

## **II. LITERATURE REVIEW**

This chapter discusses about review of previous research, concept of speaking (definition of speaking, components of speaking), concept of teaching speaking concept of negotiation of meaning, the roles of negotiation of meaning in second language acquisition, negotiation of meaning in second and foreign language setting, concept of Information Gap, types of activities which are based on Information Gap, procedure of teaching speaking through Information Gap.

### **2.1 Review of Previous Research**

Concerning the topic under discussion, there were several studies that have been carried out, will be discussed below:

1. Dian irawan (2012) from Lampung University compared between students' production utterances using information gap and students' production utterances using role play tasks at the second year of SMA Negeri 8 Bandar Lampung. Based on his pre observation, he found the students were often embarrassed if they make mistake. Students were rarely practiced in the target language in the class. They still looked prude and hesitate to interact with their friends and their teacher by using the target language. He states that one of the problems were the technique used by the teacher in teaching speaking. From the finding of his research, there was a relatively different result between information gap and role play tasks in generating interaction and effecting

students produce utterances. His results show that the total number of utterances or C-units produced by the students by using information gap tasks was 848 C-units with the highest number of C-units was 33.0 C-units. The result in role play task shows that the total number utterances or C-units produced by the students was 813 C-units with the highest number was 30.0 C units.

2. Emayuta (2011) from Lampung University compared students' production of utterances and negotiation of meaning using information gap task in pair and small group in speaking class in second grade of SMK Karya Pembangunan Gajah Mada Metro. She investigated whether the two different types of group work in speaking class that the students' arrangement had different effect or not in students. She says that students still often found difficulties in understanding and using spoken language because most of them could not produce a short dialogue fluently. Her result shows that information gap task and two kinds of sitting arrangement, pair work, and small group work were able to trigger the students to speak in the target language. Based on her reserach. The number of C-units and negotiation of meaning ( trigger, signal. Response, and follow up) produced in small group work were higher than in pair work.
3. Novita Nurdiana (2011) from Lampung University analyzed negotiation of meaning used by the students' interaction in SMA Negeri 4 Bandar Lampung. She states that students had difficulties in understanding the message, materials, and improving their ability in English because of misunderstanding that probably occur in teaching learning process. She applied jigsaw task and

information gap task in her research. Her results shows that all component in negotiation of meaning used by students. Then there were two components of negotiation of meaning which were rarely used in students' interaction, namely confirm or negate response and confirmation check through repetition

The writer believes that the negotiation of meaning has the roles that benefit for the conversation. One of them is negotiation of meaning can reduce the obstacle in the conversation and can make the conversation go on. In speaking between the students, misunderstanding about the message often occurs between the speaker and listener.

Based on the problem, the writer interests to analyze the negotiation of meaning in student speaking through information gap. In this research, the writer investigated whether students at the Second Year of Junior High School used negotiation of meaning or not. Then the writer also investigate which the component of negotiation of meaning mostly used by the students in students speaking through information gap.

## **2.2 Concept of Speaking**

### **2.2.1 Definition of Speaking**

Speaking is one of the skills for students in learning a language. Because speaking is one of the skills to carry out a conversation in language. Speaking is communication or conversation, two people are exchanging information or they have a communication or conversation needs (Doff, 1987:2). Whenever people intend to learn to understand a spoken language, they use language by speaking

the ideas and feeling. Therefore, Lado (1977:240) says that speaking is described as an ability to converse or to express the sequence of idea fluently.

Meanwhile Brown (2001:250) states, that speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving, and processing information. Based on this idea, there are three important points that must be occurred to the participants of communication (speaker and listener) to construct the meaning during the interaction among.

Besides that, Harris (1974: 9) states that speaking is encoding process where people can communicate the ideas, thought and feeling orally. It means that we produce spoken message to someone. Spoken message is our ideas, thought and feeling that we want to share or interact to other people. So, here speaking situation involves a speaker who put a message with words or sentence that has content a listener.

From the ideas above, it can be concluded that speaking is the process of interaction between speaker and listener in which the speaker sends the message , while the listener receive and process it in his mind in order to understand the intention of that message for the aim of responding to the speakers' message.

### **2.2.2 Components of Speaking**

Speaking is one of the language arts that are most frequently used by people all over the world. The art of speaking is very complex. It requires the simultaneous use of the number of abilities which often develop at different rates. Generally, there are at least five components of speaking skill concerned with

comprehension, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and fluency (Syakur, 1987:3). Below are the definition of the components.

#### **a. Comprehension**

Comprehension denotes the ability of understanding the speaker's intention and general meaning (Heaton, 1978: 35). This idea means that if a person can answer or express well and correctly, it shows that he or she comprehends well. Besides that, if a person can understand about the speakers' purpose, it refers he or she comprehends well.

#### **b. Grammar**

Grammar is viewed as a set of logical and structural rules that govern the composition of sentences, phrases, and words in any given natural language. It is needed for students to arrange a correct sentence in conversation. It is in line with explanation suggested by Heaton (1978: 5) that students' ability to manipulate structure and to distinguish appropriate grammatical form in appropriate ones. The utility of grammar is also to learn the correct way to gain expertise in a language in oral and written form.

#### **c. Vocabulary**

Vocabulary means the appropriate diction which is used in communication (Syakur 1987). Vocabulary is divided into two parts, close class and open class. Close class consist of preposition, pronoun, conjunction, e.g.

And : I like dancing and singing.

A : I eat a bowl of meatball.

Your : What is your favorite food ?

My : My hobby is riding bicycle.

But : I do not like meatball but I like noodle.

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

Noun

I : I love playing badminton. I love playing badminton

My : My hobby is reading story book.

Basketball : Basketball is Rahmi's favorite sport

Play : Rudi is playing football with his brother.

Go : Romi go to the fields to play football.

Makes : Mother makes a cup of coffee for my father.

Adjective

Good : Markus is a good singer.

Bore : I always bore if I stay at home alone.

#### **d. Pronunciation**

Lado (1961: 23) also said that pronunciation is the act or manner of pronouncing words; utterance of speech. He also stated that pronunciation is a way of speaking a word, especially a way that is accepted or generally understood.

Here is the example :

1) *" My mother is buying vegetables in the market".*

2) *" She goes to school every day" .*

They will correctly pronounce it based on the right pronunciation. They will correctly pronounce like the following:

1) ”mai ma mʌðə(r) ɪz baɪn ’vedʒɪəbls ɪn ðə market”.

2) “çi:ɡəvz tu: sku:l ‘evri deɪ”.

#### **e. Fluency**

Fluency can be defined as the ability to speak fluently and accurately. Signs of fluency include a reasonable fast speed of speaking and only a small numbers of pauses. Fluency refers to the ease and speed of the flow of the speech (Harris, 1974:81). It means that when a person makes a dialogue with another person, the other person can give respond well without difficulty.

### **2.3 Concept of Teaching Speaking**

Teaching speaking means teaching how to use language for communication, for transferring ideas, thought, over felling to other people. Rivers (1978: 6) states that speaking is developed from the first context with the language. Thus, we have to introduce speaking with the language that we learn, because by speaking we can transfer our ideas or thoughts to other people. Classroom activities that develop students’ability to express themselves through speech would therefore seem as in important component of a language course.

Then it is clear that communication through language is very important or the people. We cannot only teach what will be spoken but also the situation that we deal with. The teacher teaches speaking by carrying out students to certain situation. For instance, the topic is “sport”, the teacher carries out to involve student’s activities in this situation.

The topic here must be familiar to the students, so that the ideas and their organization are clear and the learners have an oral command of the language need to be described the topic. It is clear that speaking is the ability to express ones thought and it is one of suitable forms of communication. There are several ways of teaching speaking that the teachers can use during teaching learning process. One of them is information gap.

Lam son (2009) defines that an information gap activity is an activity where students are missing the information they need to complete a task and need to talk each other to find it. So, the purpose of information gap technique is to create a conversation or dialogue that can convey specific information to complete the missing information.

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

### **Monologues**

In monologues when one speaker uses spoken language for any length of time, as in speeches, lectures, readings, news broadcaster, and the hearer must process long stretches of speech without interruptions-the stream of speech will go on whether or not the hearer comprehends. Monologues are divided into two kinds: Planned usually manifest little redundancy and are therefore relatively difficult to comprehend.



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

### **Dialogues**

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

In teaching language also need to determine the focus of speaking skills in order to make the learning speaking in transactional form easier to be planned. In speaking there are some components to be considered.

Meanwhile, in transactional speaking the components that can be reached according to Richards (1990:25) that an issue that arises in practicing talk as transaction using different kinds of communicative tasks is the level of linguistic accuracy that students achieve when carrying out the tasks is accuracy. This also supported by Higgs and Clifford (1990:12) in Richards states that transactional speaking develops accuracy and fluency. We can see that if the students are able to deliver their mind with accurately and fluently the comprehension will increase. According to Richards (1990:34) teaching speaking with transactional types can be arranged by determining the goal of speaking skill:

1. Mechanics (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary): Using the right words in the right order with the correct pronunciation.
2. Functions (transaction and interaction): Knowing when clarity of message is essential (transaction/information exchange) and when precise understanding is not required (interaction/relationship building).

3. Social and cultural rules and norms (turn-taking, rate of speech, length of pauses between speakers, relative roles of participants): Understanding how to take into account who is speaking to whom, in what circumstances, about what, and for what reason.

## 2.4 Concept of Negotiation of Meaning

Negotiation of meaning is defined as series of exchanges conducted by addressors and addressees to help themselves understand and be understood by their interlocutors (Yufrizal, 2007 p.14.). In this case, when native speakers and non native speakers are involved in an interaction, both interlocutors work together to solve any potential misunderstanding or non understanding that occurs, by checking each others' comprehension, requesting clarification and confirmation and by repairing and adjusting speech (Pica, 1991).

According to Pica et al (1991) there are basically four components in negotiation of meaning, namely:

### 1. Trigger

Trigger is the utterance that contains elements that create communication breakdown. Pica et al (1989:17) says that trigger means the utterance followed by the speaker signal of total or partial lack of understanding. It can also be defined as prime of negotiation of meaning which or stimulate incomplete understanding on the part of the hearer (Varonis and Grass: 1985), e.g.:

*Student A : And I need a very energetic person that uh... can what it can.....*  
*Student B : Can attract.*

Produce comprehension check that requires further clarification work from the listener. If a comprehension check can be responded to by the listener in a short

confirmation or negation, then the comprehension check itself serves as a signal for negotiation of meaning. However, when a comprehension check is produced by a speaker and it causes the listener to produce a confirmation check or clarification request, then the comprehension check serves as a trigger for a negotiation of meaning ( Yufrizal, 2007).

The following examples will illustrate this proposition. In example 1 the comprehension check is a signal, but in example 2, the comprehension check is trigger. e.g

#### Example 1

*Student A : Do you see what, what I mean ?*  
*Student B : Yes, uh... what time is it..., uh..., what time ?*

#### Example 2

*Student A : And the..., the right cupboard right cupboard is uh..., the first first shelf on the right is a..., uh hmm set up cup set do you know a cup set ?*  
*Student B : In the right ?*  
*Student A : Yes yes three cup set uh..., and the next..., there are uh..., three glass.*

## 2. Signals

Gass and Varonis (1985) defined signal as an indicator from a listener that understanding is not complete. This indication is triggered by a speaker's previous utterance. In many studies of negotiation of meaning signals have been closely linked to two concepts: confirmation checks and clarification of requests (Varonis and Gass: 1985). Signals are divided into confirmation check and clarification request. The detail explanation is discussed below.

### **a. Confirmation check.**

It is defined as listener's inquiry as to whether or not their expressed understanding of the speaker's previous is correct. (Foster, 1998, p.8). Pica et al. (1991) found that a confirmation check could occur in three ways:

1) The interlocutors repeats all or parts of the speaker utterance. It is called confirmation check through repetition, e.g.:

*Student A : Cafe it's too in South Street*  
*Student B : South Street?*  
*Student A : Next to grocers*

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

*Student A : Uh the story it tell about the man who wants to.....*  
*Student B : To trap?*  
*Student A : To trap a bear but he...*

c) The interlocutor elaborates or modifies what the speaker has said in order to confirm whether his/ her understanding of what speaker has said is correct, e.g.:

*Student A : He see a frog the frog is on the water..., yeah, it seems it's on uh...what is it kind of leafs on the water and then just ...she just smile the girl is stand on the left side of the picture.*  
*Student B : Do you mean that she's watching the frog?*  
*Student A : Yeah she was watching the frog.*

### **b. Clarification request**

A clarification request is a request for further information from an interlocutor about a previous utterance (Foster: 1998). Unlike confirmation checks where the listener to the speaker's utterance with some degree of non understanding, A clarification request can be expressed in the form of a WH- question or a yes/ no question with rising intonation, e.g.:

A : *So the title?*  
 B : *what ?*  
 A : *So the good title of it ?*

A clarification request can also be expressed through special expression such as 'pardon', or 'I beg your pardon', e.g. :

A : *Uh where is the car park ?*  
 B : *Pardon ?*  
 A : *Car park*

Sometimes a clarification request is expressed in a back channel cue. e.g. :

A : *Oh, I mean uh....you just move here ?*  
 B : *Yeah ?*  
 A : *Where do you come from ?*

### **3. Response**

It refers to a speaker's attempt to clear up what the listener has said (unaccepted input). In many studies of negotiation of meaning responses were related to the discussion of the repair, that is, correction made by non-native speaker as a response to a modification of input action by native speaker (Foster:1998).

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

#### **a. Self- Repetition Response**

It refers to a response produced by a speaker in the form of part or all an utterance produced in the trigger (Pica:1989) e.g.:

*Student A : Now I in pub.*  
*Student B : What...pub?*  
*Student A : Pub*

### **b. Other-Repetition Response**

In this category, the speaker repeats what the listener says in the signal (Pica: 1989). Therefore, it is called other-repetition. In the speaker's response to the signal, we can see that the speaker has changed his output based on the input from the listener. Since the listener's signal is triggered by inability to interpret the speaker's utterance, the signal always modifies the trigger toward the listener's assumed interpretation. Therefore, the speaker in this case has produced modified output e.g.:

*Student A : I think like a suit, us, usual*  
*Student B : Like usual suit*  
*Student A : Yes, usual suit*

### **c. Self Modification Response**

In this category, the speaker modifies the trigger as a response to the listener's signal of negotiation of meaning. In this category, the speaker modifies the trigger as a response to the listener's signal of negotiation of meaning (Pica: 1991). The modification made by the speaker can be at level phonology, morphology, or syntax, or at the semantic level, e.g.:

*Student A : And then uh..... I think this picture tell tell us about ironic ironic picture.*  
*Student B : Can you spell it.*  
*Student A : Ironic ironic ironic in Indonesia ironi.*

### **d. Other- Modification Response**

Other –modification response is a modification by the speaker to reflect the signal given by the listener, e.g.:

*Student A : Uh..uh...what they have done?*

*Student B : What has she done ?*  
*Student A : What has she done to the frog.*

#### **e. Confirm or Negate Response**

It refers to a response in form of confirmation or negation. A 'yes' confirmation response is usually short e.g.:

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

#### **4. Follow up**

It refers to information about whether the communication modifications have been successful or not. In a long negotiation of meaning, interlocutors usually repeat the signal –response exchange until an agreement is achieved. In short negotiation of meaning sequence, two kinds of follow-up are identified (Yufrizal, 2007) :

a) Full comprehension of message being confirmed, e.g.:

*Student A : On the top of cooker*  
*Student B : Pardon?*  
*Student A : On the top of the cooker.*  
*Student B : Yes, on the top of the cooker.*

b) Continuation move

The interlocutor change their topic after a process of trigger-signal-response, e.g:

*Student A : I think like a suit, us, usual.*  
*Student B : Like usual suit ?*  
*Student A : Yes, usual suit.*  
*Student B : Does the man smoke ? (Follow-up continuing move)*

Varonis and Gass (1985) proposed a simpler model for exchanges that create negotiation of meaning. The model consist of four primes called:

- a) Trigger (T) which invokes or stimulates incomplete understanding on the part of the hearer.
- b) Indicator (I), which is hearer's signal of incomplete understanding.

- c) Response (R) is the original speaker's attempt to clear up the unaccepted-input.
- d) Reaction to the response (RR), which is an element that signal's hearer acceptance or continued difficulty with the speaker's repair.

In the development of studies in negotiation of meaning, Alcon, Shortreed, martyn and Van Den Branden have broadened the concept of negotiation of meaning, such as by inserting some ideas from studies in communication strategies into the basic concept of negotiation of meaning.

Alcon (1996) in Yufrizal (2007 p.19), for instance, included some elements of communication strategies in their studies of negotiation of meaning, such as appeals for assistance, appeals for verification of meaning, definition request, appeals indicating lexical uncertainty for the component of signals; foreignization, literal translation, code switching, approximation for responses. Another extension of negotiation of meaning is by Van Den Branden (1997) who distinguished three definitions of negotiation: negotiation of meaning, negotiation of form and negotiation of content.

Firstly, Branden (1997) in Yufrizal (2007, p.19) defines negotiation of meaning as side sequences to the main flow of conversation aimed at signalling and solving problems of message comprehensibility that is aimed at restoring mutual understanding. Under this category, Branden divides the negotiation of meaning into two elements: *indicator and response*. *The indicator* includes clarification request, confirmation of request with trigger unmodified, confirmation of request with trigger modified, non verbal indicator. *The response* includes switch to the new topic, repetition of trigger, modification of trigger, repetition of indicator,



modification of indicator, confirm of negate indicator, inability to respond, ignore the indicator, respon unnecessary.

Secondly, Branden (1997) defined the negotiation of form as side sequences to main flow of conversation aimed at drawing the participant's attention to formal aspect of description, and encouraging 'self repair' or, at the very least, acknowledgment of the formal modifications that the listener suggested. The negotiation of form also consists of two elements: indicator and response. The indicator includes request of rephrasal, prompt, confirmation request unmodified, confirmation modified, and metalinguistic comment. The response includes repetition of trigger, modification of trigger, repetition of indicator, modification of indicator, confirmation of negation of indicator, inability to respond, ignore indicator, and response unnecessary.

Thridly, Branden negotiation of content as stretches of interaction aim at pushing the participants to provide more information spontaneously offered in the description. This type of modification also consist of two elements: indicator and responses. The indicator includes clarification request, confirmation request unmodified, confirmation request modified, and confirmation request elaborated.

The response includes giving additional information, repetition of trigger, modification of trigger, repetition of indicator, modification of indicator, confirm or negate indicator, inability to respond, ignore to indicator, response unnecessary, and switch to a new topic.

## **2.5 The Roles of Negotiation of Meaning in Second Language Acquisition**

Pica (1996) in Yufrizal admitted that although there has been no empirical evidence of a direct link between negotiation of meaning and second / foreign language development, research studies in negotiation of meaning for the last two decades have shown that there are two obvious contributions of negotiation of meaning to second language acquisition. Firstly through negotiation of meaning (particularly in interactions involving native speakers) non native speaker obtain comprehensible input necessary for second language acquisition much more frequently than in interaction without negotiation of meaning. Secondly, negotiation of meaning provides opportunities for nonnative speaker to comprehend output necessary for second language acquisition much more frequently than in interactions without negotiation of meaning. Another important role of negotiation of meaning which may not have a direct impact on second language acquisition but it is also an important element for second language learning through communication is that negotiation of meaning can function as an indication of pursuit of communication.

## **2.6 Negotiation of Meaning in Second and Foreign Language Setting**

The majority of interaction studies deals with interaction involving native speakers and non native speakers has been conducted in the target language setting. A set of research papers by Pica (1985a; 1985b; Pica and Doughty, 1985, 1986; Pica, young and Doughty, 1987; Pica et al. (1989); Pica et al, 1991 and Pica et al (1996)) has shown that when non native speakers indicate that they do not understand message, expressed through comments such as 'pardon me',

‘uuh?’, ‘what?’, ‘Excuse me?’. ‘ I...don’t understand’, the native speaker helps non native speakers to comprehend by modifying their utterances.

A communicative interaction in a foreign language setting, in which non native speakers interact with non-native speakers from the same L1 background, might result in different pattern of interaction form those in second language setting and from interaction which involves a native speaker. In the former setting the interaction takes place for the sake of language practice rather than for communicative purpose.

Language input is usually confined to classroom and communication with foreign language teachers. The participants usually have a shared L1 knowledge, which some time hinders from negotiation of meaning and/ or permits them to use an alternative channel of communication. In the later setting, the participants is usually geared toward purely communicative purpose, i.e. to understand or be understood by their interlocutors. Language input is not confined to teachers and classroom situation but is abundant from social life outside the classroom. The participants in conversation usually have a gap in linguistic knowledge, the native speaker being in the position of superior and non native speakers being in the position of inferior. Consequently, there are some strategies applied by eithers the speaker or interlocutors in order to understand or to be understood.

## **2.7 Concept of Information Gap**

Information Gap is an interactive technique that gives opportunities for the students to practice communication in different social context and social roles.

Lam son (2009) defines that an information gap activity is an activity where

students are missing the information they need to complete a task and need to talk each other to find it.

In an information gap activity, one person has certain information that must be shared with others in order to solve a problem, gather information or make decisions (Neu & Reeser, 1997). These types of technique are extremely effective in the L2 classroom. They give every student the opportunity to speak in the target language for an extended period of time and students naturally produce more speech than they would otherwise.

In addition, speaking with peers is less intimidating than presenting in front of the entire class and being evaluated. Another advantage of information gap activities is that students are forced to negotiate meaning because they must make what they are saying comprehensible to others in order to accomplish the task (Neu & Reeser, 1997).

Each student has some, but not all, of the information needed for the activity. As partners to each other to fill in the “gaps” of missing information, they acquire communication skills in a way that is authentic and meaningful (Basturkmen, 1994). The pair creates questions and statements and each individual responds in turn (Annenberg Media, 2005). Since each partner knows something that the other does not they must communicate in order to attain complete understanding. Those questions which seek unknown answers are known as referential questions, which contrast with display questions, that is, those which seek obvious answers. For example, rather than asking “Do you sleep every day?”, you could ask “When do you sleep?” (Annenberg Media, 2005).

Information gap is an activity in a pair that students get different task and should complete the missing information by talking to others to find it. The information gap involves a transfer of given information from one person to another. The each participants have some knowledge or information that isn't shared by any others. They can only finish the task if they pool the information.

According to Brown (2001) there are some steps in teaching speaking by using Information Gap. The principles are as follows:

1. Decide on the teaching materials

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

2. Select situations and create dialogues

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

3. Teach the dialogues for Information Gap

The teacher needs to teach vocabulary, sentences, and dialogues necessary for the situations. The teacher needs to make sure that the students know how to use vocabulary, sentences, and dialogues prior to doing the Information Gap

activities. Otherwise, the teacher should allow the students to ask how to say the words they want to say.

#### 4. Have students practice the Information Gap

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

#### 5. Have students modify the situations and dialogues

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

#### 6. Evaluate and check students' comprehension

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

1. Students are asked to answer some simple questions related to the pictures.
2. Students are asked to re-enact the Information Gap.
3. Students are asked to translate the pictures into their native language.

It is better for the teacher to teach speaking through Information Gap technique based on the procedure above. So, it helps the teacher and the students to understand what is going to do in the class by using Information Gap. Besides

that, teaching speaking through Information Gap can make the students more active in speaking English.

## **2.8 Types of Activities which are based on Information Gap**

### **1. Discovering Identical Pairs**

Four pictures are distributed among four students and the fifth student holds a duplicate of one of the pictures. He or she must ask questions to the others to discover which student has the picture identical to his own.

### **2. Finding differences**

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

### **3. Complete drawing**

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

### **4. Complementing the Crossword**

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

### **5. Finding Missing Information**

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

From those types of activities in information gap. The writer consider to use complete drawing in information gap. Because complete drawing is easier to comprehend by the students. Then it can make the students more active, especially in their conversation.

## **2.9 Procedure of Teaching Speaking through Information Gap**

There are several procedures that should be done in teaching speaking through information gap.

Activities:

### **1. Pre activity**

The teacher greets the students.

- The teacher asks student to pray before the lesson is started.
- The teacher checks the students' attendance list.
- The teacher tries to brainstorm the students with the question relate to the material.

### **2. While Activities**

- Students pay attention about explanation expression of asking and giving information.
- Students make the example of expression of asking and giving information in sentence.
- Students are divided into pair. Students are divided into student A and student B.
- Students get the picture. Student A gets incomplete picture and student B get complete picture.



- Students perform with their partner to complete the picture.

### **3. Post Activities**

- The teacher asks the students' difficulties in understanding the lesson.
- The teacher closes the meeting while greeting the students.