II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter discusses several points, i.e., literature review that deals with concept of speaking, types of classroom speaking performance, concept of teaching speaking, concept of speaking technique, concept of Jigsaw, procedure of teaching speaking through Jigsaw, procedure of applying Jigsaw in the class, advantages and disadvantages of Jigsaw, theoretical assumption, and hypothesis.

2.1 Concept of Speaking

Speaking is a productive skill in which the speaker produces and uses the language by expressing a sequence of ideas and at the time she/he tries to get ideas or the message across. In this case, there is a process of giving message which is called as the encoding process. At the same time, there is a process of understanding the message of the first speaker, which is called decoding process.

Sister (2004: 7) states that speaking is one of the central elements of communication of an interactive process in which an individual alternately takes the roles of speakers and listeners used to communicate information, ideas, and emotions to others using oral language. So, the situation of student’s emotion affects their quality of speaking, whether it is fluency or structure. The main goal of speaking is to communicate. So, to deliver the idea effectively the speaker has to understand the meaning of all things that will be delivered; she/he has to
evaluate the effect of communication toward the listener: and she/he has to understand the principle that becomes the basic of communication.

Scott in Johnson & Morrow (1981) typifies speaking as an activity involving two (or more) people, in which the participants both hearers and speakers have to react to what they hear and make the contributions at high speed. In other words, each participant must have an intention or set of intentions participant wants to achieve in the interaction. Each participant has to be able to interpret what is said to him/her, and reply with the language he/she has which reflects his/her own intention.

Speaking is the instrument of language and the primary aim of speaking is for communication (Tarigan: 1991). From this definition, it is clear that the students learn to speak is in order to be able to communicate. Language is for communication, and in communication, a speaker has a choice not only about what to say but also how to say it (Larsen, 1986: 130).

Speaker and listener try to communicate with each other and use their language to make other people understand. Byrne in Rismayasari (1999: 9) says that speaking or oral communication is a two-way process between speaker and listener and involves productive and receptive skills of understanding. It means that speaker and listener try to communicate with each other and use our language to send our message to others (listeners).

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

From the definition above, it can be concluded that speaking is two-way process between speaker and listener and it involves both encoding and decoding process. The former leads to the process of giving idea or making the listener understand, while the latter leads to the process of getting the idea of the speaker. Through these processes, people interact with other.

According to Harris (1974) speaking must fulfill these following aspects, they are:

1. **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). Fluency is the smoothness or flow with which sounds, syllables, words and phrases are joined to other when speaking. It means that when a person makes a dialogue with another person, the other person can give respond well without difficulty.

2. **Grammar**
   Heaton (1978: 5) defines grammar as the students’ ability to manipulate structure and to distinguish appropriate grammatical form in appropriate ones.

3. **Vocabulary**
One cannot communicate effectively or express ideas in oral form if he or she does not have sufficient vocabulary. Therefore, vocabulary means the appropriate diction which is used in communication.

4. **Pronunciation**

Pronunciation refers to the ability to produce easily comprehensible articulation (Syakur:1987). Meanwhile Harris (1974:81) defines pronunciation as the intonation patterns.

5. **Comprehension**

Comprehensibility denotes the ability of understanding the speakers’ intention and general meaning (Heaton, 1991: 35). This idea means that if a person can answer or express well and correctly, it shows that he/she comprehends or understands well.

2.2 **Concept of Teaching Speaking**

Teaching speaking means teaching how to use language for communication, for transferring ideas, thought or even feeling to other people. Rivers (1978:6) states that speaking is developed from the first context with the language. For this reason, in teaching speaking skill it is necessary to have clear understanding involved in discussion.

The goal of teaching speaking skills is to train the students so that they are able to communicate efficiently. Learners should be able to make themselves understood, using their current proficiency to the fullest. They should try to avoid confusion in the message due to faulty pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary and to observe the social and cultural rules that apply in each communication situation.
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 : 1. Planned

2. Unplanned

Dialogue : 1. Interpersonal: familiar and unfamiliar

2. Transactional: familiar and unfamiliar

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

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

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

In teaching language the teacher 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. According to Haris (1974:84) there are five components, i.e., pronunciation, fluency, grammar, vocabulary and comprehension. Meanwhile in transactional speaking the components that can be reached is the level of linguistic accuracy that students achieve when carrying out the tasks. This is also supported by Higgs and Clifford (1990) in Richards (1984) states that transactional speaking develops accuracy and fluency. The teacher can see that if the students are able to deliver their mind, ideas, and their opinion accuracy, fluency, and the comprehension will increase.

According to Richards (1990) teaching speaking with transactional types can be arranged by determining the goal of speaking skill:

1. Mechanics (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary): Using the right words in the right order with the correct pronunciation
2. Functions (transaction and interaction): Knowing when clarity of message is essential (transaction/information exchange) and when precise understanding is not required (interaction/relationship building)
3. Social and cultural rules and norms (turn-taking, rate of speech, length of pauses between speakers, relative roles of participants): Understanding how to take into account who is speaking to whom, in what circumstances, about what, and for what reason.

After that in teaching speaking there are some difficulties that are revealed by Brown (2000: 271) they are:

1. Clustering
Fluent speech phrasal, not word by word, learners can organize their speaking both cognitively and physically (in breath groups) through such clustering.

2. **Redundancy**

The speaker has an opportunity to make meaning clearer through the redundancy of language. Learners can capitalize on this feature of spoken language.

3. **Reduced forms**

Contractions, elisions, reduced vowels, etc., all form special problems in teaching spoken English. Students who don’t learn colloquial contractions can sometimes develop a stilted bookish quality of speaking that in turn stigmatizes them.

4. **Performance variables**

One of advantages of spoken language is that the process of thinking as you speak allows you to manifest a certain number of performance hesitations, pauses, backtracking, and corrections.

5. **Colloquial language**

Make sure your students are reasonably well acquainted with the words, idioms, and phrases of colloquial language and they get practice in producing these forms.

6. **Rate of delivery**

Another salient characteristic of fluency is rate of delivery. One of your tasks in teaching spoken English is to help learners achieve an acceptable speed along with other attributes of fluency.

7. **Stress, rhythm, and intonation**
This is the most important characteristic of English pronunciation, as will be explained below. The stress-times rhythm of spoken English and its intonation patterns convey important messages.

8. Interaction

Learning to produce waves of language in a vacuum-without interlocutors-would rob speaking skill of its richest component: the creativity of conversational negotiations.

In the communicative model of language teaching, instructors help their students develop this body of knowledge by providing authentic practice that prepares students for real-life communication situations. They help their students develop the ability to produce grammatically correct, logically connected sentences that are appropriate to specific contexts, and to do so using acceptable pronunciation.

2.3 Concept of Speaking Technique

According to Brown (2001) there are some principles for designing speaking technique:

1. Use technique that covers the spectrum of learners needs, from language-based focus on accuracy to message-based focus on interaction, meaning, and fluency. In our current real for interactive language teaching, we can easily slip into a pattern of providing zesty content-based, interactive activities that don’t capitalize on grammatical pointers or pronunciation tips. When we do a jigsaw group technique, play a game, or discuss solutions to the environmental crisis, make sure that our tasks include techniques designed to help students to
perceive and use the building blocks of language. At the same time, don’t bore our students to death with lifeless, repetition drills. As noted above, make any drilling we do as meaningful is possible.

2. Provide intrinsically motivating technique.

Try at all times to appeal to students’ ultimate goals and interests to their need for knowledge, for status, for achieving competence and autonomy, and for “being all that they can be”. Even in those techniques that don’t send students into ecstasy, help them to see how the activity will benefit them. Why we ask them to do certain things, it usually pays to tell them.

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

It is not easy to keep coming up with meaningful interaction. We all succumb to the temptation to do, say, disconnected little grammar exercises where we go around the room calling on students one by one to pick the right answer. 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. Even drills can be structured to provide a sense of authenticity.

4. Provide appropriate feedback and correction.

In most EFL situations, students are totally dependent on the teacher for useful linguistic feedback. In ESL situations, they may get such feedback “out there” beyond the classroom, but even then we are in a position to be of great benefit. It is important that we take advantage for our 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.
Many interactive techniques that involve speaking will also of course include listening. Don’t lose out on opportunities to integrate these two skills. As we are perhaps focusing on speaking goals, listening goals may naturally coincide, and two skills can reinforce each other. Skills in producing language are often initiated through comprehension.

6. Give students opportunities to initiate oral communication.

A good deal of typical classroom interaction is characterized by teacher initiation of language. We ask questions, give directions, and provide information, and students have been conditioned only to speak when spoken to. 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. As we design and use speaking techniques, ask ourselves if we have allowed students to initiate language.

7. Encourage the development of speaking strategies.

The concept of strategic competence is one that few beginning language students are aware of. They simply have not thought about developing their own personal strategies for accomplishing oral communicative purposes. Our classroom can be one in which students become aware of, and have a chance to practice.

From the explanation above, the researcher assumes that in designing speaking technique, teachers should have consideration to some factors that can encourage students’ interest in learning English.

2.4 Concept of Cooperative Learning
Cooperative learning is a teaching involving children participation in small group learning activities that promote positive interaction (Lyman, Lawrence: 1988). Moreover Brown (2001:47) adds that as students work together in pairs or groups, they share information and come to each other’s aid. They are “a team” whose players must work together in order to achieve goals successfully. So it can be said that through those kinds of interaction, the students try to help each other to develop their knowledge. As Nurhadi (2004: 60) says that by the existing of differences human being has, they can develop their own mind one another. The statement inferred that everyone has a tendency to educate the other. That is why cooperation needed as a means of educating each other. In the cooperative learning, the students who have higher ability may help the lower students. By cooperation, they share their idea and develop their social skill. Therefore, cooperative learning promotes them self esteem, higher achievement and greater productivity, more caring, supportive, and committed relationships. Meanwhile Johnson and Johnson (1989) define cooperative learning as the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize their own learning and each other’s learning. The main purpose of cooperative learning is to actively involve students in the learning process. It can be said that, learning takes place through dialogue among students in a social setting. The knowledge is then reconstructed and expanded through new learning experiences. The individual and the social setting are active dynamics in the learning process. By combining teamwork and individual accountability, students work toward acquiring both knowledge and social skills.
Cooperative learning is a teaching strategy which allows students to work together in small groups with individuals of various talents, abilities and backgrounds to accomplish a common goal. Each individual team member is responsible for learning the material and also for helping the other members of the team learn. Students work until each group member successfully understands and completes the assignment, thus creating an "atmosphere of achievement". As a result, they frame new concepts by basing their conclusions on prior knowledge.

This process results is a deeper understanding of the material and more potential to retain the material. (Panitz, 1998).

Relating to speaking skills, Yager, Johnson and Johnson (1985) in Panitz, 1998 stated that cooperative learning develops students' oral communication skill. Cooperative learning involves students in interaction in which they try to negotiate, give and take information; it unconsciously compels them to communicate. Students’ hesitation and shyness to speak may lessen since they try to share it privately to their friends. It is may be the strength that can force the students to improve their speaking ability. It is in line with Brown’s (2001: 48) statement that as learners interacts with each other through oral or written discourse, their communicative abilities are enhanced.

In line with the description of the theories above, it can be concluded that cooperative learning is the instructional use of small groups in which students help other students within group to develop their own mind one another. In the learning process, the individual and the social setting are active dynamics; as a result, they
make new concepts and get deeper understanding of the material, more potential to retain it and enhanced their communicative abilities.

2.5 Principles of Cooperative Learning

It is not cooperative learning if students sit together in groups and work on problems individually. It is not cooperative learning if students sit together in groups and let one person do all the work. Johnson, Johnson and Smith in Lie 2004:31 state that not all of group work can be regarded as cooperative learning. There should be five principles of cooperative learning.

2.6 Concept of Jigsaw

Jigsaw is a technique in which teacher is involved in putting students into situations where they must depend on one another. The teams are heterogeneous with regard to ability level, sex and cast and religion.

Jigsaw is a teaching technique used in small group, invented 1971 by a graduate professor named Elliot Aronson. Students of a normal-sized class (26 to 33 students) are divided into competency groups of four to six students, each of which is given a list of subtopics to research. Individual members of each group then break off to work with the "experts" from other groups, researching a part of the material being studied, after which they return to their starting body in the role of instructor for their subcategory. The jigsaw strategy is a cooperative learning technique appropriate for students from 3rd to 12th grade.

The material is designed in such a way that each student can be given a piece of material without having to understand the rest of material although, each student is given only part of the material. Each student is evaluated on the whole unit of
given topic. This could be done by dividing the components between students with the different aspects of the topic.

The student learns his or her own material and is responsible for teaching that material to the rest of the students. Each team member is expected to be expert in his or her particular “part of puzzle”. In order to become expert the team members interact with the members of a second group who have been assigned the same part of the material (piece of puzzle) as an expert group.

After interaction, the members go back to their original group and explain them what they have understood and how to gather information and the methods of presenting it.

The group then puts together all its parts of Jigsaw or given material and explains the topic to the rest of the class through presentation. Though, it is group activity, students are evaluated on the basis of individual performance through tests and assignments. The whole group is evaluated as Team as group activity.

If each student’s part is essential, then each student is essential: and that is precisely what makes this strategy so effective.

2.7 Procedure of Jigsaw

According to Aronson (2000) there are ten steps considered important in the implementation of the jigsaw classroom:

1. Divide students into 5- or 6-person jigsaw groups. The groups should be diverse in terms of gender, ethnicity, race, and ability.
2. Appoint one student from each group as the leader. Initially, this person should be the most mature student in the group.

3. Divide the day's lesson into 5-6 segments. For example, if you want history students to learn about Eleanor Roosevelt, you might divide a short biography of her into stand-alone segments on: (1) Her childhood, (2) Her family life with Franklin and their children, (3) Her life after Franklin contracted polio, (4) Her work in the White House as First Lady, and (5) Her life and work after Franklin's death.

4. Assign each student to learn one segment, making sure students have direct access only to their own segment.

5. Give students time to read over their segment at least twice and become familiar with it. There is no need for them to memorize it.

6. Form temporary "expert groups" by having one student from each jigsaw group join other students assigned to the same segment. Give students in these expert groups time to discuss the main points of their segment and to rehearse the presentations they will make to their jigsaw group.

7. Bring the students back into their jigsaw groups.

8. Ask each student to present her or his segment to the group. Encourage others in the group to ask questions for clarification.

9. Float from group to group, observing the process. If any group is having trouble (e.g., a member is dominating or disruptive), make an appropriate
intervention. Eventually, it's best for the group leader to handle this task. Leaders can be trained by whispering an instruction on how to intervene, until the leader gets the hang of it.

10. At the end of the session, give a quiz on the material so that students quickly come to realize that these sessions are not just fun and games but really count.

2.8 Procedure of Applying Jigsaw in the Class

In line with the principles according to Brown, the researcher modifies the procedure of teaching speaking through Jigsaw Method in the class as follows:

Pre activity:

- Teacher greets the students.
- The teacher checks the students’ attendance list.
- The teacher asks the student to divide into a 5 or 6 person jigsaw group. The group should be diverse in terms of ethnicity, gender, ability, and race.
- One student should be appointed as the group leader. This person should initially be the most mature student in the group.
- The teacher gives different topics about discussion text to the students.
- The teacher asks the student to each group to analyze and discuss about the issue, arguments for, arguments against and conclusion or recommendation in every group.

While Activity

- The teacher asks the students come back to their jigsaw group.
• Students present their segment to the group. Other members are encouraged to ask question for clarification.

• The teacher examine from group to group in order to observe the process. Intervene if any group is having trouble such as a member being dominating or disruptive. There will come a point that the group leader should handle this task. Teachers can whisper to the group leader as to how to intervene until the group leader can effectively do it themselves.

Post Activity

• The teacher gives the quiz (posttest) about discussion text, that is the student must present their jigsaw group in front of the class at the end so students realize that the sessions are not just for fun and games, but that they really count and comprehend therefore the students can apply the way how to discuss in every day life.

2.9 Advantages and Disadvantages of Jigsaw Method

According to Arronson (2000) the advantages of Jigsaw Method are:

a. It is an efficient way to learn the material.

b. Builds a depth of knowledge

c. Discloses a student's own understanding and resolves misunderstanding

d. Builds on conceptual understanding

e. Develops teamwork and cooperative

There are some disadvantages of using Jigsaw Method (Arronson:2000). They are:

a. Uneven time in expert groups
b. Students must be trained in this method of learning.

c. Requires an equal number of groups.

d. Classroom management can become a problem

2.10 Theoretical Assumption

In teaching speaking, there are some techniques that can help the teacher to reach the aim of teaching learning process. In this case, Jigsaw method is chosen as a technique in teaching speaking.

Jigsaw method is a technique that may be used to teach speaking. It is an activity that encourages them to use the target language and allows them to say what they want to say: and an activity that is cognitively challenging. In addition, Jigsaw activities will build self-confidence in the students. Therefore, Jigsaw may be an effective technique in teaching speaking.

2.11 Hypothesis

Based on the theoretical assumption above, the writer formulates the hypothesis:

“There is significance increase students’ speaking ability score from pretest to posttest after being taught through jigsaw”.