’s speech to produce the desired effect on the listener.
b. Teaching speaking

1) Definition

According to Harmer (2007: 123), there are three main reasons for getting students to speak in the classroom. Firstly, speaking activities provide rehearsal opportunities – chance to practice real-life speaking in the safety of the classroom. Secondly, speaking tasks in which students try to use any or of the language they know provide feedback for both teacher and students. Everyone can see how well they are doing: both successful they are, and also what language problems they are experiencing. And finally, the more students have opportunities to be active the various elements of language they have stored in their brains, the more automatic their use of these elements become. This means that they will be able to use words and phrases fluently without very much conscious thought.

Hughes (2002:135) states that there are three basic aspects of spontaneous speech which language learners need to be made aware of, and which language teachers may find it helpful to reflect on. The elements from the way speech is produced are;

a. speaking is fundamentally an interactive task; as someone speak, s/he makes an interaction with others,
b. speaking happens under real-life processing constraints; as it forces someone to do so,
c. speaking is more fundamentally linked to the individual who produces it than the written form is.
2) **English teaching curriculum in Indonesia**

The spirit of decentralization, as showed by act of local autonomy No. 22, 1999 revised by Act of local Autonomy No.32, 2004 and hand in hand with Act No. 20, 2003 has been seen in the 2006 curriculum (School-based Curriculum) launched by government.

Basically, the 2006 syllabus is as similar with the 2004 syllabus. Principle of developing the 2004 competence-based syllabus are scientific based, learner’s needs, systematic, relevant, consistent and adequate (Dikdasmen 2004:11). Furthermore, there are six steps of developing this syllabus; (1) writing subject identity, (2) formulating standard competence,(3) deciding basic competence, (4) deciding material and its explanation, (5) deciding learning strategy, and (6) deciding time allocation and resources (Dikdasmen 2004:25).

The characteristics of Curriculum 2006 are the following (DEPDIKNAS, 2006):

1) emphasizing the attainment of the students’ competence individually and classically;

2) orienting toward learning outcomes, and diversity;

3) using genre approaches in the learning process and greatly is influenced with *Systematic Functional Grammar of Halliday*.

4) accepting any other educative learning sources besides teachers;

5) emphasizing its evaluation on the learning process and outcomes in acquiring or attaining a certain competence.
6) using special terms such as standar kompetensi (Standard of Competence) refers to a minimum statement covering knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values which are reflected in the way of thinking and acting after students learned and finished one of the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing); Kompetensi Dasar (Basic Competence) refers to a minimum statement covering knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values which are reflected in the way of thinking and acting after students learned and finished one of the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing); indicator (Achievement Indicators) refers to a specific basic competence that can taken as a standard to assess the attainment of a learning process; Materi Pokok (Core Materials) refers to core materials or lessons that students have to learn in a learning process.

c. Teaching speaking to senior high schools

Based on Standard of Competences and Basic Competence of English teaching and learning for Senior High Schools KTSP 2006, teaching English to senior high schools is directed to develop students’ communication ability in a certain literacy level. Those literacy levels are performative, functional, informational and epistemic. In performative level, students are able to read, write, listen, and speak with symbols used. In functional level, students can use the language to fulfill their daily needs like reading newspapers and manuals. Meanwhile, in informational level, students are able to access knowledge by their language abilities. In epistemic level students can express their knowledge to the target language.
The scopes of learning speaking in Senior High Schools are as follow:

a) Textual ability. It is ability to comprehend and/or produce oral texts realized in speaking skill to achieve the informational literacy level.

b) Comprehension and creation ability of many short functional texts, monologues and essays in procedure, descriptive, recount, narrative, report, news item, analytical exposition, hortatory exposition, spoof, explanation, discussion, review, and public speaking. The materials’ gradation appears in the use of vocabulary, grammar, and rhetorical steps.

c) Supports Competence. It includes linguistic competence (the use of vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation), socio-cultural competence (the use of idioms and speech act in various contexts), strategy competence (to solve the problems appeared in the communication process with many ways to maintain the communication process) and textual creation competence (the use of media to create a text).

d. Speaking teaching techniques

Technique is a procedure used to accomplish a specific activity or task. There are some techniques to teach speaking according to Nunan (2003: 156-158):

a. Information gap

Information gap is a useful activity in which one person has information that the other lacks. They must use the target language to share that information.
For instance, one student has the direction to a party and must give the information to a classmate.

b. Jigsaw activities

Jigsaw activities are bidirectional or multidirectional information gap. Each person in a pair or group has some information the other person needs. For example, one student could have a timetable for train travel in Canada. Another could have a map of Canada. Without showing each other the visual information, they must speak English to plan a week trip.

c. Role plays

Role plays are also excellent activities for speaking in the relatively safe environment of the classroom. In a role play, students are given particular roles in the target language. For example, one student plays the role of a police officer trying to help the tourist file a report. Role plays give learners practice speaking the target language before they must do so in a real environment.

d. Simulations

Simulations are more elaborate than role plays. In a simulation, properties and documents provide a somewhat realistic environment for language practice. So for instance, in a language lesson about the grocery store, a teacher might bring in ‘product’ for the students to buy (a box of crackers, coffee, a jar of jam) and even play money for making their purchases. A check out counter would be set up for the students to practice transactional speaking with the cashier.
e. Contact assignments

Contact assignments involve sending students out of the classroom with a stated purpose to talk to people in the target language. For example, at a grocery store, they would have to ask how soon a shipment of fresh fruit would be delivered.

Teachers can also use contact assignments in foreign language contexts if there are tourists, exchange students, or international business persons for your students to talk to in the target language. In a train station or at ferry terminal, for example, students can interview tourists. Afterwards the students compile the results of the class survey and report what they learned. In designing a contact assignment, be sure the required information cannot be gotten by reading available written information. The point is to get the students to speak with people using the target language.

There are some principles proposed by Brown (2000) for designing speaking techniques. Those are as follow:

1. Use techniques that cover the spectrum of learners’ needs, from language-based focus on accuracy to message-based focus on interaction, meaning, and fluency.

Make sure that our tasks include techniques designed to help students to perceive and use the building blocks of language. Do not bore your students to death with lifeless, repetitious drills.
2. Provide intrinsically motivating techniques.

Help the students to see how the activity will benefit them. Often students don’t know why we ask them to do certain things; it usually pays to tell them.

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

It takes energy and creativity to devise authentic contexts and meaningful interaction, but with the help of a storehouse of teacher resource material, it can be done.

4. Provide appropriate feedback and correction.

It is important to take advantage of teachers’ knowledge of English to inject the kinds of corrective feedback that are appropriate for the moment.

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

When teachers focus on speaking goals, listening goals may naturally coincide, and the two skills can reinforce each other. Skills in producing language are often initiated through comprehension.

6. Give students opportunities to initiate oral communication.

Part of oral communication competence is the ability to initiate conversations, to nominate topics, to ask questions, to control conversations, and to change the subject.
7. Encourage the development of speaking strategies.

Students have a chance to practice such strategies like asking for clarification (what?), asking someone to repeat something (Huh? excuse me?), using fillers (Uh, I mean, well) in order to gain time to process, and so on.

e. Types of classroom speaking performance

According to Brown, there are six types of classroom speaking performance (2000:271):

1. Imitative

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

2. Intensive

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

3. Responsive

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

4. Transactional

Transactional language, carried out for the purpose of conveying or exchanging specific information, is an extended form of responsive language. Conversations, for example, may have more of a negotiative nature to them than does responsive speech.

5. Interpersonal (dialogue)

Conversation is carried out more for the purpose of maintaining social relationships than for the transmission of facts and information.

6. Extensive (monologue)

Finally, students at intermediate to advanced levels are called on to give extended monologues in the form of oral reports, summaries or perhaps short speeches. Here the register is more formal and deliberative.
f. Stages in teaching speaking

Terry (2008:5) states that there are three stages in teaching speaking:

1) Pre-communicative stages
   a) Introduce the communicative function
   b) Highlight the fixed expressions
   c) Point out the target structure
   d) Provide students with the necessary vocabulary
   e) Provide students with the language of interaction

2) Practice stage
   a) Correct students if necessary
   b) Prompt students if necessary (do it lexically)
   c) Ban (monolingual) dictionaries
   d) Aim for intelligibility

3) Communicative interaction or production stages
   a) Encourage language negotiation
   b) Take note of any aspects that may hinder communication (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar)
   c) Respect students’ ‘wait’ time

There are some stages in teaching speaking by using the Text-based Approach (Feez & Joyce, 1998: 28-31), they are as follows:

1. Phase 1: Building the Context

In this stage, students are:

a. introduced to the social context of an authentic model of the text type being studied.

b. explore features of the general cultural context in which the text type is used and the social purposes the text type achieves.
c. explore the immediate context of situation by investigating the register of a
model text which has been selected on the basis of the course objectives and
learner need. An exploration of register involves:

   a. Building knowledge of the topic of the model text and knowledge of the
   social activity in which the text is used e.g., job seeking.

   b. Understanding the roles and relationships of the people using the text and
   how these are established and maintained, e.g., the relationship between a
   job seeker and prospective employer.

   c. Understanding the channel of communication being used, e.g., using the
   telephone, speaking face-to-face with members of an interview panel

Context-building activities include:

   a. Presenting the context through pictures, audiovisual materials realia, excursions,
   field-trips, guest speakers, etc.

   b. Establishing the social purpose through discussions or surveys, etc.

   c. Cross-cultural activities, such as comparing differences in the use of the text in
   two cultures.

   d. Comparing the model text with other texts of the same or a contrasting type,
   e.g., comparing a job interview with a complex spoken exchange involving close
   friends, a work colleague or a stranger in a service encounter.

2. Phase 2: Modeling and Deconstructing the Text

   In this stage, students:

   a. investigate the structural pattern and language features of the model
b. compare the model with other examples of the same text type

3. Phase 3: Joint-construction of Text

In this stage:

a. students begin to contribute to the construction of whole examples of the text type.

b. the teacher gradually reduces the contribution to text construction, as the students move closer to being able to control text type independently. 

Joint-construction activities include: Teacher questioning, discussing and editing whole class construction, then scribing onto board or overhead transparency.

4. Phase 4: Independent Construction of the Text

In this stage:

a. students work independently with the text.

b. learner performances are used for achievement assessment

Independent construction activities include:

a. Listening tasks, e.g., comprehension activities in response to live or recorded material, such as performing a task, sequencing pictures numbering, ticking or underlining material on a worksheet answering questions.

b. Listening and speaking tasks, e.g., role plays, simulated or authentic dialogues

Speaking tasks, e.g., spoken presentation to class, community organization or workplace.

c. Reading tasks, e.g., comprehension activities in response to written material such as performing a task, sequencing pictures numbering, ticking or underlining material on a worksheet, answering questions.
d. Writing tasks which demand that students draft and present whole texts.

Phase 5: Linking to Related Texts

In this stage, students investigate how what they have learned in this teaching learning cycle can be related to:

a. other texts in the same or similar context.
b. future or past cycles of teaching and learning.

Activities which link the text type to related texts include:

a. Comparing the use of the text type across different fields.
b. Researching other text types used in the same field.
c. Role-playing what happens if the same text type is used by people with different roles and relationships.
d. Comparing spoken and written modes of the same text type.
e. Researching how a key language feature used in this text type is used in other text types.

2. Educational Media

a. Definition of educational media

There are definitions of media proposed by many experts. Nation (2004), for example, says that educational media are supporting materials that can motivate students and can effectively explain and illustrate subject content. His concern is on the use of materials in order to make students motivated to learn something and to make clear the content of a subject.
Additionally, Littlewood (1998) defines educational media as any tools, methods, and techniques used to make the communication and interaction between the teacher and the students more effective in the teaching learning process. Here, media can be anything, material and nonmaterial, physical and non-physical, those are useful to support the communication and interaction in the teaching learning process. It can be for explaining, motivating, or making clear the thing being discussed or talked about.

From the above discussion it can be concluded that educational media are any supporting materials, methods, or techniques for transmitting or delivering messages and making the subject contents easy to understand.

b. Types of educational media

Educational media can be classified into many types. Locates and Atkinson (1984) state that there are seven types of educational media: print media, graphic media which include overhead transparencies, charts/graphs, models/dioramas, maps, globes, and drawings, photographic media, audio media, television/video, computers, simulation and games.

For small-group interaction, media that are based on sensory experience can be classified into 5 types (Nation: 2001). They are simulation activity which includes games, role play, and simulations; visual form which includes photographic, graphic and photographic combination; audio form, audiovisual or multimedia technique, and media that can be used by other senses which include objects, specimens and models.
c. Pictures as media in the teaching learning process

Based on the discussion above, delivering materials in the teaching learning process accompanied by media will be clearer, more meaningful, and more interesting for the students than the one using nothing. Pictures as one kind of media also give impression of this.
Sadiman (1990:29-30) states that picture is a general verbal communication that can be understood and available everywhere. Pictures give real description of an object which are portable and can be used anytime and help an understanding on objects which are difficult to be observed. Sadiman adds that there are some reasons for using pictures in teaching and learning process. They are as following:

1. They serve concrete clues of a thing,
2) They can surpass the limitation of space and time,
3) They can surpass sight limitation,
4) They can clarify a problem, prevent and correct misconception,
5) They are inexpensive, easy to get and to be used.

Moreover, Wright (1989) says pictures as media are able to motivate students, to make the subjects that they are dealing with clearer, and to illustrate the general idea and forms of an object or action which are particular to a culture.

It is generally accepted in language teaching that students must learn to deal with chunks of language above the level of the word or the sentence. The non-verbal information helps students to predict what the text might be about, and this ability helps them to recognize the meaning more quickly. Pictures can represent these non verbal sources of information.

According to Kemp and Snellie (1989) in Burden (1994:138) the uses of pictures as instructional media have several purposes: 1) to motivate an interest or a degree of action; 2) to present information; 3) to provide instruction.

Suleman (1988:29-30) states that pictures have several advantages. First, pictures are easy to obtain, pictures can be found in newspapers, magazines, books, etc. Second, pictures have been familiar in the teaching learning process.
In the English teaching learning process pictures have been employed as media in most levels of learning, from elementary to university. Third, pictures can be used to represent tiny objects. Here a picture of small animal can be made larger than its actual size. Fourth, pictures are easy to manage. By employing a picture of a computer, a teacher does not need to bring a real computer to describe the parts of computer.

Moreover Hamalik (1982:81) lists some of advantages of pictures. They are:

1) Concrete, through pictures students can see real things clearly. The problems can be seen more easily through pictures than through lectures.
2) Room and time, in term of room, pictures representation of real thing which are sometimes of impossible to see for some reasons.
3) Lack of human sense, small thing which can not be seen with eyes, can be represented by means of pictures.
4) Explanation, pictures can be used to explain problems in the environment. It will be clear and efficient.
5) Economy, for a school that has limited budget pictures give some advantages. Pictures can be cut-outs of old or unused materials or the teacher and the students can draw pictures by themselves. Thus, the school does not need to spend much money.
6) Practical, one picture can be seen by all students in the classroom or even in the community of the school. Most pictures are easy to store and maintain after used.

Heinich, Molenda and Russel (1989:103) state the advantages of still pictures are that they can translate abstract ideas into a more realistic format; they allow instruction to move down from level of verbal symbols to a more concrete level. Pictures are readily available in books, magazines, newspapers, catalogues, and calendars. They are easy to be used because they do not require any
equipment. Also, they are relatively inexpensive and it can be used in many ways at all levels of instruction and in all disciplines.

Moreover Gerlach and Ely (1980:277) state that pictures are inexpensive and widely available. They provide common experiences for as entire group. The visual detail makes it possible to study objects which would otherwise be impossible. Pictures can help to prevent and correct misconceptions.

Pictures have functions in delivering meaning. Subiyati (1994:51) says

Pictures in a test may be functional or illustrative. If the pictures are functional, that is, if they are the means of teaching meaning, it is important to make sure that the pictures are not ambiguous. To be clear, a picture should contain only what the words mean; there should be nothing in the picture that is not mentioned in the sentences. All the irrelevant details must be removed... illustrative pictures are useful to focus the attention of the students on what the text says by helping him to imagine it. The pictures, often come in the form of crowded scenes, illustrating a single theme, like the family leaving on a holiday the countryside, summer, etc.

It is clear that the functional pictures should contain one style picture only and there should not be irrelevant details; otherwise the picture has illustrative functions.

Miarso (1999) says the functions of pictures as media are making abstract concepts concrete, representing objects that are difficult to find, representing objects that are too big, representing objects that are difficult to use, giving the same experiences and motivating students to learn. So, pictures are very appropriate as media in the teaching learning process.

In mastering a language to students, vocabulary cannot be separated from the four language skills. Wright (1989) divides the roles of pictures on language
learning based on the four English skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Wright, however, discusses these four activities under two categories: receptive and productive.

In listening and reading activities, pictures have some roles:

a. To interest the student.
b. To help to translate the meaning of the gist of the text or individual item of language.
c. To give a context for the language and students’ activity.
d. To give cultural information.
e. To contribute to the search for specific information in the text and to help the students demonstrate it non-verbally.

(Wright, 1989: 119)

Further, Wright suggests that a single picture may be used to teach the meaning of a new word or phrase to the students. However, they must avoid the ambiguity of students’ interpretation. The most useful contribution of a picture is to contribute in the students’ understanding of a more general context which is made up of pictures.

In speaking and writing activities, pictures have some roles:

a. To motivate the students to want to speak or write.
b. To create a context within which their response will have meaning.
c. To provide the student with information to use in controlled practice work. Pictures showing objects, actions, events, and relationships can cue answers to questions, substitutions and sentences completions.
d. To guide spoken and written descriptions or narrations or dialogue.
e. To promote discussion and provide reference.

(Wright, 1989: 120)

From previous explanation, pictures as a kind of media are commonly used by the teachers due to the fact that there are some advantages of using
pictures in supporting an effective and efficient teaching and learning process. It is obvious that those advantages can make the students understand better.

d. Pictures as media in teaching and learning speaking

There are some speaking activities in the classroom which use pictures as the main tools or media, as proposed by Kayi (2001):

a. Picture Narrating
   This activity is based on several sequential pictures. Students are asked to tell the story taking place in the sequential pictures by paying attention to the criteria provided by the teacher as a rubric. Rubrics can include the vocabulary or structures they need to use while narrating.

b. Picture Describing
   Another way to make use of pictures in a speaking activity is to give students just one picture and having them describe what it is in the picture. For this activity students can form groups and each group is given a different picture. Students discuss the picture with their groups, then a spokesperson for each group describes the picture to the whole class. This activity fosters the creativity and imagination of the learners as well as their public speaking skills.

c. Find the Difference
   For this activity students can work in pairs and each couple is given two different pictures, for example, picture of boys playing football and another picture of girls playing tennis. Students in pairs discuss the similarities and/or differences in the pictures.

In conclusion, most stimulants come through eyes; therefore, visual aids, especially pictures, play an important role for everyone who is learning a language. These media are very appropriate to support the learning process. So it cannot be separated from them because by missing it, the delivery of messages in the teaching-learning process will not perfectly be fulfilled.

Similar research was done by Yeri Eko Munajat in the year of 2007. He proposed pictures as media to improve the students’ speaking ability in a junior
high school in Yogyakarta. The result was that pictures are effective media to improve the student’s speaking ability in the school target. The researcher of this study is going to have the similar action research to prove and strengthen the effectiveness of pictures in teaching and learning speaking.

**B. Conceptual Framework**

In a broad meaning, speaking is more than producing words or sounds. Speaking is a way to communicate the idea that is arranged and developed on the basis of the speakers’ need in a certain situation.

Nevertheless, students are commonly difficult to speak in English. Their abilities in speaking need to be improved. There are some problems in teaching and learning speaking which are coming from two factors, the teachers and the students. Teachers still face problems in which they cannot create an atmosphere where the students are expected to speak. They also get some difficulties in motivating the students to speak English. Meanwhile students are still lack of awareness in learning speaking for they seldom use it in their daily lives and also there is no speaking examination in the national examination.

The teacher can support the students in learning speaking through media. Media, especially educational media, help teachers to create an atmosphere where the students are expected to speak. Educational media are any supporting materials, methods, or techniques for transmitting or delivering messages and making the subject contents easy to understand. One of them is pictures.
This study proposes that pictures are media which can enhance the students speaking ability. Pictures can create a context in which the students are expected to practice speaking and motivate them to learn speaking. Pictures are media which can make abstract concepts concrete, representing objects that are difficult to find, representing objects that are too big, representing objects that are difficult to use, giving the same experiences and motivating students to learn.

By using pictures, students are expected to be more motivated in speaking English. When they are motivated in speaking English, they will learn to use English actively and improve their ability in communicating each other by using English as their accomplishment in learning a language, that is, to communicate each other.