

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter the writer explains about previous study, self-confidence in psychology, the concept of self-confidence, self-confidence vs. self-esteem, confidence strategies, self-confidence and language learning, affective filters in language learning, anxiety, motivation, self-esteem, the importance of students' confidence in language learning, the nature of speaking, teaching speaking at the college level, the problem of speaking, factors influencing to difficult of learning speaking, self-confidence and speaking achievements, the assessment grading scale of speaking, correlation study, normal distribution test and linear regression.

#### A. Previous Study

Related to the study, the writer took some journals, they are:

First, by Safaa Mohammad Al-Hebaish(2012) found a positive significant correlation between general self-confidence and academic achievement. Those who scored high in GSCQ also had high scores in the oral achievement test. Language instructors were recommended to enhance building up their students' self-confidence in order to develop their oral performance achievement.<sup>1</sup>

Second, by Hyesook Park and Adam R. Lee (2004) found that there were significant effects of anxiety and self-confidence on L2 learners' oral performance: The higher anxious the students were about speaking English, the lower scores they gained on their oral performance; The higher confident they

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<sup>1</sup>Safaa Mohammad Al-Hebaish, "*The Correlation between General Self-Confidence and academic Achievement in the Oral presentation Course*", Theory and practice in Language Studies, Taibah University, Al-Madinah, Al-Munawarah, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Vol:2, No. 1, January 2012.

were, the higher oral performance they showed. The correlation analysis of anxiety/confidence and the elements of oral performance showed that confidence was more closely correlated with the L2 learner's attitude and interaction including communication strategies and social conversation skills of oral performance, while anxiety was more negatively correlated with the L2 learner's range of oral performance such as vocabulary and grammar.<sup>2</sup>

Third, by Juhana (2012) found that psychological factors such as fear of making mistake, shyness, anxiety, lack of confidence and lack of motivation hinder students from speaking in English class. Those factors, like fear of making mistakes, were commonly caused by their fear of being laughed at by their friends. The possible solution to overcome those psychological factors, most students believed that motivating them to be more confident to speak English is worth considering. This finding suggests that the teachers should be more aware of their students' hindrance to speak in English class.<sup>3</sup>

From The studies above, the topics have similarity and diversification with the writer's title. In this case the writer focus on students' self-confidence at the fourth semester of IAIN Palangka Raya academic year 2013/2014 and the writer's object is students' speaking ability.

## **B. Self-Confidence In Psychology**

Over the past few years, the approach to the research, theory, and practice of self-confidence seems to have generated some interest among psychologists and

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<sup>2</sup>Hyesook Park and Adam R. Lee, "*Learner's Anxiety, Self-Confidence And Oral Performance*", Kunsan National University, Concordia University, 2004.

<sup>3</sup>Juhana, "*Psychological Factors That Hinder Students from Speaking in English Class (A Case Study in a Senior High School in South Tangerang, Banten, Indonesia)*", Journal of Education and Practice, The English Department, Indonesia Open University, Vol 3, No 12, 2012.

researchers. Self-confidence from a psychological point of view appears to represent one of the few dimensions of human behavior which broadens across the whole range of human existence. It has created ample interest for such a long time, much like the topics of personality or identity.

The maintenance and enhancement of self-confidence has always been identified as an essential human impulse. Psychologists have long emphasized the crucial role played by the learners' self-image, motivation, affect, and social interactions. Therefore, self-confidence is widely regarded as a valuable individual variable. For instance, if one takes a bird eye view and dates back to William James work, one may notice an important strand in psychology which has activated "*believing in oneself*" as a key to personal success. At present, on the other hand, attention is rather drawn towards "*self help*", which purports to help learners improve and enhance their self-confidence and thus, be more optimistic.

Feelings of self-confidence and self-efficacy are believed to grow from mastery experiences. People who feel effective are likely to keep on in the face of failure and achieve greater success because of their unstoppable efforts. Having the sense of confidence about the attainability of goals may generalize a sense of optimism when confronting a challenge. For instance, optimists tend to take a posture of confidence and persistence (even if progress is difficult or slow). Pessimists, on the other side of the coin, seem to be doubtful, hesitant and unconfident. This divergence may even be amplified under conditions of serious adversity.

From another psychological angle, people who have strong confidence in their abilities to perform and manage potentially difficult situations will approach those situations calmly and will not be excessively disrupted by difficulties. Alternatively, people who lack confidence in their own abilities will approach such situations with uneasiness, anxiety and stress in so doing, they reduce the possibility that they will perform efficiently.

#### **a. The Concept of Self-Confidence**

Self-confidence is one of the most important factors studied by psychological researchers to express “*a powerful mediating process in multi-ethnic settings that affects a person’s motivation to learn and use the language of the other speech community*”. A straightforward definition of self-confidence is the amount of reliance one has about himself, that is, one’s knowledge and one’s abilities.

Self-confidence seems to be among the first steps to progress, development, achievement and success. Additionally, self-confidence refers to the belief that a person has the ability to produce results, achieve goals or complete tasks proficiently. Accordingly, it is also a building block for success throughout one’s career and a key-competency in the self-awareness cluster.

Furthermore, Norman and Hyland suggest that there are three elements to confidence:

- 1) *Cognitive*, the person’s knowledge of their abilities;
- 2) *Performance*, the person’s ability to do something;

3) *Emotional*, the learners' comfortable feeling about the former two aspects.

Having all this in mind, one may presume that a self-confident person is the one who would like to take further risks, placing himself in unfamiliar situations and examining his capacities in different contexts, in particular, making mistakes do not prohibit him to increase his ability to learn.

One other significant dimension that is worth considering when talking about self-confidence, are the symptoms interconnected with a lower level of confidence. There are two categories, emotional and physical symptoms. As for the emotional symptoms, they are as follows: apprehension, uneasiness and dread, feeling restless, strong desire to escape, avoidance behavior, hyper-vigilance, irritability, confusion, impaired concentration or selective attention, self-consciousness and insecurity, and behavioral problems. The physical symptoms are noticed through racing heartbeat, chest pains, hot flashes or chills, cold and clammy hands, stomach upset, shortness of breath, sweating, dizziness, muscle tension or aches, headaches, fatigue and insomnia.

Furthermore, levels of confidence are variable. For instance, a learner may possess the knowledge or skills required to do a specific task, but not be confident to act because of the specific situation or environment in which he is involved. Thus, he could be confident at one level of performance but not at another, such as being confident to write a passage but feeling unconfident about starting a pronunciation learning course. Therefore, teachers need to develop both situational and overall confidence.

This is fine in principle, but considering the reality, things turn out to be different. There are general impressions about which learners do and do not seem to have self-confidence as a general personality trait. Yet, one remains unclear about how those learners are coping with different language aspects being learned. However, the learners' over-self confidence may interfere with the specific learning tasks at hand, just as a lack of confidence may prevent some learners from fully exploiting what they know.

Accomplishments and attainments will in all probabilities build up the learners' self-confidence even more. It is expected that learners with a certain amount of confidence are offered leadership and other responsibilities within groups. Ample opportunities automatically go to learners with a high level of self-confidence. In a word, success will be generally attributed to learners with high self-confidence.

Helping learners feel good about themselves by making them believing in their capacities needs to be incorporated within the teaching process. For instance, some learners are good at this and others are good at that, but they need to recognize that they are all gifted in one way or in another. Besides, it is important to acknowledge the extension provided by Clément and his colleagues that self-confidence is a social product which is due to contacts between environments where different language communities exist together without excluding its cognitive components. In this vein, states that: *Linguistic self-confidence—derived from the quality and quantity of the contact between the members of the L1 and L2 communities—is a major*

*motivational factor in learning the other community's language, and determines the learners' future desire for intercultural communication and the extent of identification with the L2 group. Linguistic self-confidence in Clément's view is primarily a socially defined construct.*

At first glance, it might seem that despite the fact that identifying key-definitions, noteworthy findings, or leading theories of self-confidence, one still needs further research to identify the most useful and accepted ways of defining such a concept. From a psychopedagogical standpoint, self-confidence is illustrated with research examples about confidence building; it may be defined as a facet of competence and of worthiness. Self-confidence is not a concept reared in the same abstract discursive tradition as self-worth or self-value; it is a more complex one. It may be seen as a competence and as worthiness.

Self-confidence appears to involve knowing one's own abilities and having enough faith in them to make sound decisions in the face of uncertainty and pressure. It is a belief in one's own abilities to take on a difficult challenge. A confident person displays a powerful self-presentation and expresses him or herself in an influential, remarkable, and unhesitating way. Thus, if confidence is viewed as competence, this depends on two things, an individual's hopes, desires, or aspirations, which are termed "*pretensions*," and his or her ability to realize them, which in turn requires competence. Accordingly, studies which converge from educational

psychologists tend to focus on behavioral outcomes and the degree of discrepancy between one's "ideal" self and "real" self.

When combining confidence with competence, we may deduce a competence-based definition, we also may automatically maintain that it is a certain type of competence, notably in arenas related to individual's developmental history, personality characteristics, values, and so forth. A variety of studies have demonstrated the positive impact of confidence on performance.

Moreover, shaping attitudes about the "self" seems to be more complex than doing so for anything else. It seems that a person's evaluation or judgment of his own "worth" plays an important role in bringing the notion of values into play. Therefore, the domain of behavior matters to an individual's self-worth, as recognized by Rosenberg: *The individual simply feels that he is a person of worth, he aspects himself for what he is, but he does not stand in awe of himself nor does he expect others to stand in awe of him. He does not necessarily consider himself superior to others.*

At some point, seeing self-confidence in terms of worthiness involves dealing with the issues associated with attitudes, self-image, self-representation and self-concept. Therefore, this vision may yield at least to one tangible power, viewing self-confidence in terms of an attitude may mean that it can be measured.



### 1) Self-Confidence Vs Self-Esteem

It seems to be wiser to be aware of the importance of self-confidence and self-esteem in order to set up clear differences between the two concepts. Dörnyei draws the attention towards the significance of the two notions: *“self-esteem and self-confidence are like the foundations of a building, if they are not secure enough, even the best technology will be insufficient to build solid walls over them”*. Moreover, Branden offers such a distinction by putting self-esteem as a general term that covers both self-confidence and self-respect, he posits: *“Self-esteem has two interrelated aspects, it entails a sense of personal efficacy and a sense of personal worth. It is the integrated sum of self-confidence and self-respect”*.

On his part, Dörnyei establishes a fine relationship between the two concepts. He presumes the fact that *“self-esteem is closely related to the notion of self-confidence, which has a vigorous research tradition in applied linguistics and which, therefore, may have diverted scholars from the study of self-esteem”*. Undeniably, both self-esteem and self-confidence unveil a common prominence on the *“individual’s beliefs about his or her attributes and abilities as a person, and various measures of self-esteem and self-confidence/ efficacy have been found to correlate with each other highly”*.

In a more or less clear picture, and in order to better understand the notion of confidence, one needs to consider common misconceptions between confidence and self-esteem. The two notions are related and yet are not the same. Confidence, on the one hand, is about how effective a person feels

about himself in a given situation or when dealing with a specific task. Self-esteem, on the other hand, is about how much a person likes himself and how worthy he feels about himself. For instance, a learner can feel good about himself (high self-esteem) while not feeling positive about his skills in a certain area (confidence).

Besides, Dörnyei believes that the notion of self-confidence is strongly related to self-esteem in sharing common emphasis on the individual's perception of his or her abilities as a person. Glenda & Anstey clarify further that many researchers used the terms self confidence, self-esteem, self worth self evaluation, and self satisfaction interchangeably.

## **2) Confidence Strategies**

Students' confidence in language learning is one of the most significant factors which drive or inspire them to reach their goals. Confidence strategies may help students develop positive expectations and attitudes for successful achievement in language learning. In this context, Keller has developed a model which identifies four kinds of strategy known as the ARCS model (Attention, Relevance, Confidence and Satisfaction). This was summarized and discussed by Small to comprise a confidence strategy which:

- Informs the learner about the learning and performance requirements and assessment criteria.
- Provides challenging and meaningful opportunities for successful learning.
- Links the learning success to personal responsibility, for example by providing positive feedback to the learner about his /her efforts to learn.

On his part, Saetan identifies the characteristics of self confident learners as likely to choose ways to self-check their learning outcome whereas others require someone to check their understanding of language learning.

### **C. Self-Confidence and Language Learning**

In language learning and teaching, many educational psychologists place a heavy emphasis on some personality traits that may influence learning a foreign language. From a motivational perspective, the most important factor studied by the Canadian social-psychologists Gardner and Lambert was self-confidence, which was introduced by Richard Clément who added this motivational subsystem to Gardner's motivation model. The concept of linguistic self-confidence, in general, is a vital variant that promotes either failure or success in language learning. It is often argued that language learning entails much more than acquiring a body of knowledge and developing a set of skills, it is fairly crucial to consider the "self" of the learners and thus, their psychological state to overcome their difficulties in language achievements.

Noels, in his part, expands the applicability of the concept of self-confidence by demonstrating that it is also a crucial motivational subsystem in foreign language learning situations where there is little direct contact with the target language members. Thus, EFL teachers need to be aware of their learners' affective domain when dealing with a task.

Discussing the affective factors unambiguously may help us explain the fact that there is a general consensus among researchers that it represents the

emotional side of human behavior, and it is a vital factor in the learner's ability to overcome setbacks or mistakes that may take place in the learning process. Affective factors denote a very important impact on students' outcome. For this reason, it is important to understand students' feelings and know more about these factors. Many studies were conducted to examine factors that may affect EFL learners' performance, indeed, there are manifold psychological factors that most pervasively obstruct the learning process.

For instance, Krashen believes that self-confidence appears to be a central aspect of the '*affective filter*' which is defined as a psychological factor which filtrates the amount of language received by learners' brain. This filter may enable learners encourage intake, or valuable input. Thus, the affective filter hypothesis represents Krashen's view that a number of affective variables play a facilitative, but no causal, role in second language acquisition. Krashen assumes that well motivated, self-confident and positive learners are more successful language learners. On the other side of the corner, motivated, anxious and low self-confident learners can help raising the affective filter and create a mental block which impedes comprehensible input from taking place.

When affective factors are explicitly discussed, there seems to be a general agreement among psychologists that the notion of self-confidence may be considered as a key-factor in the learners' ability to overcome their language setbacks. It is normally assumed to have an influence on successful language learning. In this respect, Krashen claims that: "*Not surprisingly, nearly all the available literature suggests that self-confidence is very much related to second*

*language development, the self-confident, secure person is a more successful language learner”.*

Nonetheless, one should be aware that the lack of self-confidence may be an inhibiting factor for learners and this idea is shared by Naiman et al who believe that poor learners, in all probabilities lack self-confidence. Moreover, the higher anxiety learners experience, the lower scores they get, the less confident learners become. On the contrary, the more confident learners feel the higher scores they get. The more confident a learner feels, the less anxiety he experiences in learning as well.

#### **a. Affective Filters in Language Learning**

Krashen's affective filter, mentioned earlier, consisting of the variables of anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence seems to strongly enhance or inhibit second language acquisition by playing a critical mediating role between the linguistic input available in the educational setting and the students' ability to learn. He gathers them as following: *Self confident people have the advantage of not fearing rejection as much as those with high anxiety levels and are therefore more likely to put themselves in learning situations and do so repeatedly. They are less hampered by the conscious operation of the monitor because they are not so worried about how they appear.*

Thus, it appears essential to have a look on anxiety, motivation and self esteem as significant affective filters.

## **b. Anxiety**

Like any other affective factors, anxiety is not easy to define, it has been in the limelight of language research for decades. It is associated with feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension or worry. Anxiety seems to be recognized as one of the most highly examined variables in psychological research.

Psychologists like MacIntyre and Gardner establish three approaches to study anxiety: trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety.

- Trait Anxiety is rather steady personality quality, it is an individual's likelihood of becoming anxious in any situation.
- State Anxiety is a temporary anxiety, a response to a particular anxiety-provoking stimulus such as an important test.
- Situation-Specific Anxiety, refers to the constant and multifaceted nature of some anxiety. It is aroused by a specific type of situation or event such as public speaking, examinations, or class participation. In this context, Gardner and MacIntyre concluded: *“The results of these studies of language anxiety suggest that anxious students will have lower levels of verbal production and will be reluctant to express personally relevant information in a second-language conversation”.*

## **c. Motivation**

There seems to be a considerable amount of research on motivation within the learning process. It is one of the variables which have a

strong impact on student's success or failure. The theory of the Canadian psychologists Gardner and Lambert was one of the most dominant motivation theories of the L2 field for more than three decades. Certainly, the role of others in developing motivation is central to teaching and education, in this fashion, Scheidecker and Freeman believe that motivation is, without question, the most complex and challenging issue facing teachers today. Motivation is an inner drive or emotions that move people to particular actions. Without ample opportunities for motivation, even individuals with outstanding abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals, this is what Dörnyei deduces about motivation: *It provides the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process; indeed, all the other factors involved in SLA presuppose motivation to some extent.*

From another layer of analysis, motivation is affected by many factors as mentioned by Danis: *“interest in the subject matter, perception of its usefulness, general desire to achieve, self-confidence, self-esteem as well as patience and persistence”*. As a result, teachers need to be aware of their own possible prejudices with regard to individual differences and psychological variables to help their learners develop the feelings about themselves and be more positive.

#### **d. Self-esteem**

Self-esteem is an umbrella term which covers other basic characteristics and traits. Brand defines it as *“the experience of being*

*competent to cope with the basic challenges of life and being worthy of happiness. It consists of self-efficacy and self-respect*". As any psychological facet, self-esteem has multi-dimensions which are according to Brown: global, situational and task self-esteem.

- Global Self-esteem: represents general assessment a person makes about himself.
- Situational Self-esteem, on the other hand, refers to abilities in specific situation such as foreign language context.
- Task Self-esteem: relates to particular tasks within situations, for instance, within the educational domain, task self-esteem might refer to one subject matter.

In a more comprehensive fashion, Lawrence puts them as follows: *"global self-esteem refers to an all-round feeling of self-worth and confidence. Specific self-esteem refers to a feeling of self-worth and confidence with regard to a specific activity or behavior"*. What is more, self-esteem contributes to learners' failure or success, as put by Brown *"A person with high self-esteem is able to reach out beyond himself more freely, to be less inhibited, and because of his ego strength, to make the necessary mistakes involved in language learning with less threat to his ego"*.

In the present research, the researcher duplicates this division on self-confidence to ease the task of measuring learners' degree of confidence regarding speaking skills. In this respect, and in a personal communication with Dörnyei, he states that *"whatever the conception which you build success in*



*language learning, it can be global, situational and geared towards task*".

Therefore, self-confidence displays also a multidimensional facet assembling global, situational and task self-confidence.

Accordingly, global self-confidence might be put as test global self-esteem, such as, general feelings about oneself, situational self-confidence might be specific feelings at specific situations (learning English for instance), and task self-confidence might be one's skills and competence when doing tasks (confidence in speaking).<sup>4</sup>

Considering Arnold's view point about speaking as the most anxiety provoking skill, and his belief that anxiety comes from learners' lack of self-confidence, the present research is based on a "cause and effect" dimension. Self-confidence has three dimensions; global self-confidence, situational confidence and task self-confidence.<sup>5</sup>

#### **D. The Importance of Students' Confidence in Language Learning**

In language learning, especially speaking, students' confidence is one of the factors to improve their learning. Dornyei suggested the ways to promote students' confidence were through providing experience of success, encouraging the learners and reducing anxiety.

Gander argued that many individuals appear most satisfied and successful when they have gained at least the independent or fluent levels of proficiency, where they feel confident in their work.

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<sup>4</sup> Ms. Zakia Djebbari, *Self Confidence and*, p. 43-58, t.d:

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid*, p. 151, t.d:

Keller has developed a model that specifies four kinds of strategy. This is called the ARCS model (Attention, Relevance, Confidence and Satisfaction) and was summarized and discussed by Small.

Confidence strategies help students develop positive expectations for successful achievement of learning objects. One confidence strategy is to inform the learner about the learning and performance requirements and assessment criteria. A second confidence strategy is to provide challenging and meaningful opportunities for successful learning. A third strategy is to link learning success to personal responsibility, for example, providing positive feedback to the learner about his or her efforts to learn.

Saetan identified self-confident learners as likely to rely on selective monitoring or none whereas others tend to rely on use of the monitor. It means students who are self-confident learners tend to choose ways to self-check their learning whereas others require someone to check their understanding of language learning.

Sjoberg saw that less confident learners, or shy members may initially be gently encouraged to participate by the facilitator and introduced to a few of the other more confident members.

Students' confidence in language learning, especially speaking, is one of the main factors to drive or to inspire students to reach their goals. Students' confidence in language learning making them brave enough to keep going in activities. If teachers are always aware and reflect on their teaching and try to promote students to achieve their task, students' language learning repertoires and confidence will be gradually increased.<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>6</sup>MonthaSongsiri. *"An Action Research Study of Promoting Students' Confidence in Speaking English"*, Dissertation of Doctorate, Faculty of Arts, Education and Human Development : Victoria University, 2007, h. 27-28, t.d:

## E. Speaking

### 1. The Nature of Speaking

According to Chaney, Speaking is the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts.<sup>7</sup> While another expert, Theodore Huebner said Language is essentially speech, and speech is basically communication by sounds. And according to him, speaking is a skill used by someone in daily life communication whether at school or outside. The skill is acquired by much repetition; it primarily a neuromuscular and not an intellectual process. It consists of competence in sending and receiving messages.<sup>8</sup>

Speaking is an essential tool for communicating, thinking, and learning. Oral language is a powerful learning tools, it shapes, modifies, extends, and organizes thought. Oral language is a foundation of all language development and, therefore, the foundation of all learning. It is the base for the other language strands.<sup>9</sup>

Speaking is a vehicle to link individual to society. Exchanges students have with their peers and teachers can help them come to know the world in more personal and socially responsible ways. When students talk about their ideas.<sup>10</sup>

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<sup>7</sup> A. L. Chaney and T. L. Burke, *Teaching Oral Communication in Grades K-8*, (Boston: Allyn& Bacon, 1998), p. 13

<sup>8</sup>Theodore Huebner, *Audio Visual Technique in Teaching Foreign Language*, (New York: Cambridge University

<sup>9</sup>HayriyeKayi, *Teaching Speaking: Activities to Promote Speaking in a Second Language*, *TESL Journal*, Vol.XII, No. 11, 2006, p.242.

<sup>10</sup>Jeremy Harmer, *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, p.232

According to Richards and Willy A. Renandya that speaking is one of the elements of communication.<sup>11</sup> Where communication is the output modality and learning and learning is the input modality of language acquisition.<sup>12</sup> As a human being, we always need communication to express our idea to do everything. What's more as a students or learners they have to speak with their teacher as long as in learning process to express their idea.

*“Communication in the classroom is embedded in focused meaning activity. This requires teachers to tailor their instructions carefully to the needs of learners and teach them how to listen to others, how to talk with others, and how to negotiate meaning in a shared context. Out of interaction, learners will learn how to communicate verbally and nonverbally as their language store and language develop. Consequently, the give and exchanges of messages will enable them to create discourse that conveys their intention in real life communication”.*

Speaking also use mind to speak fluently and accurately. It use ear to listen, then send to the brain to analyze to communicate to other. It related to the statement as follow:

Speak controlled mind by feedback from hearing itself and mouth position as much as it is from memory. If we want to speak fluent English, it is just as important to retrain our tongue, as it is to train our memory. To be effective, however, we must retrain our mind, tongue, and hearing at exactly the same time because they must work together when you speak English.<sup>13</sup>

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<sup>11</sup>*Ibid*, p. 210.

<sup>12</sup> H. Brown Douglas, *Principle of Language Learning And Teaching*, New York: Prentice Hall, 1980, p. 210.

<sup>13</sup> Lynn Lundquist, *Learning Spoken English in half the time*, USA: Language Success Press, p.3.

## **2. Teaching Speaking at the College Level**

Nowadays, the teaching of English is expanding in primary or elementary school. The decree of the ministry of education and culture, *Republik of Indonesia* no. 0487/1992, chapter VIII states that English is available.<sup>14</sup>

English is instrument to communicate orally and in written form. Communicating is to understanding and to express information, idea, feeling, and to develop science, technology, and culture. Entirely, communicating is competence to understand and yield spoken and written text applied in four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). English competence of the college level should be the useful competence or skill preparing them to teach when day become a teacher next time.

## **3. The problem of Speaking**

There are several problems involved in getting students to talk in the classroom. First, students are unable to relax and express their feeling naturally. That is we called inhibition. The factors caused this situation are: students are worried about making mistakes, fearful of criticism, or simply shy in getting attention of their speech. An English teacher also should be aware by the domination of some students that caused each one will have only very limit or little time to talk. If this situation occurred, it automatically caused low or uneven participation.

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<sup>14</sup>Endang Fauziati, *Teaching English as a Foreign Language*, P.169.

Getting students to speak in class can be sometimes being extremely easy. In a good class atmosphere, student's who get on with each other, and whose English is at an appropriate level, will often participate freely and enthusiastically if we give them a suitable topic and tasks. However, at other time it is not so easy to get students going. Maybe the class mix is not quite right. Perhaps we have not chosen the right kind of topic sometimes it is the organization of the task which is at fault. But a problem that occurs more often than any of these is the natural reluctance of some student's to speak and to take part.<sup>15</sup>

In learning speaking, students get problems to talk. Ur stated that there are some problems faced by students in learning speaking, they are:<sup>16</sup>

a. Inhibition

Unlike reading, writing, and listening activities, speaking requires some degree of real-time exposure to an audience. Learners are often inhibited about trying to say things in the classroom, worried about making mistakes, fearful of critics or losing face, or simply shy of the attention that their speech attracts.

b. Nothing to say

Even if they are not inhibited, you often hear learners complain that they cannot think of anything to say, they have no motivation to express themselves beyond the guilty feeling that they should be speaking.

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<sup>15</sup>Jeremy Harmer, *The Practice of English Language Teaching 4<sup>th</sup> edition*, New York : Longman, 2005, p.345.

<sup>16</sup>Penny Ur, *A course in Language Teaching Trainee Book*, Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 1999,p.121.

c. Low or uneven participation

Only one participant can talk at a time if he or she is to be heard; and in large group this means that each one will have only very little talking time. This problem is compounded by the tendency of some learners to dominate, while others speak very little or not at all.

d. Mother-tongue used

In classes where all, or a number of, the learners share the same mother tongue, they may tend to use it: because it is easier, because it feels unnatural to speak to one another in a foreign language, and because they feel less 'exposed' if they are speaking their mother tongue. If they are talking in small groups it can be 'quite difficult' to get some classes- particularly the less disciplined or motivated ones to keep to the target language.

Brown stated that there are eight characteristics of spoken language that makes speaking skills somewhat difficult to acquire.<sup>17</sup>

a. Clustering

Fluent speech is phrasal, not word by word. The students can organize their output both cognitively and physically thought such clustering.

b. Redundancy

The speaker has an opportunity to make meaning clearer through the redundancy of language.

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<sup>17</sup>Douglas H. Brown, *Teaching by Principles*, New York: San Francisco State University.p.256-257.

c. Reduced forms

Contractions, elision, reduced vowels, etc, all from special problems in teaching speaking English.

d. Performance variables

The process of thinking as you speak allows you to manifest a certain number of performance, hesitations, pauses, backtracking, and corrections.

e. Colloquial language

Make sure the students are reasonably well acquainted with the words, idiom and phrases of colloquial language and that they get practicing in producing these forms.

f. Rate of delivery

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

g. Stress, Rhythm, Intonation

This is the most important characteristic of English pronunciation. The stress-timed rhythm of spoken English and its intonation patterns convey important messages.<sup>18</sup>

h. Interaction

Conversation is specially subject to all the rules of interaction: negotiation, clarification, attending signals, turn-taking, and topic

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<sup>18</sup>*Ibid*



nomination maintenance and termination. Classroom technique that include speaking components must at some point include instruction in the two-way nature of speaking. Students need to understand that good listeners (in conversation) are good responders. They know how to negotiate meaning (to give feedback, to ask for clarification, to maintain a topic) so that the process of comprehending can be complete rather than being aborted by insufficient interaction.

#### **4. Factors Influencing to Difficult of Learning Speaking**

Learning as a process or activity is required by some factor influencing.

SumadiSuryabrata in its book Education Psychology express that there are two factors as follow:

Learning as a activity or process required by some factors influencing

- a. Factor coming from within students self, what is classified becoming two, thatis : 1) factor is physiological and 2) factor is psychological.
- b. Factor-factor coming from outside student self, what also classified becomingtwo, that is: 1) factor is social and 2) factor non-social?<sup>19</sup>

##### **a. Factors Coming From Within Self**

Factor comes from within student self ( Internal ) can be classified intotwo. There are :

1. Physiological factor, related to condition of physical, that is

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<sup>19</sup>SumadiSuryabrata, 1993. *PsikologiPendidikan*. Yogyakarta : Andi Offsite

- a) Experiencing of handicap from one of the legs and hands, more or less willingness that student in learning.
- b) Healthy physical will very supporting is spirit of student efficacy.

2. Psychological factor, for example:

- a) Ability of student base (intelligence)

how wide acknowledged a difference of speed and perfection of individual in breaking various problems which face him, so that this thing will strengthen assumption that intellectual ability truly there is and different each other in each people, where having level intelligence is higher, quicker to break same problems when in comparing with people having level intelligence is lower. This difference of intelligence not lay in quality of intelligence itself, but at the level. Ability of intelligence owned by individual truly role which of vital importance in determining the individual efficacy in learning.

- b) Talent

Talent is potential ability owned by individual, possible of the individual to grow at period to come. For presumably someone talent require to be known nearly possible to get adequate treatment for growth in an optimal fashion.

c) Enthusiasm

Enthusiasm is a mental peripheral consisting of combination, solidarity, and mixture from feeling, hope, prejudiced, worried, feared, and other tendency's available to pointing individual to a choice of definite. Very big enthusiasm of the influence in reaching achievement in learning.

d) Basic Knowledge's

Basic knowledge's is knowledge becoming base or basing on knowledge of student being developed, a student. What studying material teaching the division, hence beforehand have to have the basic knowledge's that is fight.

**b. Factors coming from outside student self (external)**

Factor from outside student self can be classified to become two, There are social factor and non-social.

1. Social factor consisted:

a) Area of family

Family is social environment giving understanding of social giving understanding of first social for a child of people within doors doorstep, good of father, mother, and also the sister! brother in area of house hold consciously advise to the member concerning a problem or concerning activity of learning. Here family is not only undertaking to look after but functioning for idea, attitude, and social at the children. Family is obligation for training tradition or

habit or grow ethic flavor, esthetics at child. Role of family assist child in every big learning of the influence, in supporting efficacy of child of learning, like understanding and drive of other family member or old fellow.

b) Relation between children of Teacher

The relation between children of Teacher coeval his influence student learning, because in general influence coeval can in the form of healthy emulation. Sometime with learning with will increase the learning result. For example, take part in friend coeval this activity of learning outside hour clock school to more or less influencing mind of the child which finally arising desire for hanging on to coattail step of the friend in following minor outside hour clock going to the school.

2. Factor non-social composed:

a) Learning facility

This learning facility is thing concerning supporting facilities and equipment of student learning, either in house and also go to school. This thing hardly influences enthusiasm and spirit of student learning.

b) Weather

Weather is condition of climate an area at season or certain time, for example related to situation of weather happened at the

(time) of definite. These things have enough an effect on to student learning enthusiasm.

c) Time influence

Usage of time is related to timing and its use effectively and inefficient and also matching with the one which in requiring for learning

d) Planology

Structuring to clean learning space, natty and respect although sometime modestly partake also influence child learning enthusiasm.

## **5. Self-Confidence and Speaking Achievements**

One of the most important aspects of speaking is to have self confidence in what to say and how to say it. It is mostly recognized that what a person feels echoes what he believes, and what he believes governs what he utters. Therefore, having a low sense of self-confidence in speaking English, for example, will create a threatening atmosphere in the classroom, and learners will unconsciously focus on their deficiencies and obstacles rather than concentrating on how to perform the task given to them. Oddly enough, though they have ideas to speak and share their knowledge, they easily lose trust in their capabilities and they just give up the attempt to speak.

On the other face, having a strong belief of one's own speaking capacities will, in all probabilities, lead them to approach threatening

situations with more achievements and lead them to success. For instance, it is often believed that classroom talks and speaking activities are anxiety provoking and confidence lowering tasks; therefore, it is of paramount importance to establish a relaxing, non-threatening environment where mistakes are tolerated and encouragement is desirable from the part of teachers.

Self-confidence particularly influences learners' oral performances since the output produced affects their communicative competence. The apprehension of speaking is strongly related to low levels of confidence and resulted in lower performance.

Another vital point to take into consideration is the learners' fear of being negatively evaluated when presenting a talk, this may be argued by Gregersen and Horwitz who assert that learners' confidence degree is strongly related to their fear of making mistakes always want to save their positive image or impression in the mind of their teachers and peers alike; this may cause them anxiety and thus, lower their confidence to take risk talking.<sup>20</sup>

## **6. The Assessment Grading Scale of Speaking**

Assessing speaking test for most of people is the most complex to assess with precision. Many of teachers often don't feel comfortable when handling speaking test since it is often difficult to be objectives and consistent when testing a large number of students. But it doesn't mean

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<sup>20</sup>Ms. Zakia Djebbari, *Self Confidence and Pronunciation Training to Enhance the EFL Speaking Competence*, p. 80-82, t.d:

that speaking test can't be measured in correct way to assess speaking test and its technique. Hugues, as requested by EndangFauziati, listed three general formats for testing speaking skill that are interview, interaction with peers and responses to tape recording.<sup>21</sup>

The scoring rubric for the measurement as follow:<sup>22</sup>

Speaking Assessment			
Category	Students' score	Guide	
Grammar (25 points)		24-25	Excellent. Few errors; communication of ideas is clear.
		22-23	Very good. One or two errors, but communication is mostly clear.
		20-21	Good. Several errors in syntax, but main ideas are mostly clear.
		18-19	Fair. Noticeable errors that occasionally confuse meaning.
		12-17	Weak. Language is marked by errors. Listeners' attention is diverted to the errors rather than the message. Meaning is often unclear or broken.
		0-11	Unacceptable. Communication is impeded. Too many errors in this task for a student at this level.
Vocabulary (20 points)		20	Excellent. Correct selection of words and idioms. Variety of vocabulary.
		18-19	Very good. Selection of words and idioms. Some variety of vocabulary.

<sup>21</sup>EndangFauziati, *Testing Speaking Skill, a Paper of the 49<sup>th</sup> International Teflin Conference English: Prerequisite for Global Communication*, Denpasar: English Department Faculty of Letter, University of Udayana, t,th, p.4.

<sup>22</sup>Keith Folse, *The art of Teaching Speaking*, United States of America: The University of Michigan Press, 2000.

Speaking Assessment			
Category	Students' score	Guide	
		16-17	Good. Mostly correct choice of vocabulary. Meaning is clear.
		14-15	Fair. Noticeable vocabulary errors that occasional confuse meaning. Reliance on simple vocabulary to communicate.
		12-13	Weak. Many vocabulary errors. Listeners' attention is diverted to the errors rather than the message. Meaning is often unclear or broken.
		0-11	Unacceptable. Too many errors in this task for a student at this level. Communication is impeded.
Fluency (30 Points)		29-30	Excellent. No hesitation at all.
		27-28	Very good. Hesitations in one or two places but immediately continued.
		24-26	Good. Occasional hesitation but recovered well.
		21-23	Fair. Noticeable gaps that catch listeners' attention usually followed by recovery.
		12-20	Weak. Several short periods of silence. Several gaps that disrupt the flow information. Listener's attention is diverted to the gaps rather than message.
		0-11	Unacceptable. Periods of silence. Gaps without good recovery.
Pronunciation (25 points)		24-25	Excellent. Few errors; native-like pronunciation.
		22-23	Very good. One or two errors but communication is mostly clear.
		20-21	Good. Several pronunciation errors, but main ideas are understood without problem.



Speaking Assessment			
Category	Students' score	Guide	
		18-19	Fair. Noticeable pronunciation errors that occasional confuse meaning.
		12-17	Weak. Language is marked by pronunciation errors. Listeners' attention is diverted to the errors rather than message. Meaning is often unclear.
		0-11	Unacceptable. Too many errors in this task for a student at this level. Communication is impeded.
Students' score			

Beside that technical of scoring through four scales above, the researcher also make rating classification which use to give students obtained. The following is rating scale classification:<sup>23</sup>

Rating	Scale	Classification
81 – 100	5	Very Good
61 – 80	4	Good
41 – 60	3	Fairly good
21 – 40	2	Poor
0 – 20	1	Very Poor

## F. Correlation Study

Correlation studies are used to measure of a relationship between two or more variables, gives an indication of how one variable may predict another.

<sup>23</sup>Daryanto, *Evaluasi Pendidikan*, Jakarta: Rineka Cipta, 2005, p. 211

DonalAry state that correlation is a technique for determining the covariation between sets of scores; paired scores may vary directly (increase or decrease together) or vary inversely (as one increases, the other decreases, correlational research is research that attempts to determine the extent and the direction of the relationship between two or more variables.<sup>24</sup>

The purposes of correlational studies is to discover relationship between two or more variables. Relationship means that an individual's status on one variable tends to reflect his or her status on the other. In this study the writer will use Pearson Product-Moment Correlation. It's used when both the criterion and predictor variable contain continuous interval data such as test scores.

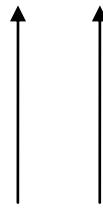
There are three possible results of a correlation study:

- a. Positive correlation: both variables increase or decrease at same time. A correlation coefficient close to + 1.00 indicate a strong positive correlation.
- b. Negative correlation: indicates that as the amount of one variables increases, the other decreases (and vice versa). A correlation coefficient close to - 1.00 indicates a strong negative correlation.
- c. No correlation: indicate any relationship between two variables. A correlation coefficient of indicates no correlation.

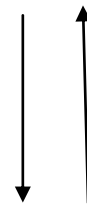
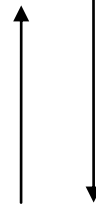
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<sup>24</sup>DonalAry, Lucy Chesar Jacob, Chris Sorensen, AsgharRazavieh. *Introduction to Research in Education, (Eighth Edition)*, (Canada: Wadsworth Cengage Learning, 2010).p.639.

Positive Coefficient Correlation (+)



Negative Coefficient Correlation (-)



Or

Or

It can be concluded that correlation is to look for about the causal relationship between two aspect that be related. This relationship could be in different supporting variables or not. DonalAry state that the sign (+ or -) of the coefficient indicates the direction of the relationship. If the coefficient has a positive sign, this mean that as one variable increases, the other also increases. For example, the correlation between height and weight is positive because tall people tend to be heavier and short people lighter. A negative coefficient indicates that as one variables increases, the other decreases. The correlation between outdoor air temperature during the winter months and heating bills is negative; as temperature decreases, heating bills rise. The size of the correlation coefficient indicates the strength of the relationship between the variables. The coefficient can range in value from +1.00 (indicating a perfect positive relationship) through 0 (indicating no relationship) to -1.00 (indicating a perfect negative relationship). A perfect positive relationship means that for every 2-score unit increases in one variable there is an identical 2-score unite increases in the other. A perfect negative relationship indicates that for every unit increase in one variable there is an

identical unit decrease in the other. Few variables ever show perfect correlation, especially in relating human characteristics.<sup>25</sup>

Then, a scatter plot illustrates the direction of the relationship between the variable. A scatter plot with dots going from lower left to upper right indicated a positive correlation (as variable x goes up, variable y also goes up). One with dots going from upper left to lower right indicates a negative correlation (as variable x goes up variable y goes down).<sup>26</sup> A scatterplot of z score also reveals the strength of the relationship between variables. If the dots in the scatterplot form a narrow band so that when a straight line is drawn through the band the dots will be near the line, there is a strong relationship between the variable. However, if the dots in the z score scatter plot scatter widely, the relationship between variable is relatively weak.<sup>27</sup> The scatterplots below show how different patterns of data produce degrees of correlation.<sup>28</sup>

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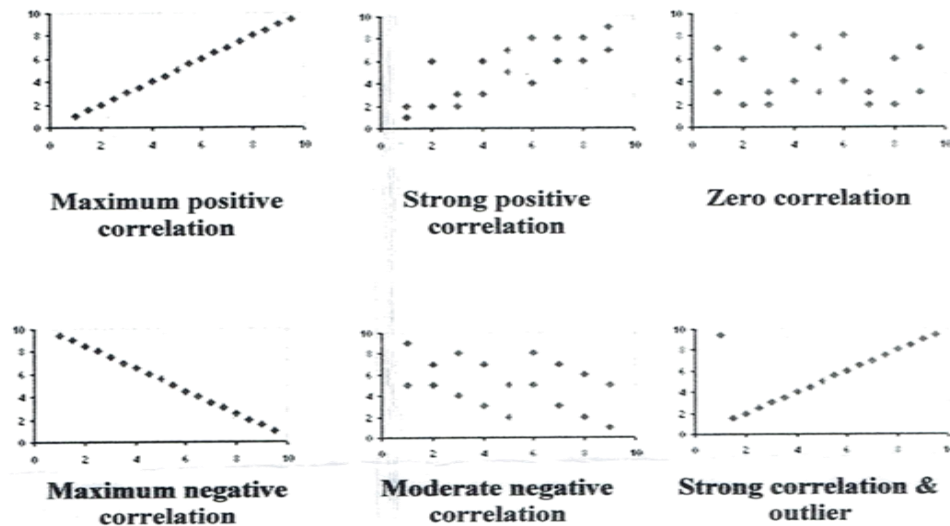
<sup>25</sup>Donal Ary, Lucy Chesar Jacob, Chris Sorensen, Asghar Razavieh. *Introduction to Research in Education, (Eighth Edition)*. (Canada: Wadsworth, Cengage Learning. 2010). p. 350.

<sup>26</sup>Donal Ary, Lucy Chesar Jacob, Chris Sorensen, Asghar Razavieh. *Introduction to Research in Education, (Eighth Edition)*. (Canada: Wadsworth, Cengage Learning. 2010). p. 132.

<sup>27</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>28</sup>Linear Correlation Coefficient, (Taken from) <http://stattrek.com/statistics/correlation.aspx>, (online on April 11, 2015).

**Figure 2.1**  
**The Scatterplots**



As Arikunto stated, if the plots draw a straight line from an angle, it showed positive correlation variable. If the plots draw a straight line from the right bottom side to the left corner up, showed negative correlation between variable. Meanwhile, if the data spread irregularly, it means the data did not have correlation.<sup>29</sup>

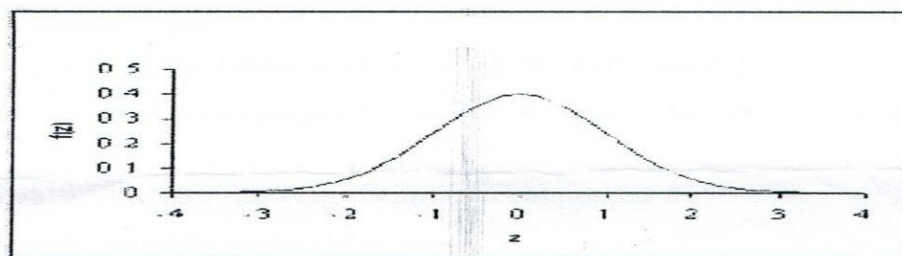
### **G. Normal Distribution Test**

Before going to discuss about data analyzing, the important thing that should be done by the researcher is testing of data normality distribution. It is purposed to decide which statistical type that will be used in analyzing process. If the data have normal distribution, the researcher use parametric statistic. On the other hand, if the data do not have normal distribution, the researcher should use non-parametric statistic in analyzing process.

<sup>29</sup>Suharsimi Arikunto, *Prosedur Penelitian Suatu Pendekatan Praktik*, (Edid VI), Jakarta: PT. Asdi Mahastya, p.277-728.

Data will make normal distribution if the sum of data under and upper the mean are same. It's also about its standard deviation.<sup>30</sup> If the points of scores and its frequency are correlated, it will form a normal curve or standard curve as follow:

**Figure 2.2**  
**The Standard Normal Curve**



There are some ways to calculate data normal distribution, opportunity paper, kurtosis coefficient, percentile kurtosis coefficient, *chi Square* and *Lillieford*.<sup>31</sup> It used chi-Square test because it suitable for big sample, the sample > 30. Second, the data can be grouped in several intervals. The chi-square formula used on these data is:<sup>32</sup>

$$X^2 = \sum \frac{(fo - fe)^2}{fe}$$

Where:

$X^2$  : Chi Square

$\sum$  : sum of

<sup>30</sup>Sugiyono, 2004, *Statistika untuk Penelitian*, ... p.70.

<sup>31</sup>Husaini Utman, and Purnomo Setidy Akbar, 1995, *Pengantar Statistika*, Jakarta : Bumi Aksara, p.109-110.

<sup>32</sup>Riduwan, 2004, *Metode dan Teknik Menyusun Tesis*, ... p.130.

$f_o$  : the Observed Frequency in each category

$f_e$  : the Expected Frequency in the corresponding category

Meanwhile, it use following formula to calculated  $f_e$ .<sup>33</sup>

$$f_e = \frac{(\sum f_k) \times (\sum f_b)}{\sum T}$$

Where :

$F_e$  = expected frequency

$\sum f_k$  = total of frequency in a column

$\sum f_b$  = total frequency in a row

$\sum T$  = total of frequency in column and row

To determinewhether chi square value is significance, consult the table of  $X_2$  value. The number of degree of freedom is based is based onthe number of observation that are free to vary once certain restriction are place of the data. If  $X_2$  value is higher than  $X_2$  table, itmean the data have abnormal distribution. On the other hand, if  $X_2$  valueis lower than  $X_2$  table, itmean the data have normal distribution.<sup>34</sup> After calculate of  $X_2$ , the result is shown in a scatterplot. The standard that the data have normal distribution is the data pointers are spread around the straight line of the plot.<sup>35</sup>

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<sup>33</sup> *Ibid.*

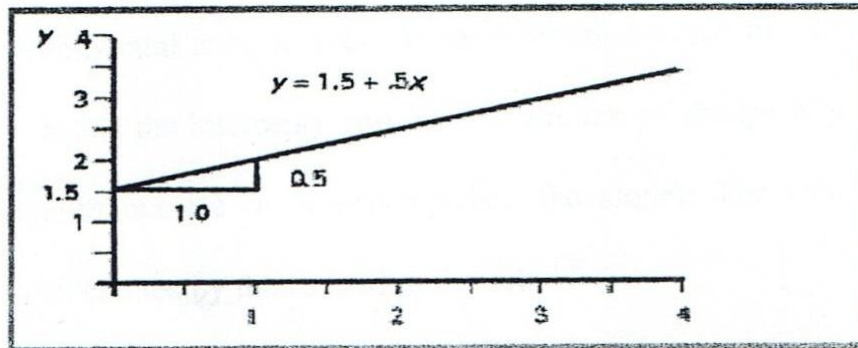
<sup>34</sup> Sugiyono, 2004, *StatiskauntukPenelitian*,...p.79.

<sup>35</sup> SinggihSantoso, 2007, *MenguasaiStatistik di Era Informasidengan SPSS 15*, 15 Jakarta :Elex Media Komputindo, p.155.

## H. Linear Regression

One of the condition before analyzed the data by using product moment correlation is both of variable has linear association.<sup>36</sup> To describe the linear association between quantitative variables, a statically procedure called regression often is used to construct a model. Regression is used to assess the contribution of one or more “explanatory” variables, to one “response” variable. It also can be used to predict the value of one variable based on the values of other. When there is only one independent variable and when the correlation can be expressed as a straight line, the procedure is called simple linear regression. Figure 1 give an example of the linear regression line.

**Figure 2.3**  
**A Straight Line Of Linear**



Exploring linear data used to understand the data. For some relation there are clearly an independent, or operating, variable and adependent, or response, variable – for example, time and distance. The choice when fitting lines does not always depended on the physical relation between the operating and response

<sup>36</sup> Hartono, 2011, *Statistik untuk Penelitian*,...p.157.



variable.<sup>37</sup> Any straight line in two-dimensional space can be represented by this equation.<sup>38</sup>

$$\hat{Y} = a + bX$$

Where :

$\hat{Y}$  : the variable on the vertical axis,

$x$  : the variable on the horizontal axis,

$a$  : the y-value where the line crosses the vertical axis (often called the intercept), and

$b$  : the amount of change in  $y$  corresponding to a one-unit increase in  $x$  (often called the slope).

Where  $\hat{Y}$  is the variable on the vertical axis,  $X$  is variable on the horizontal axis,  $a$  is the  $Y$ -value where the line crosses the vertical axis (often called the intercept), and  $b$  is the amount of change in  $y$  corresponding to a one-unit increase in  $X$  (often called the slope). The coefficient  $a$  and  $b$  can be calculated by the following formula:<sup>39</sup>

$$a = \frac{(\sum Y)(\sum X^2) - (\sum X)(\sum XY)}{n\sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2}$$

$$b = \frac{N\sum XY - (\sum X)(\sum Y)}{N\sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2}$$

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<sup>37</sup>Exploring Linear Data.(Taken from) <http://illuminations.nctm.org/LessonDetail.aspx?id=L298>. (online on March 21, 2015).

<sup>38</sup> Hartono, 2011, *Statistik untuk Penelitian*,...p.160.

<sup>39</sup> *Ibid*.

If the coefficient  $b$  is known at the first , coefficient  $a$  can be calculated by:<sup>40</sup>

$$a = \hat{Y} - bX_{-}$$

Where :

$\hat{Y}$  and  $X$  are two sample mean

After calculated the data by using formula above, the result was presented in a figure. The data named by linear if the data points spread and draw a straight line. On the other hand, if the data points spread disorderly and do not draw a straight line, it means the data do not have linear or non-linear.<sup>41</sup> Regression can be used to draw conclusions about populations based on samples randomly drawn from those population.

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<sup>40</sup> Hartono, 2011, *Statistik untuk Penelitian*, ....p.160.

<sup>41</sup> *Ibid.*, p159.