BUILDING UP STUDENTS’ SPEAKING ACHIEVEMENT THROUGH JIGSAW TECHNIQUE

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Abstract

This research aimed to describe about whether or not the use of jigsaw technique significantly builds up the speaking achievement of participants of PIBA of UIN Alauddin Makassar and the use of jigsaw technique interesting to the participants of PIBA of UIN Alauddin Makassar. This research applied quasi-experimental research and it employed purposive sampling technique. Two groups of the advance level of PIBA academic year 2012/2013 of UIN Alauddin Makassar. There are 30 participants from experimental group and 30 participants from control group. The data were collected using test and questionnaire.
The data of students’ learning achievement on English speaking collected by using questionnaire. Those data were then analyzed descriptively and inferentially. The result of data analysis indicated that the jigsaw techniques built up significantly the students speaking achievement of advance levels after the treatment. Jigsaw technique effective in improving English speaking achievement of the students better than conventional activity as indicated by the T-Test value 24.403 and the P- Value (2 tailed) 0.000 which was not greater than 0.5 level of significance, and the students were interested in learning English speaking using Jigsaw technique which was indicated the mean score 85.97. It means that the students were classified very high interested students.

**Keywords**: Speaking, Achievement, Jigsaw Technique

### A. Introduction

The general goal of foreign language study is to learn a language from the mental discipline and intellectual development that result from foreign language study. Littlewood in Anas confirms that foreign language is learnt primarily for contact outside one’s community. The main goals of teaching English no expect students to use English as a means of communication1.

According to Que, a thing that hinders the students in Speaking English is the lack of practicing English either in the classroom or outside the classroom2. As we know that in general, the objective of English teaching program is to equip students with the four skills; those are listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Teaching English at university, especially at UIN Alauddin is begun with your Basic English (Dasar-Dasar Penguasa Bahasa Inggris) as elementary teaching English. Muis said (The head of English Language Centre and Art) states that the result of admission test of UIN Alauddin Makassar generally indicated that the student’s comprehension of English is still very lack. So the lecturers have to repeat their English lesson from beginning in which they do not need to do it again because the have got an elementary English teaching from junior high school. To help the students in learning process in the classroom and to add their knowledge and comprehension in English so UIN Alauddin Makassar builds a program with the name of PIBA (Program Intensifikasi Bahasa Asing) is a language center and art or a program in improving foreign language Skills. It is English and Arabic. Teaching English of PIBA Program emphasizes on speaking ability, therefore, the researcher is interested in conducting research at PIBA.

There are several levels of PIBA. They are advanced level, intermediate level and elementary level. These levels are very difficult to do a dialogue or conversation in English includes advanced level. The participants of this level have enough


2Anas, “Improving Reading Comprehension of the Third Year Accounting Department of SMKN Pangkep through Jigsaw Technique”, p. 3.
comprehension or knowledge in English, but they are very difficult to communicate with among students in English effectively. The problem appears when students want to communicate in English but the cannot perform the task successfully due to such possible reasons as tension, shyness or lack of effective communication skill in English. Students rarely speak English in their daily lives they are not self-confident enough to speak. Hasrani (staff of PIBA) states that the teacher is obligated to use several communicative approaches in teaching English. Her reason is to avoid the students bored in learning. In other words, teaching English of PIBA emphasizes on speaking ability using several communicative approaches. They are dialogue, role play, discussion or debating, games and cooperative learning.

Based on the statement above, it can be inferred that learners interest is influenced by what facilitated. There is another way how to improve learners’ interest that is by giving them opportunity to decide what to do and to think. The teacher must apply appropriate technique to expand the knowledge and motivation of students. By creating an interesting and motivating environment, the students are expected to be immersed in the activities given by the teachers. Concerning to the techniques in teaching speaking, the English teacher have to be aware of innovative ways and well selected techniques in teaching especially in teaching speaking.

The teaching – learning process which provides the opportunities for learners to make their own choices is cooperative learning approach. Harmer states that groups work has some advantages, one of them is it promotes learner autonomy by allowing learners to make their own decision in the groups work and pairs work for doing something to achieve the goals of language learning. According to Oxford, cooperative learning is involving acting or working together with another or others for common purpose. Hill in Bailey state that cooperative learning has significant advantages for both intellectual and social development, over individualized and competitive learning environments. Beside this approach is suitable to conduct the process of teaching – learning process to the students who have high interest and low interest, it is the students – centered oriented in which all activities make the learners active during teaching learning process. Richard and Rodgers state that one of the language teaching goals using cooperative learning is to enhance learner motivation and to reduce learner stress and to create a positive affective and classroom climate.

One of the techniques or models in cooperative learning is Jigsaw. It promotes positive interdependence and also provides a simple method to ensure individual accountability. It also focuses on listening, speaking, cooperation, reflection and problem solving skills. Hakkarainen states that Jigsaw method is a group work method for learning and participating in the group learning activities, one of them is speaking – learners will be responsible for taking the knowledge gained from one

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group and repeating it to new listeners in their original groups. This technique is suitable in teaching speaking to beginners as well. Brown states group and pair activities are excellent technique as long as the teaching – learning process is clearly structured and defined with specific objective. He also describes that beginners can also taught using drills or repetition. Brown short and simple technique must be used for beginner. Some mechanical techniques are appropriate – choral repetition and other drilling, for example. Many teachers dominate to initiate questions at this level, followed only after some time by an increase in simple student – initiated questions.

Jigsaw is one of the way to make a class works more consistent with communicative approach. A great deal of communication between students in the target language is an inevitable outcome of Jigsaw. Furthermore, the jigsaw is ideally suited to multiple classrooms. Students can be given selection of the text that are appropriated to their level. The jigsaw breaks the traditional patterns of high students assisting low students. Initially, student work together at their own way, to learn the material subsequently, they teach other students are forced to depend on law students for information, just as revising is true respect and self – esteem is built in this process.

Jigsaw is focused on group working that is able to build the students bravery and communication ability with other people or friends because using this method student can share, retell, the story or discuss certain topic with English language in their group or other group and also can give opinion or response to other students’ opinion. Besides that, this method is also focused on peer tutoring so the students can express their idea and ability and are not shy to ask question if there is difficulty to their friends who are clever. The method can motivate the students to study and increase teaching learning process.

Jigsaw is very simple to apply. The jigsaw is strategy of the learning method which demands the students on group with 4-6 semester students who have heterogeneous ability. Each group consists of 5-6 members from mixture among students who have various abilities. Each origin group members meet in expert group to study material which is assigned to each group member. After discussion, they go back into their origin group members and explain to his or her group member’s for material completeness. Based on the statement, it can be inferred that technique for beginner should be simple, short and varied. For this reason, the researcher would like to carry out the study about build up students’ speaking skill through Jigsaw technique.

Based on the all the statement, the researcher tried to formulate research questions which talked about the use of Jigsaw technique build up the speaking achievements of participants of PIBA of UIN Alauddin Makassar and the use of Jigsaw technique to the participants of PIBA of UIN Alauddin Makassar.

This research is under applied linguistic and psycholinguistic. By content, it is focused on building up student’s speaking achievement to the participants of PIBA at UIN Alauddin Makassar. In this case, the scope of the research is limited to the use of Jigsaw technique to teach speaking English.

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B. Literature Review

1. Speaking

Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing and receiving and processing information. Its form and meaning are dependent on the context in which it occurs, including the participants themselves, their collective experiences, the physical environment, and the purposes for speaking. It is often spontaneous, open-ended, and evolving. However, speech is not always unpredictable. Language functions (or patterns) that tend to recur in certain discourse situations (e.g., declining an invitation or requesting time off from work), can be identified and charted. For example, when a salesperson asks "May I help you?" the expected discourse sequence includes a statement of need, response to the need, offer of appreciation, acknowledgement of the appreciation, and a leave-taking exchange. Speaking requires that learners not only know how to produce specific points of language such as grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary (linguistic competence), but also that they understand when, why, and in what ways to produce language (sociolinguistic competence). Finally, speech has its own skills, structures, and conventions different from written language. A good speaker synthesizes this array of skills and knowledge to succeed in a given speech act.

A speaker's skills and speech habits have an impact on the success of any exchange. Speakers must be able to anticipate and then produce the expected patterns of specific discourse situations. They must also manage discrete elements such as turn-taking, rephrasing, providing feedback, or redirecting. For example, a learner involved in the exchange with the salesperson described previously must know the usual pattern that such an interaction follows and access that knowledge as the exchange progresses. The learner must also choose the correct vocabulary to describe the item sought, rephrase or emphasize words to clarify the description if the clerk does not understand, and use appropriate facial expressions to indicate satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the service. Other skills and knowledge that instruction might address include the following: producing the sounds, stress patterns, rhythmic structures, and intonations of the language; using grammar structures accurately; assessing characteristics of the target audience, including shared knowledge or shared points of reference, status and power relations of participants, interest levels, or differences in perspectives; selecting vocabulary that is understandable and appropriate for the audience, the topic being discussed, and the setting in which the speech act occurs; applying strategies to enhance comprehensibility, such as emphasizing key words, rephrasing, or checking for listener comprehension; using gestures or body language; and paying attention to the success of the interaction and adjusting components of speech such as vocabulary, rate of speech, and complexity of grammar structures to maximize listener comprehension and involvement.

Teachers should monitor learners' speech production to determine what skills and knowledge they already have and what areas need development, and Lewis,

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10Kathleen M. Bailey, and L. Savage, New Ways in Teaching Speaking, p. 22.
New Ways in Teaching Adults (1997) offer suggestions for activities that can address different skills.

Speaking lessons can follow the usual pattern of preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, and extension. The teacher can use the preparation step to establish a context for the speaking task (where, when, why, and with whom it will occur) and to initiate awareness of the speaking skill to be targeted (asking for clarification, stressing key words, using reduced forms of words). In presentation, the teacher can provide learners with a preproduction model that furthers learner comprehension and helps them become more attentive observers of language use. Practice involves learners in reproducing the targeted structure, usually in a controlled or highly supported manner. Evaluation involves directing attention to the skill being examined and asking learners to monitor and assess their own progress. Finally, extension consists of activities that ask learners to use the strategy or skill in a different context or authentic communicative situation, or to integrate use of the new skill or strategy with previously acquired ones\(^\text{11}\).

Example of a speaking lesson:
Choosing appropriate topics for small talk
1. Preparation. Show the learners a picture of two people conversing in a familiar casual setting. (The setting will be determined by a prior needs assessment.) Ask them to brainstorm what the people might be discussing (i.e., what topics, vocabulary, typical phrases).
2. Presentation. Present several video clips of small talk in casual situations. Have learners complete a worksheet in which they describe or list the topics discussed, the context in which the speech is occurring, and any phrases that seem to typify small talk. Follow up with a discussion of the kinds of topics that are appropriate for small talk, the factors in the specific situations that affect topic selection (e.g., relationships of participants, physical setting), and typical phrases used in small talk. Chart this information.
3. Practice. Give learners specific information about the participants and the setting of a scenario where small talk will take place. In pairs, have them list topics that might be discussed by the participants and simple phrases they might use. Learners then engage in improvised dialogues based on these simple phrases.
4. Evaluation. Give pairs a teacher-prepared dialogue based on their scenario from §. Ask them to compare their improvised dialogues with the prepared dialogue, analyzing the similarities, differences, and reasons for both.
5. Extension. Have learners go individually or in small groups into various contexts in the community (work, school, church, bus stop) and record the conversations they hear. Ask them to report their findings back to the class, and then have the class discuss these findings.

In-class speaking task
Although dialogues and conversations are the most obvious and most often used speaking activities in language classrooms, a teacher can select activities from a variety of tasks. Brown (1994) lists six possible task categories:

**Imitative**

Drills in which the learner simply repeats a phrase or structure (e.g., "Excuse me." or "Can you help me?") for clarity and accuracy;

**Intensive**
Drills or repetitions focusing on specific phonological or grammatical points, such as minimal pairs or repetition of a series of imperative sentences;

**Responsive**
Short replies to teacher or learner questions or comments, such as a series of answers to yes/no questions;

**Transactional**
Dialogues conducted for the purpose of information exchange, such as information-gathering interviews, role plays, or debates;

**Interpersonal**
Dialogues to establish or maintain social relationships, such as personal interviews or casual conversation role plays; and

**Extensive**
- Extended monologues such as short speeches, oral reports, or oral summaries.

These tasks are not sequential. Each can be used independently or they can be integrated with one another, depending on learners' needs. For example, if learners are not using appropriate sentence intonations when participating in a transactional activity that focuses on the skill of politely interrupting to make a point, the teacher might decide to follow up with a brief imitative lesson targeting this feature.

When presenting tasks, teachers should tell learners about the language function to be produced in the task and the real context(s) in which it usually occurs. They should provide opportunities for interactive practice and build upon previous instruction as necessary (Burns & Joyce, 1997). Teachers should also be careful not to overload a speaking lesson with other new material such as numerous vocabulary or grammatical structures. This can distract learners from the primary speaking goals of the lesson.

**Assessing speaking**
Speaking assessments can take many forms, from oral sections of standardized tests such as the Basic English Skills Test (BEST) or the English as a Second Language Oral Assessment (ESLOA) to authentic assessments such as progress checklists, analysis of taped speech samples, or anecdotal records of speech in classroom interactions. Assessment instruments should reflect instruction and be incorporated from the beginning stages of lesson planning (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996). For example, if a lesson focuses on producing and recognizing signals for turn-taking in a group discussion, the assessment tool might be a checklist to be completed by the teacher or learners in the course of the learners’ participation in the discussion. Finally, criteria should be clearly defined and understandable to both the teacher and the learners.

Therefore, speaking is key to communication. By considering what good speakers do, what speaking tasks can be used in class, and what specific needs learners report, teachers can help learners improve their speaking and overall oral competency.

2. **Jigsaw**
   **History of The Jigsaw**
An Account from Professor Aronson stated that “The jigsaw classroom was first used in 1971 in Austin, Texas. My graduate students and I had invented the jigsaw strategy that year, as a matter of absolute necessity to help defuse an explosive situation. The city's schools had recently been desegregated, and because Austin had always been racially segregated, white youngsters, African-American youngsters, and Hispanic youngsters found themselves in the same classrooms for the first time. Within a few weeks, long-standing suspicion, fear, and distrust between groups produced an atmosphere of turmoil and hostility. Fist-fights erupted in corridors and schoolyards across the city. The school superintendent called me in to see if we could do anything to help students get along with one another. After observing what was going on in classrooms for a few days, my students and I concluded that inter-group hostility was being fueled by the competitive environment of the classroom.” The jigsaw classroom is a research-based cooperative learning technique invented and developed in the early 1970s by Elliot Aronson and his students at the University of Texas and the University of California. Since 1971, thousands of classrooms have used jigsaw with great success. Jigsaw is a cooperative learning strategy that enables each student of a "home" group to specialize in one aspect of a topic (for example, one group studies habitats of rainforest animals, another group studies predators of rainforest animals). Students meet with members from other groups who are assigned the same aspect, and after mastering the material, return to the "home" group and teach the material to their group members. With this strategy, each student in the "home" group serves as a piece of the topic’s puzzle and when they work together as a whole, they create the complete jigsaw puzzle.

Jigsaw is a strategy that emphasizes cooperative learning by providing students an opportunity to actively help each other build comprehension. Use this technique to assign students to reading groups composed of varying skill levels. Each group member is responsible for becoming an "expert" on one section of the assigned material and then "teaching" it to the other members of the team.

The jigsaw classroom has a four-decade track record of successfully reducing racial conflict and increasing positive educational outcomes such as improved test performance, reduced absenteeism, and greater liking for school. Just as in a jigsaw puzzle, each piece — each student's part — is essential for the completion and full understanding of the final product. If each student's part is essential, then each student is essential; and that is precisely what makes this strategy so effective.

A jigsaw classroom is not a loose, “anything goes” situation. It is highly structured. Interdependence is required. It is the element of "required" interdependence among students which makes this a unique learning method, and it is this interdependence that encourages the students to take an active part in their learning. In becoming a teacher of sorts, each student becomes a valuable resource for the others. Learning from each other gradually diminishes the need to try to out-perform each other because one student's learning enhances the performance of the other students instead of inhibiting it, as is usually the case in most competitive, teacher-oriented classrooms. Within this cooperative paradigm the teacher learns to be a facilitating resource person, and shares in the learning and teacher process with the students instead of being the sole resource. Rather than lecturing to the students, the teacher facilitates their mutual learning, in that each student is required to be an active participant and to be responsible for what he learns.
Jigsaw is used to help build comprehension, encourage cooperative learning among students and help improve listening, communication, and problem-solving skills.

The jigsaw classroom is very simple to use. If you’re a teacher, just follow these steps:

**Step One**
Divide students into 5- or 6-person jigsaw groups. The groups should be diverse in terms of gender, ethnicity, race, and ability.

**Step Two**
Appoint one student from each group as the leader. Initially, this person should be the most mature student in the group.

**Step Three**
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.

**Step Four**
Assign each student to learn one segment. Make sure students have direct access only to their own segment.

**Step Five**
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.

**Step Six**
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.

**Step Seven**
Bring the students back into their jigsaw groups.

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

**Step Nine**
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.

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

The students in a history class, for example, are divided into small groups of five or six students each. Suppose their task is to learn about World War II. In one jigsaw group, Sarah is responsible for researching Hitler’s rise to power in pre-war Germany. Another member of the group, Lisa, is assigned to cover concentration camps; Michael is assigned Britain’s role in the war; Melody is to research the contribution of the Soviet Union; Pedro will handle Japan’s entry into the war; Clara will read about the development of the atom bomb. Eventually each student will come
back to her or his jigsaw group and will try to present a well-organized report to the group. The situation is specifically structured so that the only access any member has to the other five assignments is by listening closely to the report of the person reciting. Thus, if Pedro doesn't like Michael, or if he thinks Sarah is a nerd and tunes her out or makes fun of her, he cannot possibly do well on the test that follows.

To increase the chances that each report will be accurate, the students doing the research do not immediately take it back to their jigsaw group. Instead, they meet first with students who have the identical assignment (one from each jigsaw group). For example, students assigned to the atom bomb topic meet as a team of specialists, gathering information, becoming experts on their topic, and rehearsing their presentations. We call this the “expert” group. It is particularly useful for students who might have initial difficulty learning or organizing their part of the assignment, for it allows them to hear and rehearse with other “experts.”

Once each presenter is up to speed, the jigsaw groups reconvene in their initial heterogeneous configuration. The atom bomb expert in each group teaches the other group members about the development of the atom bomb. Each student in each group educates the whole group about her or his specialty. Students are then tested on what they have learned about World War II from their fellow group member.

**Tips for Implementation**

Compared with traditional teaching methods, the jigsaw classroom has several advantages:

- Most teachers find jigsaw easy to learn
- Most teachers enjoy working with it
- It can be used with other teaching strategies
- It works even if only used for an hour per day
- It is free for the taking

**How to use jigsaw**

- Introduce the strategy and the topic to be studied.
- Assign each student to a "home group" of 3-5 students who reflect a range of reading abilities.
- Determine a set of reading selections and assign one selection to each student.
- Create "expert groups" that consist of students across "home groups" who will read the same selection.
- Give all students a framework for managing their time on the various parts of the jigsaw task.
- Provide key questions to help the "expert groups" gather information in their particular area.
- Provide materials and resources necessary for all students to learn about their topics and become "experts."
- Note: It is important that the reading material assigned is at appropriate instructional levels (90–95% reading accuracy).
- Discuss the rules for reconvening into "home groups" and provide guidelines as each "expert" reports the information learned.
- Prepare a summary chart or graphic organizer for each "home group" as a guide for organizing the experts’ information report.
- Remind students that "home group" members are responsible to learn all content from one another.

**The Benefit**
In 1971, an exciting event took place in Austin, Texas. In accordance with the Supreme Court ruling of 1954, the public schools were desegregated. Unfortunately, as in many communities, this event did not occur without turmoil. Because Austin, at that time, was residentially segregated, the desegregation of the schools was implemented by means of a busing program. Thus, for the first time in their lives, youngsters from various ethnic and racial groups suddenly found themselves in close daily contact with one another. There was a great deal of conflict across racial lines which occasionally flared into physical violence. As, it happened, one of us (E.A.) was living in Austin (teaching at the University of Texas) at the time. As a social psychologist, Aronson had done a great deal of research in interpersonal relations. Moreover, as a father, with four children in the public school system, he took more than a passing interest in the turmoil in the schools.

As an experienced professional in crisis management, he considered several possible intervention strategies that might help in the immediate crisis, but he was much more interested in long term prevention than in immediate alleviation of the symptoms. Let us explain. When there is a "hot" crisis in the schools—with students engaging in inter-ethnic conflict and aggression, the obvious short-term solution is to slap on a band-aid by, for example, instituting emergency multi-ethnic human relations councils that can begin discussing issues, problems, points of tension, and so forth. While this may be adequate as crisis intervention, it would be far better for society if methods could be devised to prevent these tensions from developing. Moreover, it would be far more efficient and effective if these methods could be built into the structure of the institution rather than stitched on as an afterthought. Specifically, it would be valuable if the basic process could be changed so that youngsters could learn to like and trust each other—not as an extracurricular activity but in the course of learning their reading, writing, and arithmetic. In order to accomplish this goal, it might be useful to deal with students who had not been completely indoctrinated into the existing competitive process and had not yet developed deep-seated distrust for people of different racial and ethnic groups. For this reason, Aronson and his colleagues approached the situation as a learning problem not as a crisis-management problem—and they began their research in the elementary schools rather than in the high schools.

First and foremost, it is a remarkably efficient way to learn the material. But even more important, the jigsaw process encourages listening, engagement, and empathy by giving each member of the group an essential part to play in the academic activity. Group members must work together as a team to accomplish a common goal; each person depends on all the others. No student can succeed completely unless everyone works well together as a team. This “cooperation by design” facilitates interaction among all students in the class, leading them to value each other as contributors to their common task. Jigsaw is a well-established method for encouraging group sharing and learning of specific content. This technique can be used as an instructional activity across several days and is best to use when there is a large amount of content to teach. Jigsaw helps students learn cooperation as group members share responsibility for each other's learning by using critical thinking and social skills to complete an assignment. Subsequently, this strategy helps to improve listening, communication, and problem-solving skills. Monitoring each student's participation within the groups provides teachers with information about how much the students already know about the topic. This allows teachers to tailor instruction accordingly.
Create the strategy
Teachers can use the following steps when developing the jigsaw strategy for a class:
- Introduce the technique and the topic to be studied.
- Assign each student to a "home group" of 3-5 students who reflect a range of reading abilities.
- Determine a set of reading selections and assign one selection to each student.
- Create "expert groups" that consist of students across "home groups" who will read the same selection.
- Give all students a framework for managing their time on the various parts of the jigsaw task.
- Provide key questions to help the "expert groups" gather information in their particular area.
- Provide materials and resources necessary for all students to learn about their topics and become "experts".
- Discuss the rules for reconvening into "home groups" and provide guidelines as each "expert" reports the information learned.
- Prepare a summary chart or graphic organizer for each "home group" as a guide for organizing the experts' information report.
- Remind students that "home group" members are responsible to learn all content from one another.
- Note: It is important that students have experience with small group learning skills before participating in the jigsaw strategy. It is also important that the reading material assigned is at appropriate instructional levels.

Use the strategy
Students are directed to read the selection of text assigned to them. When the reading has been completed, the students meet for approximately 20 minutes with others assigned to the same topic. They discuss the material, identify the most important learning points, and return to their "home groups" to instruct the others about information in which they have become an "expert". Each student takes turns teaching what he or she has learned to the other "home group" members.

During this process teachers should:
- circulate to ensure that groups are on task and managing their work well;
- ask groups to stop and think about how they are checking for everyone's understanding and ensuring that everyone's voice is heard; and
- monitor the comprehension of the group members by asking questions and rephrasing information until it is clear that all group members understand the points.

If appropriate, have students fill out a graphic organizer in the "home group" to gather all the information presented by each "expert". "Home groups" then present results to the entire class, or they may participate in some assessment activity. Teachers may assign a team grade based upon academic and cooperative performance.

Interest
Vested interest is the special interest in an existing system, arrangement, or institution for particular personal reasons, is a communication theory that seeks to explain how influences affect behavior. As defined by William Crano, vested interest
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refers to the amount that an attitude object is deemed hedonically relevant by the attitude holder. In Crano's theory of vested interest, he states that "an attitude object that has important perceived personal consequences for the individual will be perceived as highly vested. Highly vested attitudes will be functionally related to behavior". Simply put, when people have more at stake with the result of an object (like a law or policy) that will greatly affect them, they will behave in a way that will directly support or defy the object for the sake of their own self-interest. For example, a 30-year-old learns that the legal driving age in his state is being raised from 16 to 17. While he may not agree with this proposed change, he is not affected as much as a 15-year-old would be and is unlikely to protest the change. A 15-year-old, however, has much to lose (waiting another year to get a driver license) and is more likely to vehemently oppose the new proposed law. To gather support for his position, a course of action the 15-year-old might take would be to tell other soon-to-be drivers about the new law, so that they collectively have a vested interest in perhaps changing the law. This example illustrates the point that highly vested attitudes concerning issues depend on situational point of view. A key factor to consider with vested interest is the level or type of involvement the individual has with a particular attitude object. This can be broken up into three main involvement components: Value-relevant, Impression-relevant, and Outcome-relevant. Value-relevant involvement concerns behaviors which support/reinforce values of the individual. Impression-relevant involvement relates to those behaviors which serve to create or maintain a specific image of the individual. This could, in some ways, be compared to a low-self monitor. Outcome-relevant involvement concerns those behaviors which hold direct personal consequences at a premium for the individual and as a result, corresponds most closely to vested interest.

Ego involvement
The way people view vested interest as distinct from ego involvement, is a construct that has been the topic of social psychological research for many years. In a study conducted by John Sivacek and William D. Crano, they prove that the aforementioned statement of ego involvement and vested interest are indeed separate. Sivacek and Crano state, "It was possible to have circumstances that an individual would perceive as involving but that it would not arouse his or her vested interest.” Ego-involvement’s main focus points are on individual’s psychological attitudes that are experienced as being a part of “me”. The more emotionally connected people are to an idea, concept, or value, minor differences in beliefs can be viewed as significantly large and perhaps make harsh judgments or have stronger reactions. Conversely, a person with less emotional connectivity (low ego-involvement) will have more latitude in their reactions. It is important to note that while highly vested attitudes can be experienced as ego involving, the opposite is not always true. An individual can be ego involved in a certain attitude that has no hedonic consequence. For example, religious or political ideals with little or no hedonic value may still be ego-involved because individuals view those types of beliefs as part of who they are.

Attitude importance
The factor to consider with vested interest and its application towards attitude-consistent actions is attitude importance. Attitude (or issue) importance concerns not only matters of personal consequence, but also matters of national or international interest. While both of these can fall in line with each other, vested interest and attitude importance are not the same. For example, consider the plight of an African nation that has been ravaged by an influenza epidemic. Although an individual in
America may consider this objectively important, because of the low probability of personal consequence—i.e., vested interest — his resultant behavior may not be indicative of his attitude towards the epidemic. In other words, since the issue is of little hedonic relevance to the perceiver, the amount of vested interest is low, and is therefore unlikely to produce attitude-consistent actions. Geographic distance and cultural differences are also a factor in attitude importance. Tragic circumstances halfway around the world or shocking behaviors by members of a culture different from the perceiver, will most likely never result in attitude change. The physical distance or cultural difference of an occurrence directly correlates to the vested interest of the perceiver. Things too far away or customs perceived to be too strange will almost never trigger a vested interest.

**Research Methodology**

The researcher gave a treatment using the Jigsaw method. In this case, the researcher uses English as a means of communication in classroom activities, either in explaining material or in giving instruction. The materials given to students are speaking materials. This research employ quasi experimental design, involving two groups that is experimental group and control group pre-test and post-test design which is given pre test O1, a treatment X, and posttest O2. The population of this research was the advance levels classes of PIBA at UIN Alauddin Makassar. It consists of four classes. The number of population was 165 students. Furthermore, sample was taken two classes, experimental and control class. Class 3 (morning) was experiment class and class 3 (afternoon) was control class. Either experiment or control class consists of 30 participants. The researcher chose the class because the participants of two classes had the same ability in speaking. In addition, the researcher also used speaking test and questionnaire.

**C. Finding And Discussion**

1. **The Students’ Speaking Skill**

   The findings of the research deal with the student’s achievements in speaking which covers accuracy, fluency and comprehensibility and the students’ interest toward jigsaw technique in this research were interview test and questionnaire.

   The researcher applied jigsaw in the classroom for five times, the students could gain a significant progress in developing their speaking achievement. It can be seen in the result of their speaking test.

   Although the student felt interested in and got high score in term accuracy, fluency and comprehensibility then in pretest, it did not mean that they were perfect in speaking. The problem faced by the students is how to pronounce the words, lack of the vocabulary and grammar mastery. So they still made mistakes in term of accuracy, fluency and comprehensibility. Below are the explanations of each indicator of speaking and the student’s deficiencies or mistakes made by the students in speaking.

   The students’ speaking accuracy such as mispronunciation, grammatical error, inappropriate word choice.

   The students’ speaking fluency is about the students’ speaking comprehensibility.

2. The Students’ Interest

The analysis showed that the use of Jigsaw technique influenced significantly students’ interest in joining the speaking class. This means that there is a good applicable strategy in teaching skill. In other words, the students’ interest is the indication of a degree of success that foreign language students are likely to have real given foreign language setting.

Based on the percentage analysis of the students’ interest in this research, the analysis showed that 25 students (83.3%) were categorized as very high interested and 5 students (16.5%) were categorized as high interest. It showed that the use of jigsaw technique influenced significantly students’ interest in learning English. This means jigsaw technique in teaching speaking skill.

In this research, the interest of the students was considered as output because they were expected to have very high interest category toward the use of Jigsaw Technique in teaching speaking. The students stated that joining the speaking class using jigsaw technique could build their interest in learning process. In the other hand, the students become more active in the classroom.

Related to the findings, Harmer stated that the vital component in successful language teaching is the teacher should make his lesson interesting, he makes all students participate and he could improve the students’ self-confidence. It means that teachers should apply various techniques or learning styles to cover the intelligence that occur in the class. It is indicated to avoid boredom in learning process.

D. Closing

The result of data analysis indicated that the jigsaw techniques built up significantly the students speaking achievement of advance levels after the treatment. Jigsaw technique effective in improving English speaking achievement of the students better than conventional activity as indicated by the T-Test value 24.403 and the P-Value (2 tailed). 000 which was not greater than 0.5 level of significance, and the students were interested in learning English speaking using Jigsaw technique which was indicated the mean score 85.97. It means that the students were classified very high interested students.

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