

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents several theories related to this study. First, it describes about speaking skill which includes the definition of speaking skill, approaches to speaking, types of spoken test, assessing speaking, and speaking in another language. Second, it describes about communication apprehension which includes the nature of communication apprehension, types of communication apprehension, causes of communication apprehension, and effects of communication apprehension.

#### **A. Definition of Speaking**

Nunan defines that speaking consists of producing systematic verbal utterances to convey meaning. (Utterances are simply things people say)<sup>5</sup>. It is an important part in our daily life that we take it for granted. It is one of the elements in communication, where communication is needed to express our idea to do anything. Speaking is one of the productive skills in English language teaching and learning.

Mastering the art of speaking is the most important thing in learning a language. It is because a good speaking skill is needed to carry out a conversation in a language. Speaking and writing are considered as productive skills in English, but speaking tends to differ from written language. In order to understand more

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<sup>5</sup> Kathleen M. Bailey, *Practical English Language Teaching: Speaking*, McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc., New York, 2005, pp. 2

about speaking, Van Lier differentiates spoken language and written language as follows:<sup>6</sup>

<u>Spoken Language</u>	<u>Written Language</u>
Auditory	Visual
Temporary; immediately reception	Permanent; delayed reception
Prosody (rhythm, stress intonation)	Punctuation
Immediately feedback	Delayed or no feedback
Planning and editing limited by channel	Unlimited planning, editing, revision

First, spoken language is auditory, means that it must be listened by others, meanwhile written language is visual. Second, spoken language has temporary and immediate reception, while written language has permanent and delayed reception. It needs rhythm, stress and intonation in speaking, but we just need punctuation in written. In speaking activity, the speakers have to pay attention to planning and editing limited in channel. The planning, editing, and revision are unlimited in writing.

Like writing, speaking is a complex skill to test. It involves a combination of skills that may have no correlation. Harris said that either four or five components are generally recognized in analyses of the speech process.<sup>7</sup> They are pronunciation (including the segmental features vowels and consonants and the stress and intonation patterns), grammar, vocabulary, fluency (the ease and speed of the flow of speech), and comprehension.

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<sup>6</sup> David Nunan, *Practical English Language Teaching First Edition*, McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc., New York, 2003, pp. 48

<sup>7</sup> David P. Harris, *Testing English as A Second Language*, McGraw-Hill Inc., New York, 1969, pp. 81

## **B. Approaches to Speaking**

Language teaching is seen as helping learners to develop linguistic competence—that is, helping students master the sounds, words, and grammar patterns of English.<sup>8</sup> Communicative competence is seen as a specific component of linguistic competence which is related with speaking. It is “the ability of language learners to interact with other speaker, to make meaning as distinct from their ability to perform or discrete-point tests of grammatical knowledge”.<sup>9</sup> There are several models of communication competence; sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, and discourse competence.

Sociolinguistic competence is the ability to use language appropriately in various contexts. The second competence is strategic competence. It is the learner’s ability to use language strategies to compensate for gaps in skills and knowledge. The last competence is discourse competence. It is “hoe sentence elements are tied together,” which includes both cohesion and coherence.

These components of communication competence have several practical implications for EFL and ESL teachers. Since communication competence is a multifaceted construct, it is important for teachers to understand the complexities learners face when they are speaking English, like their accuracy and fluency.

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<sup>8</sup> Kathleen M. Bailey, *Practical English Language Teaching: Speaking*, McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc., New York, 2005, pp. 3

<sup>9</sup> *Ibid.*,

### C. Types of Spoken Test

According to Thornbury, the most commonly used spoken test types are interviews, live monologues, recorded monologue, role-plays, and collaborative tasks and discussion:<sup>10</sup>

#### 1. Interviews

Interviews are relatively easy to set up, especially if there is a room apart from the classroom where learners can be interviewed. The class can be set some writing or reading task while individuals are called out, one by one, for their interview. Interview also has a problem. If the interviewer is also the assessor, it may be difficult to maintain the flow of the talk while at the same time making objective judgments about the interviewee's speaking ability.

#### 2. Live monologues

In this type of test, the candidates prepare and present a short talk on a pre-selected topic. If other students take the role of the audience, a question-and-answer stage can be included; this will provide some evidence of the speaker's ability to speak interactively and spontaneously. But giving a talk or presentation is only really a valid test if these are skills that learners are likely to need, e.g if their purpose of learning English is business, law, or education.

#### 3. Recorded monologue

In this type of test, learners can take turns to record themselves talking about a favorite sports or pastime. The advantage of recorded tests is that the

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<sup>10</sup> Scott Thornbury, *How to Teach Speaking*, Pearson Education Limited, Harlow, 2005, pp. 125-126

assessment can be done after the event, and result can be "triangulated", that is other examiners can rate the recording and their ratings can be compared to ensure standardization.

#### 4. Role-plays

In role-plays, most students will be used to doing at least simple role-plays in class, so the same format can be used for testing. The other 'role' can be played either by the tester or another student, but again, the influence of the interlocutor is hard to control. Role-plays might involve using data that has been provided in advance, but it then becomes the partial test of reading skills as well.

#### 5. Collaborative tasks and discussion

This type is similar to role-plays except that the learners are not required to assume a role but simply to be themselves. As with role-plays, the performance of one candidate is likely to affect that of the others, but at least the learners' interactive skills can be observed in circumstance that closely approximate real-life language use.

### **D. Assessing Speaking**

One of the great difficulties in testing speaking is the assessment. It is necessary to develop a system of assessment that can be applied as objectively as possible.

Nunan states that there are four basic criteria to keep in mind as we device, use, or adapt tests of speaking and pronunciation.<sup>11</sup> First, to make sure that the tests are what the teachers are teaching and what the students want to be learning. A test that measures what it is intended to measure is called "valid" test. Second, to make sure that a attest or an assessment procedure is reliable. Reliability is concerned with consistency. The third criterion is one with teachers understand quite well-practicality. The fourth criterion is washback (or instructional impact). This concept is often defined as the effect a test has on teaching and learning.

According to Clark, another important issue has to do with the approach to testing speaking is direct, indirect, or semi-direct.<sup>12</sup> A direct test of speaking involves a procedure in which the learners actually speak the target language, interacting with the test administrator or with other students and generating novel utterances. An indirect of speaking, on the other hand, is one in which the test-takers do not speak. For example, the students may be given a conversational cloze test where the original text is the transcript of an actual conversation. The learners' job is to fill in each blank with a word that would be appropriate in the context of that conversation. A semi-direct test of speaking has been applied in context where students actually speak, but they do not interact in a conversation, interview, or role play. The test-takers listen to prompt and tasks delivered by the recorder voice, and also respond by talking to a recording device.

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<sup>11</sup>Kathleen M. Bailey, *Practical English Language Teaching: Speaking*, McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc., New York, 2005, pp. 21-22

<sup>12</sup>*Ibid.*, pp. 23

There are three main methods for scoring students' speaking skills: objective scoring, analytic scoring, and holistic scoring (Bailey, 1998).<sup>13</sup>

a. Objective Scoring

Objective scoring does not involve any judgments during the scoring process. Truly objective scoring can be done by untrained person using a scoring key. Typically there is one and only one correct answer to each objectively scored test item.

b. Holistic ratings

In holistic ratings, a speech is given one overall evaluation, which may be a rating or a designation (pass versus not pass, or the "advanced" designation in a system that consist of novice, intermediate, advanced, or superior categories).

c. Analytical Ratings

Analytical ratings, on the other hand, involve rating systems in which the abilities underlying the speaking skill have been analyzed and the test-takers are evaluated on how well they perform the various sub-skills.

## **E. Speaking in Another Language**

Thornbury states that in the terms of the stage of mental processing involved, there is probably not much different between L2 speakers and L1 speakers.<sup>14</sup> Like L1 speakers, L2 speakers also produce speech through a process of conceptualizing, then formulating, and finally articulating, during which time

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<sup>13</sup> Ibid., pp. 25

<sup>14</sup> Scott Thornbury, *How to Teach Speaking*, Pearson Education Limited, Harlow, 2005, pp. 28

they are also self-monitoring. At the same time, they will be attending to their interlocutors, adjusting their message accordingly, and negotiating the management of conversational turns. The skills of speaking, therefore, are essentially the same and should, in theory, be transferable from the speaker's first language into the second.

L2 speakers' knowledge of the L2, including its vocabulary and grammar, is rarely as extensive or as established as their knowledge of their L1. On the other hand, the problem may be less a lack of knowledge than the unavailability of that knowledge.

#### **F. The Nature of Communication Apprehension**

Communication is an integral part in our daily activities and it has an important role to play in our relationship with others. A good communication is needed to express our feeling emotions and ideas to others. But when a person communicates in second or foreign language, it is not sure whether he can communicate well or not. It is because of the feeling of fear or anxiety of making mistakes. This feeling is called communication apprehension.

According to McCroskey, communication apprehension has been describes as individual level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons.<sup>15</sup> People who are high in communication apprehension tend to get upset when forced to communicate and, as a result try to avoid communication as much as possible. By contrast,

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<sup>15</sup> Muhammad Mushtaq, "Factor Affecting Communication of Pakistani Students", in *International Journal of English and Education* Volume 3, Issue 1, January 2014, pp. 279



people who are low in communication apprehension often enjoy communicating and commonly see opportunities to communicate with others.

If a student is apprehensive about communicating in second language, it is likely he will avoid doing so and as result fail to experience the practice so necessary to the development of true competence in the language. Of particular important is the fact that student's lack of confidence about his/her ability with the second language or from her/his general communication apprehension.<sup>16</sup>

The school environment requires effective communication on the part of the teachers and students. Quite students tend to fare less well in the school environment than talkative students.<sup>17</sup> Communication apprehension is a very serious problem in the classroom, especially in the process of teaching and learning foreign language.

### G. Types of Communication Apprehension

According to McCroskey, communication apprehension has four types. They are traitlike CA, generalized-context CA, person-group CA, and situational CA.<sup>18</sup>

#### a. Traitlike CA

The term "traitlike" is used intentionally to indicate a distinction between this view of CA and one that would look at CA as a true trait. A true

<sup>16</sup> James C. McCroskey et al. "Don't Speak To Me In English: Communication Apprehension in Puerto Rico", in *Communication Quarterly* Volume 33, No. 3, Summer 1985, pp. 186

<sup>17</sup> Jason S. Wrench et al., *Communication, Affect and Learning in the Classroom*, Virginia Peck Richmond, USA, 2009, pp. 56

<sup>18</sup> James C. McCroskey, *The Communication Apprehension Perspective*. In J.A Daly & J.C. McCroskey (Eds.), *Avoiding Communication*, Sage Publication, Inc., Beverly Hills, 1984, pp. 15-19

trait, as viewed here, is an invariant characteristic of an individual, such as eye color and height. No personality variable- and traitlike CA is viewed as a personality-type variable- meets this strict interpretation of "trait".

Traitlike CA is viewed as a relatively enduring, personality-type orientation toward a given mode of communication across a wide variety of contexts. Three varieties of this type of CA have been addressed in the literature- CA about oral communication, CA about writing, and CA about singing. The primary measures of these (PRCA, WAT, and TOSA) are presumed to be traitlike measures.

b. Generalized-Context CA

CA viewed from this vantage point represents orientations toward communications toward communication within generalizable contexts. Generalized-context CA is viewed as a relatively enduring, personality-type orientation toward communication in a given type of context. From this view, there are four varieties of this type of CA. They are CA about public speaking, CA about speaking in meetings or classes, CA about speaking in small group discussions, and CA about speaking in dyadic interactions.

c. Person-group CA

This type of CA represent the reactions of an individual to communicating with a given individual or group of individuals across times. People viewing CA from this vantage point recognize that some individuals and groups may cause a person to be highly apprehensive while other individuals or groups can be produce in the reverse reaction.

Person-group CA is viewed as a relatively enduring orientation toward communication with a given person or group of people. It is not viewed as personality based, but rather as a response to situational constraints generated by the other person or group. Although presumed to be relatively enduring this type of CA would be expected to be changed behavior on the part of the other person or group.

d. **Situational CA**

This type of CA represents the reactions of an individual to communicating with a given individual or group of individuals at a given time. This is the most statelike of the types of CA. When we view CA from this vantage point we recognize that we can experience CA with a given person or group at one time but not at another time.

Situational CA is viewed as a transitory orientation toward communication with a given person or group of people. It is not viewed a personality based, but rather as a response to the situational constraints generated by the other person or group.

## **H. Effects of Communication Apprehension**

McCroskey states that CA has both internal and external impact. The internal impact of CA is viewed from a cognitive rather than a behavioral perspective. The only effect of CA that is predicted to be universal across both

individuals and types of CA is an internally experienced feeling of discomfort.<sup>19</sup> The lower the individual's CA, the less the internal discomfort. By contrast, people with high CA interpret the arousal of fear.

The external effect of CA is some externally observable behaviors that are more likely to occur or less likely to occur as a function of varying level of CA. There are three patterns of behavioral response to high CA. The three patterns are communication avoidance, communication withdrawal, and communication disruption.<sup>20</sup>

a. Communication Avoidance

Most people who have high CA, either trait, context-based, or receiver-based, have the most extreme type of experience described here no more than once, if at all. The experience is so traumatic, or they foresee it as being so traumatic, that they take the steps necessary to be sure it does not happen again. They avoid situations where the feared communication might be required.

Research in this area has uncovered many such avoidance methods. For example, it has been found that people with high CA choose housing that is in more remote areas, even in such areas as dormitories and apartment buildings. In school, the people with high CA do not sign up for classes known to require communication, unless the course itself is required.

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<sup>19</sup> James C. McCroskey, *The Communication Apprehension Perspective*. In J.A. Daly & J.C. McCroskey (Eds.), *Avoiding Communication*, Sage Publication, Inc., Beverly Hills, 1984, pp. 33

<sup>20</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 34 - 35

b. Communication Withdrawal

Communication demands sometimes arise unexpectedly. People with high CA are then forced to resort to the other "fight" response-to withdraw as quickly and fully as possible.

Research indicated that a variety of options are employed to accomplish withdrawal. Students may choose seats at the sides or in the back of the room, where they are least likely to be called upon. In small group, they try to sit in an inconspicuous place where attention is less likely to be directed toward them.

c. Communication disruption

Communication disruption is the third typical behavioral pattern associated with high CA. The person may have disfluencies in verbal presentation or unnatural nonverbal behaviors.

Beside of those three typical responses to high CA, overcommunication is a response of high CA that is not common but this pattern exhibited by small minority. A small minority of students with high CA choose the final option. They decided to fight rather than flee. These people go out of their way to place themselves in communication situations in the hope that, with enough practice, they can be beat the CA problem. Often, the behaviors these people engage in are so inappropriate for a person who is afraid of communication that others may think they are actually low in CA.