

Influencers of Students' English Language Speaking Proficiency: A Structural Equation Modeling Study

Anne Lou M. Hendriks

anne.hendriks@unai.edu

Universitas Advent Indonesia

DOI: [10.35974/acuity.v10i3.3964](https://doi.org/10.35974/acuity.v10i3.3964)

Abstract.

The influence of the English language has increased the need for English language proficiency. Derived from the typical challenges to English language speaking proficiency (ELSP) of Indonesian students in West Indonesia, this study aimed to examine the relationships of the influencers of ELSP (motivation, language anxiety, environmental support, teachers' communicative competence, assessment, and teaching strategies) to understand better the related problems in speaking English. It also sought the best predictive model of ELSP that may help English language learners in West Indonesia.

After employing a postpositivist research paradigm, a correlational research design was used to obtain the perceptions of 251 simple randomly selected university students from West Indonesia. To gather data, 6 dependent variables were measured using 4 modified scales and 2 researcher-constructed scales. The students' ELSP (dependent variable) was measured using their English Language 3 speaking scores. The final data analysis used Pearson's *r* correlation and Structural Equation Modeling.

Results revealed that none of the influencers had a significant correlation with ELSP. The data collected did not support the proposed conceptual framework and the theories used in this study. Such results find the need for alternative ways to enhance the ELSP of university students in West Indonesia. This study can be replicated with different samples to identify the causes of the mismatch of theories used in this study, since Indonesia has not officially accepted English as a second language.

Keywords: assessment, language anxiety, motivation, Structural Equation Modeling, teaching strategies

INTRODUCTION

English language speaking proficiency (ELSP), a significant part of human relations, is manifested as a pathway for academic advancement and financial success (Cohens & Wickens, 2015), professional and social growth (Wang & Rajprasit, 2015), communication for students' success (Escobedo, Balazs, & Sanford, 2015), an opportunity for educational upgrading and career advancement (Baker & Westrup, 2003) and the main gate for a better job (Yamao & Sekiguchi, 2015). Thus, ELSP receives special attention for its different functions. However, even though ELSP is considered an essential feature in various aspects, it remains a challenge to many learners in Asia and other parts of the world

(Shantha & Mekala, 2017), including Indonesia (Eustaquio, 2015).

The Case of Indonesia

The ranking of Indonesia in terms of English fluency has been improving since 2013 (Education First, 2018). However, the progress is not remarkable. As of 2017, ELLs in Indonesia have only 52.15% fluency (Education First, 2018). In West Indonesia, ELLs had only 51.04% fluency in 2017 (Education First, 2018). The figures show that ELLs in Indonesia struggle to enhance their ELSP.

Although Indonesians face challenges in improving their speaking proficiency, studies show that several factors play roles in their ELSP: (a) motivation (Khoiriyah, 2016), (b) language anxiety (Yanuarto, 2015), (c) environmental support (Juhana, 2012b), (d) teachers' communicative competence (Suryanto, 2014), (e) assessment (Widiati & Cahyono, 2006), and teaching strategies (Sulistiyo, 2016). Thus, this study attempted to address the issue by examining the relationships between the influencers of ELSP (motivation, language anxiety, environmental support, teachers' communicative competence, assessment, and teaching strategies) and identifying the best predictors of ELSP.

The findings of this study tried to provide the basis for the development of the best predictive model that may help English language learners (ELLs) in West Indonesia obtain a higher level of speaking proficiency. The findings may help educators, curriculum developers, and school administrators better understand how they can enhance the ELSP of their ELLs and help them in their academic success within and outside the school premises. The findings of this study will help not only in understanding the issues in ELSP but also in applying the suggestions in their contexts.

The research questions that guide the exploration of this study are stated as follows: (1) Is there any significant relationship between the dependent and independent variables in the study? (2) Do the latent variables, directly and indirectly, affect ELSP? (3) Considering the relationships of the influencers of ELSP, what is the best predictive model for the ELLs' ELSP?

The review of related literature follows the three phases (broad-scan, focused review, and comprehensive critique) of a systematic literature review based on Joyner, Rouse, and Glatthorn (2013). The factors found to promote ELSP include motivation (Khoiriyah, 2016), language anxiety (Zrekat, Abu Bakar, & Latif, 2016), environmental support (Muslem & Abbas, 2017), teachers' communicative competence (Ilyina, Tarasuk, Novikova, & Gribova, 2018), assessment (Safari & Koosha, 2016), and teaching strategies (Abu Bakar, Noordin, & Razali, 2019).

Motivation

Motivation, anchored on Self-determination Theory, which emphasizes the significance of human advancement for personality development (Ryan, Kuhl, & Deci, 1997), has been the central focus of many studies. Motivation is a determining factor in learning achievement (Dja'far, Cahyono, & Bashtomi, 2016), and "high motivation may enhance [the] learning curve significantly" (Ordem, 2017, p. 339). A study (see Geddes, 2016) considered instrumental and integration motivation as a good combination for

maintaining students' learning English.

Motivation and ELSP.

Motivation has been considered a contributing factor to ELSP (Jindathai, 2015). In Indonesia, intrinsic motivation played a more significant role in the ELLs who realized the significance of English (Wilona et al., 2010). These learners spent more time practicing their skills by occupying themselves with classroom activities, listening to English songs, immersing themselves in communication with native speakers, and watching English movies (Wilona et al., 2010).

Motivation and Language Anxiety.

Research on motivation and language anxiety is profuse. A study (Basco & Han, 2016) claims a negative correlation between motivation and language anxiety—both lie on the reverse side of the continuum. The finding indicates that a high level of motivation signifies a low level of language anxiety. Motivation gives learners pleasure in prevailing against learning and goal barriers (Gomari & Lucas, 2013) and the capacity to deal with learning activities (Quadir, 2011), which lean towards a lower level of anxiety.

Language Anxiety

Language anxiety, anchored on the Affective Filter Hypothesis (Dulay & Burt, 1977) which postulates the connection between affective factors and L2 acquisition in which affective variables hinder or help the delivery of input, refers to the “feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with L2 context, including speaking” (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994, p. 284). Language anxiety also creates a feeling of fear (Kabir, 2014). It affects learners’ language learning (Horwitz, 1991).

Language Anxiety and ELSP.

In second language activities, “speaking is the most anxiety-provoking” (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991, p. 303), especially when it is done in front of the class (Andrade & Williams, 2009). Students avoid speaking situations in front of the class and even outside the classroom (Akbarov, Aydogan, Doğan, & Gonen, 2014) because such activities cause their anxiety, whether they are exposed or less exposed to the English language. More studies (Subekti, 2018) have confirmed the detrimental effect of language anxiety on ELSP.

Language Anxiety and Motivation.

Scholars (Liu & Zhang, 2013) reflected on the negative relationship between language anxiety and motivation. It shows that there is less motivation if language anxiety exists. The higher the anxiety, the more detrimental it is to one’s motivation.

Environmental Support

Environmental Support, anchored on the Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1971), emphasizes that human response patterns could be reinstated, eliminated, or attributed to varying external sources of influence. It is deemed a significant factor in a learner's ELSP. A void or lack of it hinders ELSP (Abrar, Mukminin, Habibi, Asyrafi, & Makmur, 2018). A study (Okuni & Widyanti, 2019) stresses its importance.

Environmental Support and ELSP.

Environmental support—parents' support (Sabbah, 2017), classmate support (Candilas, 2016), or environmental support (Al-Sobhi & Preece, 2018)—enhances students' ELSP. Based on Eustaquio's (2015) study, teachers providing materials, parents reminding their children to study English to improve verbal communication abilities, and classmates helping the student correct the committed grammar mistakes facilitate learners' ELSP advancement. A stress-free environment enhances better speaking performance because learners can feel that they are supported in their learning (Zrekat et al., 2016).

Environmental Support and Language Anxiety.

A study (see Mohammed, 2015) affirms the relationship between environmental support and language anxiety. The support that learners get from their teachers and classmates has a significant relationship not only to the comfort of their English language learning but also to their FNE (Huang, Eslami, & Hu, 2010).

Teachers' Communicative Competence

The concept of communicative competence had its origin both "in the Anglophone world by Hymes' critique of Chomsky and in the Germanophone literature by Habermas" (Byram, 1997, p. 7). Moreover, as stated by Byram (1997), "Hymes argued that linguists wishing to understand first language acquisition need to pay attention to how not only grammatical competence but also the ability to use the language appropriately is acquired" (p. 7). The necessity "to be able to use English appropriately in a real-life situation" (Byram, 1997, p. 23) has been considered beyond appreciating the importance of learning English as a tool for communicating with English speaking people.

Teachers' Communicative Competence and ELSP.

Teachers' communicative competence is an element of professional competence because it enables teachers to integrate "with the professional cycle disciplines during educational, research[,] and practical activities" (Ilyina, et al., 2018, p. 700). In a competitive world, teachers' communicative competence (see Madhavi, 2015) is needed to attain advancement in one's professional career where teachers can be effective and efficient L2 users, thereby allowing learners to witness teachers' capability in using a language that is not their own and thus motivating the latter to practice the language. Teachers' communicative competence has been proven to contribute to the success of the

students' ELSP (Ilyina et al., 2018; Yufrizal, 2017).

Assessment

Assessment, anchored on Sociocultural Theory (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007), is a central process in education. Through assessment, we can “find out whether students have learned what they have been taught, so that we can make appropriate adjustments to our teaching” (William, 2008, p. 13). Assessment has transformed from a source of information to an inextricable part of students' teaching and learning (Büyükkarci, 2014).

Assessment and ELSP. Studies (Latifa, Rahman, Hamra, Jabu, & Nur, 2015; Safari & Koosha, 2016) confirm that assessing speaking abilities through portfolios and rubrics enhances learners' speaking ability.

Assessment and Language Anxiety. The employment of assessment—data collection on the students' progress—has long been recommended to plan learning series, regulate instruction, and develop programs to improve students' learning. A study (see Abedi, Mahdavi, & Kassaskhah, 2016) revealed the correlation between assessment and language anxiety. In the findings of Abedi et al. (2016), learners with a high or low level of anxiety wanted to be corrected, especially by their teachers, but not with all their errors, only the more serious ones.

Teaching Strategies

Teaching strategies point out various methods, systems, structures, techniques, procedures, and processes employed to help learners attain desired course contents and enable them not only in the development of future achievable goals but also in the identification of learning methods that would cater to the development of right strategies (Armstrong, 2013). They have a positive impact on learners' achievement, especially when they are strategically complemented to the knowledge being sought (Marzano, 2001). Teaching strategies have an impact on teaching and learning processes.

Teaching Strategies and ELSP. Studies (Abu Bakar et al., & Razali, 2019; Al-sobhi & Preece, 2018) affirmed that different teaching strategies such as pair work (Manley, 2015); cooperative group work (Boussiada, 2010); small group work (Muamaroh, 2013); role-play (Kuśnierek, 2015); “continuous story, debate, radio program, and broadcasting on periscope” (Coskun, 2016, p. 1453); and cooperative learning strategies (Hengki, Jabu, & Salija, 2017) enhance ELSP.

Teaching Strategies and Motivation. There is a need to incorporate teaching strategies in the class to generate the learners' motivation—the pulse-giver of life in a class (Anjomshoa & Sadighi, 2015). Teaching strategies enhance learners' motivation in general (Sevy-Biloon, 2017). They impact motivation.

Teaching Strategies and Language Anxiety. Innovative teaching strategies such as pair work,

group activities, and scaffolding can help alleviate anxiety (Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2009). Likewise, teaching strategies such as “structured cooperative learning activities may be effective in reducing language anxiety by providing a non-threatening, supportive environment in which to develop language skills” (Nagahashi, 2007, p. 56). Thus, the findings (see Pahlavanpoorfard & Soori, 2014) affirmed that students had lower levels of anxiety when teachers preferred innovative strategies rather than traditional strategies.

Proposed Conceptual Framework of English Language Speaking Proficiency

A difference in the conceptual framework of this study is the incorporation of additional variables (environmental support, teachers’ communicative competence, assessment, and teaching strategies) into the original model (see Figure 1). Studies revealed the influence of environmental support (Abrar et al., 2018), teachers’ communicative competence (Yufrizal, 2017), assessment (Safari & Koosha, 2016), and teaching strategies (Abu Bakar et al., 2019) reflect their significance in ELSP. Therefore, their inclusion in the model is necessary.

In the review of literature, studies (Gomari & Lucas, 2013) revealed (a) the effect of motivation and language anxiety, (b) the connection between language anxiety and motivation (Liu & Zhang, 2013), and (c) the relationship between environmental support and language anxiety (Huang et al., 2010). Thus, this study presumes the relationship of motivation, language anxiety, environmental support, teachers’ communicative competence, assessment, and teaching strategies towards ELSP.

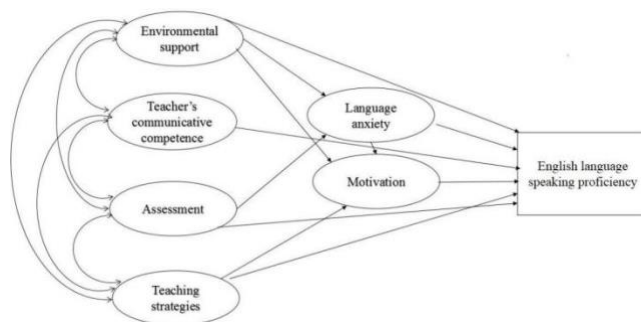


Figure 1. The conceptual framework of the study.

METHODOLOGY

This section presents the different methodological steps to be employed in this study, which include the type and design of the research, the population and sample, the research context, and the instrumentation. It also addresses how the data was collected and analyzed to materialize the purpose of this study. Furthermore, it identifies the best predictors of ELSP through the development of a predictive model by using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) for the ELLs’ ELSP.

Type of Research

This quantitative research involves formal and systematic measurement and statistical analyses to obtain the results of the study (Marczyk et al., 2005). This type of research is opted for because (a) it does not focus on particular cases, (b) the results of the study might be applied to other settings, and (c) it can be generalized from a small number to a large number of people (Creswell, 2012). It entails statistical validity, which can accurately reflect the population (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009).

Research Design

The research design of this study is correlational, using a cross-sectional survey. The cross-sectional survey with data collection at one point in time has the edge of measuring current opinions (Creswell, 2012) to develop an understanding of the population's perception. This is deductive reasoning because it recounts a top-down process that tests general premises through the sequence of steps to conclude (Wheeldon & Ahlberg, 2012).

Population, Sample, and Sampling

The population of this study was composed of tertiary students of West Indonesia. The sample was taken from a private university. The sample consisted of senior students who had completed English Language 1 to 6 classes. This study employed random selection, specifically simple random sampling. It "consists of selecting a group of n units in such a way that each sample of size n has the same chance of being selected" (Ott & Longnecker, 2001, p. 27).

Description of the Instruments

This study utilized seven measures. Six of these measures were for the independent variables (motivation, language anxiety, environmental support, teachers' communicative competence, assessment, and teaching strategies). The seventh measure was the ELSP, the dependent variable. Two of the six different scales, teachers' communicative competence and assessment, with Cronbach's coefficient alpha reliability of .93 and .89, respectively, determined during the pilot study, were self-constructed for this study. variable.

Data Collection Procedures

The researcher used formal data collection procedures. The steps include a pilot study, questionnaire administration, and the gathering of the English language speaking scores.

Pilot Study. A pilot study in social research may provide "advance warning about where the main research project could fail, where research protocols may not be followed, or whether proposed methods or instruments are inappropriate or too complicated" (van Teijlingen &

Hundley, 2001, p. 1). All the variables in the study were pilot tested before the final administration of the questionnaire, since they were either partially adapted or constructed. The respondents from a private tertiary institution in the pilot study were not part of the sample of the final study. After doing the pilot test, some necessary changes were made to the questionnaire to improve it.

Questionnaire Administration. The instrument was divided into three sections—introductory parts, demographic information of the respondents, and the perception of the respondents on the different statements of the scales, which measure the variables under study. The final combined questionnaire is composed of 80 items with two parts—the respondents’ demographic profile and a 5-point Likert scale (*from strongly disagree to strongly agree*) for each of the variables. Researchers need to establish ideals on what they want to undertake. One is through validity because it leads to truthfulness, credibility, or believability (Neuman, 2012).

Gathering of ELSP Scores. The names of the selected respondents based on the simple random sampling who had answered the final questionnaire were given to the registrar’s office personnel of the chosen university. The personnel assisted in the listing of English Language 3 speaking scores corresponding to their names so that a complete matching of scores could be carried out. By considering the respondents’ English language speaking scores, the researcher knew the respondents’ ELSP level. These scores were recorded.

Data Analysis

Data analysis, which calls for the use of statistical techniques, was performed after gathering the data. The data was prepared manually by making a table of scores from the survey data. Then, these scores were entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences program. The application of SEM involves a reiteration process consisting of five consecutive steps—model specification, model identification, model estimation, model fitting, and model modification (Teo, Tsai, & Yang, 2013).

Model Specification. The model specification involves employing “all of the available relevant theory, research, and information and developing a theoretical model” (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004, p. 62), which is of interest to the researcher. It depicts the set of structural equations (Kaplan, 2009), wherein “every variable in the model, latent or measured, is either an IV or a DV” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 688).

Model Identification. The model identification is a prerequisite for the estimation of the parameters (Kaplan, 2009; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). This is a crucial stage wherein the researcher “[resolves] the *identification problem* [emphasis in original] before the estimation of parameters” (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004, p. 63). Model identification checks whether parameters can be set on by the sample data; otherwise, estimation is not possible (Kaplan, 2009).

Model Estimation. The next step is model estimation, which aims “to find values for the free parameters that minimize the discrepancy between the observed covariance matrix and the

estimated, or implied, covariance matrix given the model and the data” (Hoyle, 2012a, p. 9). This is achieved by initially guessing or starting values for the parameters that are needed to begin the modeling process (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The more similar the guesses and the start values are, the fewer iterations are needed to find a solution (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

Model Fitting. Model fitting is used “to determine how well the data fit the model” (Teo et al., 2013, p. 14). In other words, it is used “to compare the predicted model covariance (from the specified model) with the sample covariance matrix (from the obtained data)” [Teo et al., 2013, p. 14]. It explicitly tests the hypothesis of whether the model fits the data (Kaplan, 2009) and can be compared with alternative theoretical models (Stevens, 2009).

Model Modification. The last stage is model modification. According to Stevens (2009), “A researcher will often consider possible modifications to the model in an attempt to improve fit or to test other possible theoretical accounts” (p. 572). If the fit of the model is not good, (a) the theoretical model is not as strong as one prefers, (b) hypotheses can be adjusted, and (c) the model should be retested, which is called “respecification” (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

FINDINGS

Research Question 1 stated, “Is there any significant relationship between the dependent and independent variables in the study?” This question examined the significant relationship among the latent variables. As depicted in Table 1 below, while some

Table 1: *Correlation Between Dependent and Independent Variables (N = 251)*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1. ELSP	1						
2. M	.078	1					
3. LA	.008	.055	1				
4. ES	.036	.228**	-.251**	1			
5. TCC	.029	.286**	-.173**	.647**	1		
6. ASs	.047	.243**	-.219**	.661**	.776**	1	
7. TS	.023	.227**	-.215**	.529**	.605**	.646**	1

Note: **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

ELSP = English language speaking proficiency, M = motivation, LA = language anxiety, ES = environmental support, TCC = teachers’ communicative competence, ASs = assessment, TS = teaching strategies

independent variables are significantly correlated, some are not correlated with each other. Correlations between these variables are further discussed below

The correlation between the independent variables (motivation, language anxiety, environmental support, teachers’ communicative competence, assessment, and teaching strategies) and ELSP was examined by performing a bivariate analysis using Pearson’s r . The correlations among motivation ($r = .078$, $n = 251$, $p > .05$), language anxiety ($r = .008$, $n = 251$, $p > .05$), environmental support ($r = .036$, $n = 251$, $p > .05$), teachers’ communicative competence ($r = .029$, $n = 251$, $p > .05$), assessment ($r = .047$, $n = 251$, $p > .05$), and teaching strategies ($r = .023$, $n = 251$, $p > .05$) were not significant. This means that the independent

variables (motivation, language anxiety, environmental support, teachers' communicative competence, assessment, and teaching strategies) were not correlated with the dependent variable (ELSP); no significant correlations existed between the independent variables and the dependent variable.

In this study, it was found that there was no significant correlation between the independent variables and the dependent variables. However, there was a strong significant correlation between teachers' communicative competence and environmental support ($r = .647, p < .01$), assessment and environmental support ($r = .661, p < .01$), teaching strategies and environmental support ($r = .529, p < .01$), assessment and teachers' communicative competence ($r = .776, p < .01$), teaching strategies and teachers' communicative competence ($r = .605, p < .01$), and teaching strategies and assessment ($r = .646, p < .01$).

Research Question 2 stated, "How do the latent variables directly and indirectly affect ELSP?"

Model Specification

While motivation and language anxiety were endogenous variables, the rest of the latent variables were exogenous. Motivation was measured with six observed variables: (a) motivation, 8; (b) language anxiety, 8; (c) environmental support, 16; (d) teachers' communicative competence, 21; (e) assessment, 15; and (f) teaching strategies, 12. Figure 2 depicts the following: (a) the hypothesized causal relationships in the measurement model are represented with the direction of the arrows; (b) latent variables are represented by the ellipses; (c) observed variables which measure each latent variable are represented with boxes, each representing a questionnaire item; and (d) the measurement error for each observed variable are represented by the circles.

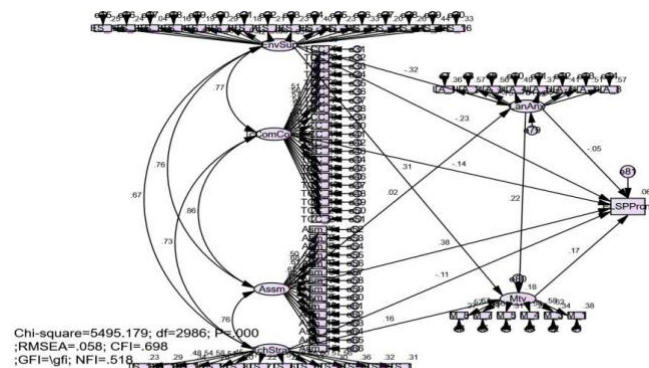


Figure 2. Model specification.

Model Identification

After the model specification is the step of model identification, which is a prerequisite for the estimation of the parameters (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Without it, estimation is not possible (Kaplan, 2009). Upon calculating the standardized estimation, results depicted that the model was overidentified with $\chi^2 = 5495.179$, $df = 2986$, $p < .000$; distinctive sample moments = 3239, and the number of estimated parameters = 253.

Relevant parameters were estimated since the results indicated the necessity for model improvement. Since the model was identified, further modifications were necessary. Otherwise, an analysis could not be pursued if the model was not identified (Stevens, 2009).

Model Estimation

The next step in the modeling process was model estimation. This process stresses the importance of estimating parameters to come up with the implied matrix close to the sample matrix of the observed indicator variables (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). There were six variables and 11 iterations in the model estimation process. Initial measurement results indicated that four of the six model fit indices were unacceptable, as reflected in Table 2.

Table 2: *Initial Measurement Model Fit Results*

Indices	Initial results	Recommended values	Interpretation
χ^2/df	1.840	< 2	Acceptable
NFI	.518	> .92	Unacceptable
IFI	.702	> .92	Unacceptable
TLI	.689	> .92	Unacceptable
CFI	.698	> .92	Unacceptable
RMSEA	.058	> .07	Acceptable

Note. NFI = Normed fit index, IFI = Incremental fit index, TLI = Tucker-Lewis index, CFI = Comparative fit index, RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation

Model Fitting

The model was tested for goodness of fit. It was conducted to decide how well the data fit the model from the obtained data (Teo et al., 2013). This is achieved by explicitly testing the hypothesis of whether the model fits the data (Kaplan, 2009) and comparing it with the alternative theoretical models (Stevens, 2009). In other words, it is scrutinizing the specified and the predicted models.

Figure 3 depicts the tested model with the updated results of the parameters. Likewise, it indicates the regression weights of significant paths (ES ---> LA; and ES ---> M) and non-significant paths (M ---> ELSP; LA ---> ELSP; ES ---> ELSP; TCC ---> ELSP; ASs ---> ESLP; and TS ---> ELSP). The beta coefficients of the paths that resulted include (M---> ELSP [$\beta = .11$]; LA ---> ELSP [$\beta = -.08$]; ES ---> ELSP [$\beta = -.36$]; TCC ---> ELSP [$\beta = .11$]; ASs ---> ESLP [$\beta = .12$]; and TS ---> ELSP [$\beta = .14$]).

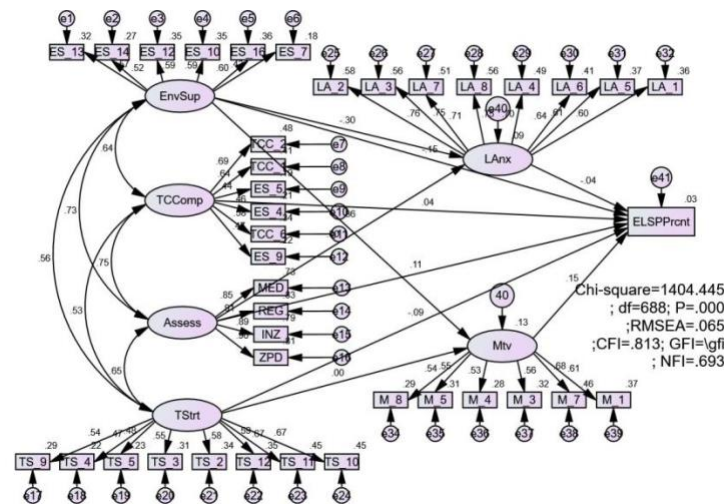


Figure 3. Model fitting.

Table 2 shows the various fit indices from model testing. Most of the fit indices fall within the unacceptable range. Given that almost all of the fit indices were unacceptable and paths were nonsignificant, further modifications were performed through modification indices.

Model Modification

Model modification was performed as the last stage of the modeling process since the parameters from the model testing did not fit. It was intended to improve the goodness of fit, not only in the exploratory work in establishing the relationships among the dependent and independent variables, but also in testing the hypotheses in the

Table 2: Model Fitting Indices

Indices	Initial results	Test results	Recommended values	Interpretation
χ^2/df	1.840	2.041	< 2	Unacceptable
NFI	.518	.693	> .92	Unacceptable
IFI	.702	.816	> .92	Unacceptable
TLI	.689	.799	> .92	Unacceptable
CFI	.698	.813	> .92	Unacceptable
RMSEA	.058	.065	> .07	Acceptable

Note. NFI = Normed fit index, IFI = Incremental fit index, TLI = Tucker-Lewis index, CFI = Comparative fit index, RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation

theoretical work. Given these, the model was respecified by evaluating model estimates and modification indices and deleting non-significant paths and relationships between the latent variables with the highest modification indices. However, after taking the outliers and running SEM, the coefficient of the paths still didnot improve. The coefficients still indicated the same regression weights. Thus, further examination was done through modification indices.

In the first modification indices evaluation, the highest value (65.803) of the error

term was deleted. The deletion was intended to reduce the chi-square to improve the significance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The modification suggested a correlation between e22 and e23. Given that almost all of the fit indices were unacceptable and paths were nonsignificant, further modifications were performed through modification indices.

The second evaluation of the modification indices was conducted. The highest value (44.892) of the modification index or error term was deleted. Further modification suggested that a correlation between e18 and e19 was covaried. Table 3 shows the various fit indices from model testing, with most indices falling within the unacceptable range. Given that almost all of the fit indices were unacceptable and paths were nonsignificant, further modifications were performed through modification indices.

The third evaluation of the modification indices was conducted. The highest value (36.000) of the modification index or the error term was deleted. The modification index suggested a correlation between e18 and e20, which was subsequently covaried. Table 13 shows the various fit indices from model testing, with most indices falling within the unacceptable range. Since almost all of the fit indices were unacceptable and paths

Table 3: *Model Modification Fit Indices*

Indices	Initial result	Modification 1	Modification 2	Modification 3	Recommended values	Interpretation
χ^2/df	1.840	1.875	1.798	1.742	< 2	Acceptable
NFI	.518	.704	.717	.726	> .92	Unacceptable
IFI	.702	.836	.851	.862	> .92	Unacceptable
TLI	.689	.821	.836	.848	> .92	Unacceptable
CFI	.698	.834	.849	.860	> .92	Unacceptable
RMSEA	.058	.061	.059	.056	< .07	Acceptable

Note. NFI = Normed fit index, IFI = Incremental fit index, TLI = Tucker-Lewis index, CFI = Comparative fit index, RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation

remained nonsignificant, further modifications were performed through modification indices.

The fourth evaluation of the modification indices was conducted. The highest modification index value (15.349) or error term was deleted. The modification index, which suggested a correlation between e27 and e28 was covaried. Table 4 shows the various fit indices from model testing, with most indices falling within the unacceptable range. Although most of the fit indices were unacceptable, no further modifications were performed after the four modifications.

Figure 4 represents the final modified model that transpired after the modifications were performed. The final modified model indicates the latent variables and their measurement indicators. The model remained with non-significant paths, suggesting that the model did not fit the data.

Hypothesis Testing

A measurement model was established in AMOS to ascertain the relationship among the latent variables, which necessitates measured items. Such measured items

Table 4: *Final Model Indices*

Indices	Initial results	Final results	Recommended values	Interpretation
χ^2/df	1.840	1.718	< 2	Acceptable
NFI	.518	.730	> .92	Unacceptable
IFI	.702	.866	> .92	Unacceptable
TLI	.689	.853	> .92	Unacceptable
CFI	.698	.864	> .92	Unacceptable
RMSEA	.058	.056	> .07	Acceptable

Note. NFI = Normed fit index, IFI = Incremental fit index, TLI = Tucker-Lewis index, CFI = Comparative fit index, RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation

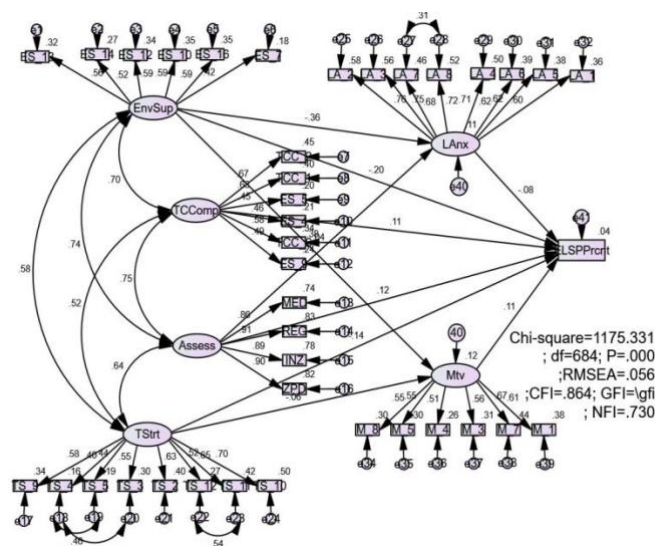


Figure 4. The final modified model.

were run through SEM. Data results were analyzed to come up with the findings of the study, and eventually were used to test the proposed research null hypotheses. The two remaining research null hypotheses were tested against the final model. In SEM, to test a hypothesis means assessing and confirming whether the data suit the theoretical model by employing chi-square, degree of freedom, root mean square error of approximation, and the adequacy of sample size (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The third null hypothesis stated, “The latent variables do not directly and indirectly affect ELSP.” The results support the null hypothesis. Thus, the null hypothesis is accepted.

The last null hypothesis stated, “There is no best predictor model for English language speaking proficiency based on the variables in this study.” After performing various statistical analyses, no parsimonious predictive model transpired. This result supports the null hypothesis.

Research Question 5 (Predictive Model). The final model revealed that none of the paths directly influence ELSP. This study does not reflect any significant findings of the selected antecedents of ELSP. Detailed discussions of the above intriguing findings (reasons why data could not support the theories in the context of the study and what makes

this case unique) are further elaborated below.

DISCUSSION

The following discusses further the findings of the study.

Finding 1: Non-Influence of Motivation on English Language Speaking Proficiency

Results revealed that motivation did not directly influence ELSP. This suggests that motivation does not influence ELSP for this sample. Given this finding, motivation is not a good predictor of ELSP. This finding could be based on the context in Indonesia, where students do not need a foreign language as English on campus, except as required in the English classes and examinations in these classes. In general, the English language is not used for daily interactions in Indonesia (Poedjiastutie & Oliver, 2017). A study by Mukminin, Haryanto, Fajaryani, and Thabran (2013) revealed that when the English language was taught only to pass the examination, students did not see the serious need to learn the language. As stated by Lamb (2011),

Learners with an ‘ought-to-L2 self’ are motivated mainly by a feeling of duty to meet the needs or desires of significant others, such as parents or teachers – a weaker form of motivation that is likely to make them more concerned to prevent failure in conventional tokens of achievements, such as exam results or school reports, rather than seek out opportunities for genuine learning. (p. 196)

In such situations, students might not be motivated to speak English proficiently as revealed in this study.

Another reason can be the Indonesian culture because it demands Bahasa Indonesia as the language for unity (Simpson, 2007). Schools should either implement the use of Bahasa Indonesia or make some efforts to protect and maintain the national culture, identity, and national language (Silalahi, 2015). What prevails is a “fear from Indonesian policy makers to promote English due to its potential effect of decreasing the function of Bahasa Indonesia” (Rahmi, 2015, p. 9).

When students are not integratively motivated, they do not have the desire to “integrate [themselves] within a culture to become a part of that society” (Anjomshoa & Sadighi, 2015, p. 127) that speaks the language. In other words, for integrative motivation, one does not need to be in direct contact with the language group (Graham, as cited in Chalak & Kassaian, 2010). It seems like these Indonesian students do not have integrative motivation, which would have enhanced their ELSP even in the context of their own home country.

Many factors are affected when motivation does not exist. Students do not improve “no matter how good the teacher, curriculum, or school is. Moreover, unmotivated students can disengage other students from academics, which can affect the environment of an entire classroom or school” (Center on Education Policy, 2012, p. 2). Learners need to be motivated.

Finding 2: Non Influence of Language Anxiety on English Language Speaking Proficiency

The finding showed that there is no significant difference in language anxiety in terms of gender, age, and courses. Furthermore, the findings revealed that language anxiety does not directly influence ELSP. Given this, language anxiety is not a good predictor of ELSP. In this particular study, ELLs are not anxious about their English-speaking classes; they seem to feel that they are *in the same boat*. This might be due to the ELLs' idea that they are in the same level of ELSP. Thus, language anxiety may not have any specific impact on improving their ELSP.

Finding 3: Non Influence of Environmental Support on English Language Speaking Proficiency

The finding showed that there is no significant difference in environmental support in terms of gender, age, and course. Furthermore, the finding stresses that environmental support (from the teachers, parents, or classmates) does not directly and indirectly influence ELSP. Given this, environmental support is not a good predictor of ELSP. Environmental support is a good predictor of ELSP. This could be due to the following poor environmental support.

Teachers' support. The problem of large classes (35-45 learners in a class) in the university of this study may contribute to poor environmental support for ELSP. Large classes are challenges in Indonesia (Widiati, Suryati, & Hayati, 2018) and are reasons for ineffective learning and poor achievement of learners (Habibi & Sofwan, 2016). In a large teacher-fronted classroom, students do not have enough time to do various exercises and have opportunities to improve their speaking proficiency (Meng, 2009) because the class becomes a less communicative environment (Mosha, 2014). With a large class size, students may also feel they are not being cared for since the teacher's attention may be divided.

Parents' support. Parents may contribute to the ELSP of the learners (Sabbah, 2017) by creating a positive attitude (Yahaya et al., 2011). However, their limited home support may become a barrier to ELSP (Mosha, 2014). Support may be in terms of practicing the English language in their own respective homes. Yet, in the context of this study, English speaking may not be practiced at home.

Classmates' support. Classmates can be significant sources for one's ELSP (Muslem & Abbas, 2017). The combination of these different learners' levels enhances active participation (Huang & Zhang, 2016). It may happen in the classroom when learners are not properly paired; thus, one may not support the other.

School environment support. The study revealed that "from class observations, a great number of English textbooks do not present grammatical aspects comprehensively as part of systematic presentations of the materials" (Marcellino, 2008). Thus, learners may have difficulty in ELSP in grammar, which is one of the facets of speaking proficiency.

Studies revealed reasons for a poor school environment. This can be due to the lack

of facilities (Hadi & Arante, 2015), the lack of efficiency in terms of maintenance of facilities and infrastructure systems, and inadequate financial support for quality services (Rosadi, 2015). Furthermore, the study of Lamb (2011) in Sumatra, Indonesia reports the types of some English classes in the country.

Classrooms tended to be hot and crowded (35-45 students per class), lessons were long (90 minutes) and routine (a similar pattern of reading texts, grammar and vocabulary exercises, choral repetition and teacher-student questioning) and the textbooks were dull in content and appearance; to learn English in these circumstances demanded strategic competence. (pp. 14-15)

Finding 4: Non-Influence of Teachers' Communicative Competence on English Language Speaking Proficiency

The findings stressed that teachers' communicative competence did not directly influence ELSP. It may be because teachers have poor mastery of English and use Indonesian to discuss English topics (Marcellino, 2008). Also, they have poor teaching quality (Wulandari, 2016).

Another study (see Songbatumis, 2017) was conducted in Indonesia. Teachers' communicative competence in Indonesia is not that effective (Wati, 2011) because they even have difficulty using the language (Yulia, 2013). Teachers are deficient in the English language competence (Songbatumis, 2017). Thus, their poor performance and poor class preparations result in ineffective classroom interactions (Marcellino, 2008). According to Lamb (2011), "The teacher herself lacked the cultural capital – above all, she lacked oral fluency in English – to convince [the learner] that she could help her learn English" (p. 200). Thus, the common "complaint about the school English lessons was that they were incomprehensible: 'I can't catch the main point when the teacher explains something'" (Lamb, 2011, p. 201). These may impede the students' ELSP.

Finding 5: Non Influence of Assessment on English Language Speaking Proficiency

The findings revealed that assessment does not directly and indirectly influence ELSP. This may be due to the reason that some of the assigned teachers are not Education graduates but part of the faculty who may have the ability to speak the English language. In other words, these lecturers are not that qualified to teach and may have some issues with assessment. Such teachers may simply employ a written evaluation instead of using rubric in an oral presentation. Rubric improves ELLs' ELSP (Kongsom, 2016).

Such written evaluations are prominent, especially in large classes where students' presentation seems to last long due to their number. Also, in an improper evaluation of speaking skills, only the brave and the adventurous may participate. Those who are shy and afraid to speak due to fear of making mistakes and getting possible ridicule from friends are not evaluated. Furthermore, a study (Ashadi & Lubis, 2017) proved that lower-order thinking levels still dominated the question types in Indonesia.

This study also needs to explain cases where proper assessment procedures are being used by teachers but students hardly seem to benefit in terms of ELSP. Alahmadi, Alrahaili, and Alshraideh (2019) assert that teachers should use ways to assess the

speaking proficiency of students “to evaluate their performance” (p. 260); these ways may be unclear to many teachers.

Finding 6: Non Influence of Teaching Strategies on English Language Speaking Proficiency

The findings revealed that teaching strategies do not directly and indirectly influence ELSP. One of the reasons for this finding could be the poor teaching strategies. In the context of this study, some of the English language teachers are not English major graduates; thus, they do not have adequate pedagogical skills and sufficient qualifications to teach the English language. A good command of the English language is not sufficient for teaching the English language; it also requires the mastery of teaching strategies. An example of the poor use of teaching strategies is the dominant role of the teachers in English classes (Meida & Fadhly, 2018).

Another reason can be the current curriculum of Indonesia. When properly planned and implemented, it may help the ELLs in their lower years of learning the language. Musthafa (n. d.) states, “The current curriculum provides only general guidelines in the form of learning objectives, teaching methods and techniques, and the scope and general order of the learning materials” (para. 15). This provides teachers the room to develop their own materials even when they do not have systematic training on the matter. In other words, teachers are empowered to come up with their own resources with professional knowledge; yet, they have not fully learned what they are supposed to do with the resources.

A qualitative study (Tanang & Abu, 2014) conducted in Indonesia reflected the need for Indonesian teachers to display exemplary teaching strategies for effective teaching-learning processes. The issue of large class size, for instance, which may decrease learners’ performance may not be an issue if teachers can come up with creative teaching strategies (Danker, 2015). The issue of large class sizes simply requires a different pedagogical approach (Elson et al., 2018).

Another study (see Poedjiastutie, 2017) revealed that many English graduates in Indonesia applied and were accepted as English teachers but did not have the pedagogical knowledge for the four main elements (i.e., communication focus, learner-centered, collaborative teaching, and practical and authentic materials). Another study (Febriana, Nurkamto, Rochsantiningsih, & Rosyidi, 2018) showed that some school subjects are taught by teachers without relevant qualifications due to the shortage of teachers. Furthermore, another study (Andi & Arafah, 2017) elaborated that teaching materials do not reliably ensure that the course contents would be effective in enabling learners to succeed in English.

Future Research

This study was limited to a specific population, the graduating tertiary students in West Indonesia. This study can be replicated with different populations in Indonesia to further identify if the theoretical framework used in this study works or not. Examples of such target population can be the tertiary students from East Indonesia. Since the final model for ELSP accounted for only 4% of the variance in ELSP. There is a need for further research to identify determinants that may enhance ELSP.

There is a necessity to replicate this study in other private or public tertiary institutions in other countries where English is a foreign language, and qualitative studies may be conducted to have a deep probe into the specific contextual and cultural elements related to ELSP in the Indonesian setup. Such studies may reveal elements that may need to be modified or are missing in the theoretical framework used in this study.

CONCLUSION

Research question 1 was aimed to determine the significant relationship between the dependent and the independent variables in the study. The findings revealed that there was no significant correlation between the independent variables and the dependent variables in the study. Research question 2 was aimed to examine how latent variables, directly and indirectly, affect ELSP. The findings revealed that though some variables may indirectly affect ELSP, the main independent variables did not affect ELSP. None of the paths directly influenced ELSP.

Research question 3 aimed to determine the best predictive model for ELSP. However, this study does not reflect any significant findings of the selected antecedents of ELSP. None of the determinants had a significant correlation to ELSP, the dependent variable. Since the determinants are not correlated, the independent variables are not all good predictors in this study. Thus, there is no best predictive model for the ELLs' ELSP in West Indonesia. The data collected did not support the proposed conceptual framework. Thus, the theories in this study did not find application in the studied context. The conceptual framework could not be confirmed by the data collected.

REFERENCES

- Abedi, D., Mahdavi, Z. A., & Kassaskhah, J. (2016). Iranian EFL learners' preferred oral corrective feedback: High anxious learners vs. low anxious learners. *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning*, 5(2), 75-86. doi:10.5861/ijrsl.2015.1121
- Abrar, M., Mukminin, A., Habibi, A., Asyraf, F., & Makmur, M. (2018). "If our English isn't a language, what is it?" Indonesian EFL student teachers' challenges speaking English. *The Qualitative Report*, 23(1), 129-145.
- Abu Bakar, N. I., Noordin, N., & Razali, A. B. (2019). Improving oral communicative competence in English using project-based learning activities. *English Language Teaching*, 12(4), 73-84. doi:10.5539/elt.v12n4p73
- Akatsuka, Y. (2019). Awareness of critical thinking attitudes and English speaking skills: The effects of questions involving higher-order thinking. *Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 23(2), 59-84. doi:10.25256/PAAL.23.2.4
- Akbarov, A., Aydogan, H., Doğan, A., & Gonen, K. (2014). "I can understand but cannot speak": Language anxiety for oral communication. *Research Gate*, 1-17.

Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/261634541_I_Can_Understand_But_Cannot_Speak_Language_Anxiety_For_Oral_Communication

- Alahmadi, N., Alrahaili, M., & Alshraideh, D. (2019). The impact of the formative assessment in speaking test on Saudi students' performance. *Arab World English Journal*, 10(1), 259-270. doi:10.24093/awej/vol10no1.22
- Al-Sobhi, B. M. S., & Preece, A. S. (2018). Teaching English speaking skills to the Arab students in the Saudi school in Kuala Lumpur: Problems and solutions. *International Journal of Education & Literacy Studies*, 6(1), 1-11. doi:10.7575/aiac.ijels.v.6n.1p.1
- Andrade, M., & Williams, K. (2009). Foreign language learning anxiety in Japanese EFL university classes: Physical, emotional, expressive, and verbal reactions. *Sophia Junior College Faculty Journal*, 29, 1-24. doi:10.1.1.509.4500
- Anjomshoa, L., & Sadighi, F. (2015). Importance of motivation in the second language acquisition. *International Journal on Studies in English Language and Literature*, 3(2), 126-137. Retrieved from <https://www.arcjournals.org/pdfs/ijSELL/v3-i2/12.pdf>
- Armstrong, S. (2013). *The 10 most important teaching strategies*. Retrieved from <http://www.innovatemy school.com/ideas/the-10-most-powerful-teaching-strategies>
- Ashadi, R. I., & Lubis, N. (2017). A survey on the levels of questioning of ELT: A case study in an Indonesian tertiary education. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 8(3), 26-31. doi:10.7575/aiac.all.v.8n.3p.26
- Baker, J., & Westrup, H. (2003). *Essential speaking skills: A handbook for English language teachers*. New York, NY: Continuum.
- Bandura, A. (1971). *Social learning theory*. Madison Avenue, NY: General Learning Corporation.
- Basco, L. M., & Han, S. H. (2016). Self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety of Korean university students. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 7(6), 1069-1078. doi:10.17507/jltr.0706.02
- Boussiada, S. (2010). *Enhancing students' oral proficiency through cooperative group work* (Unpublished master's thesis). Retrieved from <http://bu.umc.edu.dz/theses/anglais/BOU1124.pdf>
- Büyükkarci, K. (2014). Assessment beliefs and practices of language teachers in primary education. *International Journal of Instruction*, 7(1), 107-120.

- Byram, M. (1997). *Teaching and assessing international communicative competence*. Clevon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Candilas, K. C. (2016). Language exposures: Determinants of English speaking proficiency. *Journal of English Language and Literature*, 3(3), 52-60. Retrieved from <http://joell.in/wp-content/uploads/2016/07/Language-Exposures.pdf>
- Center on Education Policy. (2012). Student motivation: An overlooked piece of school reform. *Center on Education Policy*, 1-12. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED532666)
- Chalak, A., & Kassaian, Z. (2010). Motivation and attitudes of Iranian undergraduate EFL students towards learning English. *Journal of Language Studies*, 10(2), 37-56.
- Coskun, A. (2016). Benefits of out-of-class speaking activities for EFL students. *Uluslararası Türkçe Edebiyat Kültür Eğitim Dergisi*, 5(3), 1448-1464. Retrieved from http://www.tekederisi.com/Makaleler/1190300911_23co%C5%9Fkun.pdf
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Pearson.
- Dja'far, V. H., Cahyono, B. Y., & Bashtomi, Y. (2016). EFL teachers' perception of university students' motivation and ESP learning achievement. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 7(14), 28-37.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Dulay, H., & Burt, M. (1977). Remarks on creativity in language acquisition. In M. Burt, H. Dulay, & M. Finocchiaro (Eds.), *Viewpoints on English as a second language* (pp. 95-126). New York, NY: Regents.
- Education First. (2018). *English proficiency index*. Retrieved from <https://www.ef.co.id/epi/regions/asia/indonesia/>
- Escobedo, A., Balazs, J., & Sanford, M. (2015). *Identifying reliable predictors of oral proficiency in non-native speakers of American English*. Retrieved from <http://libproxy.aiias.edu:2105/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?vid=11&sid=99ea6864-9647-4175-925d-70e6f09765d5%40sessionmgr107&hid=107>
- Eustaquio, T. L. (2015). Second language learners' proficiency level and factors affecting their speaking ability. *International Refereed Research Journal*, 6(3), 89-100. Retrieved from http://www.researchersworld.com/vol6/issue3/Paper_08.pdf
- Febriana, M., Nurkamto, J., Rochsantiningsih, D., & Rosyidi, M. (2018). Teaching rural

- Indonesian schools students: Effective strategies. *International Journal of Multicultural and Multireligious Understanding*, 5(2), 231-238. doi:10.18415/ijmmu.v5i2.333
- Geddes, A. J. (2016). Korean university students' attitudes and motivation towards studying English. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 4(4), 704-715. doi:10.13189/ujer.2016.040407
- Gomari, H., & Lucas, R. I. (2013). Foreign language learning motivation and anxiety among Iranian students in the Philippines. *Philippine ESL Journal*, 10, 148-178. Retrieved from <http://www.philippine-esl-journal.com/wp-content/uploads/2014/01/V10-A6.pdf>
- Habibi, A., & Sofwan, M. (2016). English teaching implementation in Indonesian pesantrens: Teachers' demotivation factors. *Indonesian Journal of English Teaching*, 5(2), 199-213. doi:10.15642/ijet2.2016.5.2.199-213
- Hadi, M. J., & Arante, L. T. (2015). *Barriers in teaching English in large classes: Voice of an Indonesian English language teacher*. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED582906)
- Hasirci, B., & Cosgun, G. (2018). Factors affecting students' English proficiency in a Turkish EMI University: A phenomenological study. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instruction*, 10(1), 95-116.
- Hengki, H., Jabu, B., & Salija, K. (2017). The effectiveness of cooperative learning strategy through English village for teaching speaking skill. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 8(2), 306-312. doi:10.17507/jltr.0802.12
- Horwitz, E. K. (1991). Preliminary evidence for the reliability and validity of a foreign language anxiety scale. In E. K. Horwitz & D. J. Young (Eds.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 37-39). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Huang, S., Eslami, Z., & Hu, R. J. S. (2010). The relationship between teacher and peer support and English-language learners' anxiety. *English Language Teaching*, 3(1), 32-40.
- Ilyina, I. V., Tarasuk, N. A., Novikova, O. M., & Gribova, N. S. (2018). Communicative competence formation of teachers in the sphere of foreign language education in the system of the advanced training. *European Journal of Contemporary Education*, 7(4), 699-709. doi:10.13187/ejced.2018.4.699
- Jindathai, S. (2015). *Factors affecting English speaking problems among engineering students at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology*. Paper presented at the 3rd National

Interdisciplinary Academic Conference, Thailand, May 15, 2015. Retrieved from <http://cgel.tni.ac.th/2015/upload/files/tniac2015supassorn.pdf>

- Joyner, R. L., Rouse, W. A., & Glatthorn, A. A. (2013). *Writing the winning dissertation: Thesis or dissertation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Juhana. (2012b). 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*, 3(12), 100-110. Retrieved from www.iiste.org/Journals/index.php/JEP/article/download/2887/2913
- Kaplan, D. (2009). *Structural equation modeling: Foundations and extensions*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Khoiriyah, S. L. (2016). The correlation among attitude, motivation and speaking achievement of college students across personality factors. *OKARA Journal of Languages and Literature*, 1(1), 78-92.
- Kongsom, T. (2016). The impact of teaching communication strategies on English speaking of engineering undergraduates. *PASAA: A Journal of Language Teaching and Learning*, 51, 39-69.
- Kuśnierek, A. (2015). Developing students' speaking skills through role-play. *World Scientific News*, 1, 73-111. Retrieved from <http://www.worldscientificnews.com/wp-content/uploads/2012/11/WSN-1-2015-73-1112.pdf>
- Lamb, M. (2011). A Matthew effect in English language education in a developing country context. In H. Coleman (Ed.), *Dreams and realities: Developing countries and the English language* (pp. 86-206). London, UK: The British Council.
- Lantolf, J., & Thorne, S. L. (2007). Sociocultural theory and second language learning. In B. van Patten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition* (pp. 201-224). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Latifa, A., Rahman, A., Hamra, A., Jabu, B., & Nur, R. (2015). Developing a practical rating rubric of speaking test for university students of English in Parepare, Indonesia. *English Language Teaching*, 8(6), 166-177. doi:10.5539/elt.v8n6p166
- Liando, N. V. F., & Lumettu, R. (2017). Students' personal initiative towards their speaking performance. *International Education Studies*, 10(8), 21-28. doi:10.5539/ies.v10n8p21
- Liu, M., & Zhang, X. (2013). An investigation of Chinese university students' foreign language anxiety and English learning motivation. *English Linguistics Research*,

2(1), 1-13. doi:10.5430/elr.v2n1p1

- MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1991). Investigating language class anxiety using the focused essay technique. *The Modern Language Journal*, 75(3), 296-304. Retrieved from http://faculty.cbu.ca/pmacintyre/research_pages/journals/focused_essay1991.pdf
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1994). The subtle effects of language anxiety on cognitive processing in the second language. *Language Learning*, 44(2), 283-306. Retrieved from http://faculty.cbu.ca/pmacintyre/research_pages/journals/subtle_anxiety1994.pdf
- Madhavi, K. V. (2015). *Language skills development: Developing speaking skills at undergraduate level using a smartphone — Practical observations*. Retrieved from <https://www.ijsr.net/archive/v4i12/NOV152482.pdf>
- Manley, K. (2015). *Comparative study of foreign language anxiety in Korean and Chinese students* (Master's thesis). Retrieved from http://repository.stcloudstate.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1032&context=engl_etds
- Marcellino, M. (2008). English language teaching in Indonesia: A continuous challenge in education and cultural diversity. *TEFLIN Journal*, 19(1), 57-69. Retrieved from <http://journal.teflin.org/index.php/journal/article/viewFile/99/93>
- Marzano, R. J., Pickering, D. J., & Pollock, J. E. (2001). *Classroom instruction that works: Research-based strategies for increasing student achievement*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Mbato, C. L. (2013). *Facilitating EFL learners' self-regulation in reading: Implementing a metacognitive approach in an Indonesian higher education context* (Master's thesis). Retrieved from <http://epubs.scu.edu.au/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1361&context=theses>
- Meida, S. N., & Fadhly, F. Z. (2018). The analysis of teacher and students talk in Indonesian EFL classroom interaction. *Indonesian EFL Journal*, 4(1), 73-82. doi:10.25134/ieflj.v4i1.886
- Meng, F. (2009). Encourage learners in the large class to speak English in group work. *English Language Teaching*, 2(3), 219-224.
- Mohammed, A. (2015). EFL effective factors: Anxiety and motivation and their effect on Saudi college student's achievement. *Arab World English Journal*, 6(2), 201-218. Retrieved from <http://www.awej.org/images/AllIssues/Volume6/Volume6number2June2015/16.pdf>
- Mosha, M. A. (2014). Factors affecting students' performance in English language in Zanzibar rural and urban secondary schools. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 5(35), 64-77. Retrieved from <http://www.iiste.org/Journals/index.php/JEP/article/>

view/17455/17714

- Muamaroh. (2009). Oral English proficiency obstacles and solution for university students on Muhammadiyah University of Surakarta. *Kajian Linguistik dan Sastra*, 21(1), 1-10. Retrieved from https://publikasiilmiah.ums.ac.id/bitstream/handle/11617/1234/klis_21_1_2009_1_muamaroh_1-10.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y
- Muamaroh. (2013). *Improving Indonesian university students' spoken English using group work and cooperative learning* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from https://espace.cdu.edu.au/serv/cdu:38908/Thesis_CDU_38908_Muamaroh_A.pdf
- Mohammadipour, M., Rashid, S. M., Rafik-Galea, S., & Thai, Y. N. (2018). The relationships between language learning strategies and positive emotions among Malaysian ESL undergraduates. *International Journal of Education & Literacy Studies*, 6(1), 86-96. doi:10.7575/aiac.ijels.v.6n.1p.86
- Mukminin, A., Haryanto, E., Fajaryani, N., & Thabran, Y. (2013). The achievement of ideology and top-down national standardized exam policy in Indonesia: Voices from local English teachers. *Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry*, 4(4), 19-38. doi:10.17569/tojq.03900
- Muslem, A., & Abbas, M. (2017). The effectiveness of immersive multimedia learning with peer support on English speaking and reading aloud. *International Journal of Instruction*, 10(1), 203-218. Retrieved from http://www.e-iji.net/dosyalar/iji_2017_1_13.pdf
- Musthafa, B. (n.d.). *English teaching in Indonesia: Status, issues and challenges*. Retrieved from <https://www.oocities.org/upis3/bm/english-teaching-in-indonesia.htm>
- Nagahashi, T. L. (2007). *Techniques for reducing foreign language anxiety: Results of a successful intervention study*. Retrieved from <http://air.lib.akita-u.ac.jp/dspace/bitstream/10295/547/3/kk9-6.pdf>
- Neuman, W. L. (2012). *Understanding research*. New York, NY: Pearson.
- Okuni, I. M., & Widyanti, A. (2019). International students' cognitive load in learning through a foreign language of instruction: A case of learning using Bahasa-Indonesia. *International Journal of Social Sciences*, 4(3), 1503-1532. doi:10.20319/pijss.2019.43.15031532
- Ordem, E. (2017). A longitudinal study of motivation in foreign and second language learning context. *Journal of Education and Learning*, 6(2), 334-341. doi:10.5539/jel.v6n2p334

- Ott, R. L., & Longnecker, M. (2001). *An introduction to statistical methods and data analysis* (5th ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Thomson Learning.
- Pahlavanpoorfard, S., & Soori, A. (2014). Attitudes towards teachers' motivation, and classroom strategy, in English language classrooms. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 5(1), 164-168. doi:10.7575/aiac.all.v.5n.1p.164
- Poedjiastutie, D., & Oliver, R. (2017). Exploring students' learning needs: Expectation and challenges. *English Language Teaching*, 10(10), 124-133. doi:10.5539/elt.v10n10p124
- Quadir, M. (2011). A comparative study of English and non-English major university students' motivation to learn English oral communication. *Modern Language Journal*, 79, 505-520. Retrieved from http://dspace.ewubd.edu/bitstream/handle/123456789/387/Mst_Moriam_Quadir.pdf?sequence=1
- Rahmi. (2015). The development of language policy in Indonesia. *Englisia*, 3(1), 9-22.
- Ryan, R. M., Kuhl, J., & Deci, E. L. (1997). Nature and autonomy: Organizational view of social and neurobiological aspects of self-regulation in behavior and development. *Development and Psychopathology*, 9, 701-728.
- Sabbah, S. S. (2017). The factors that affect Qatari college students' motivation and attitudes to learn English. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 8(1), 259-269. Retrieved from <http://www.mcser.org/journal/index.php/mjss/article/viewFile/9689/9328>
- Safari, M., & Koosha, M. (2016). Instructional efficacy of portfolio for assessing Iranian EFL learners' speaking ability. *English Language Teaching*, 9(3), 102-116. doi:10.5539/elt.v9n3p102
- Schenck, A. (2018). NESTs, necessary or not? Examining the impact of native English speaker instruction in South Korea. *Journal of International Education and Leadership*, 8(1), 1-12.
- Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (2004). *A beginner's guide to structural equation modeling* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Sevy-Biloon, J. (2017). Different reasons to play games in an English language class. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, 5(1), 84-93. doi:10.11114/jets.v5i1.1967
- Shantha, S., & Mekala, S. (2017). The role of oral communicative tasks (OCT) in

developing the spoken proficiency of Engineering students. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 8(2), 161-169. doi:10.7575/aiall.v.8n.2p.161

- Silalahi, R. M. (2015). English teachers' perspectives on the impacts of English as a global language influencing the Indonesian educational system. In *Proceeding of International Conference on Teacher Training and Education (ICTTE) FKIP UNS 2015*, 1(1). Retrieved from <https://jurnal.fkip.uns.ac.id/index.php/ictte/article/view/7583>
- Simpson, A. (2007). Indonesia. In A. Simpson (Ed.), *Language & National Identity in Asia* (pp. 312-336). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Songbatumis, A. M. (2017). Challenges in teaching English faced by English teachers at MTsN Taliwang, Indonesia. *Journal of Foreign Language Teaching & Learning*, 2(2), 54-67. Retrieved from <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/b8fe/b221173d74dc58c5c8c8e4278a27d59ef1ca.pdf>
- Stevens, J. P. (2009). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences* (5th ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Subekti, A. S. (2018). Investigating the relationship between foreign language anxiety and oral performance of non-English major university students in Indonesia. *Dinamiku Ilmu*, 18(1), 15-35. doi:10.21093/di.v18i1.880
- Sulistiyo, U. (2016). Learning English as a foreign language in an Indonesian university: A study on non-English department students' preferred activities inside and outside the classroom. *Indonesian Journal of English Teaching*, 5(1), 1-26. Retrieved from <http://ijet.uinsby.ac.id/index.php/jurnalpbi/article/view/12/pdf>
- Suryanto. (2014). *Issues in teaching English in a cultural context: A case of Indonesia*. Retrieved from ejournal.unsri.ac.id/index.php/jenglish/article/download/2075/883
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2013). *Using multivariate statistics* (6th ed.). New York, NY: Pearson.
- Tanang, H., & Abu, B. (2014). Teacher professionalism and professional development practices in South Sulawesi, Indonesia. *Journal of Curriculum and Teaching*, 3(2), 25-42. doi:10.5430/jct.v3n2p25
- Tenko, R., & Marcoulides, G. A. (2000). *A first course in structure equation modeling*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Teo, T., Tsai, L. T., & Yang, C. C. (2013). Applying structural equation modeling (SEM) in educational research: An introduction. In M. S. Khine (Ed.), *Application of structural equation modeling in educational research and practice* (pp. 3-21). Boston, MA: Sense.

- Tercan, G., & Dikilitaş, K. (2015). EFL students' speaking anxiety: A case from tertiary level students. *English Language Teaching Research Journal*, 4(1), 16-27. Retrieved from http://dergipark.ulakbim.gov.tr/elttrj/article/view/5000141267/pdf_12
- Tuan, V. V. (2017). Communicative competence of the fourth year students: Basis for proposed English language program. *English Language Teaching*, 10(7), 104-122. doi:10.5539/elt.v10n7p104
- van Teijlingen, E. R., & Hundley, V. (2001). The importance of pilot studies. *Social Research Update*, 35. Retrieved from <http://sru.soc.surrey.ac.uk/SRU35.pdf>
- Vanderstoep, S. W., & Johnston, D. D. (2009). *Research method for everyday life: Blending qualitative and quantitative approaches*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Wang, T., & Rajprasit, K. (2015). Identifying affirmative beliefs about English language learning: Self-perceptions of Thai learners with different language proficiency. *English Language Teaching*, 8(4), 1-13. doi:10.5539/elt.v8n4p1
- Wati, H. (2011). The effectiveness of Indonesian English teachers training programs in improving confidence and motivation. *International Journal of Instruction*, 4(1), 79-104.
- Wheeldon, J., & Ahlberg, M. K. (2012). *Visualizing social science research: Maps, methods, and meaning*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Widiati, U., & Cahyono, B. Y. (2006). The teaching of EFL speaking in the Indonesian context: The state of the art. *Bahasa dan Seni*, 34(2), 269-292. Retrieved from <http://sastra.um.ac.id/wp-content/uploads/2009/10/The-Teaching-of-EFL-Speaking-in-the-Indonesian-Context-The-State-of-the-Art-Utami-Widiati-Bambang-Yudi-Cahyono.pdf>
- Widiati, U., Suryati, N., & Hayati, N. (2018). Unraveling the challenges of Indonesian novice teachers of English. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 7(3), 621-629. doi:10.17509/ijal.v7i3.9824
- Wiliam, D. (2008). Quality in assessment. In S. Swaffield (Ed.), *Unlocking assessment: Understanding for reflection and application* (pp. 123-137). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Wilona, A., Ngadiman, A., & Palupi, R. (2010). The correlation between intrinsic motivation and speaking proficiency of the English department students. *Magister Scientiae*, 27, 45-56. Retrieved from <http://download.portalgaruda.org/article.php?article=296778&val=5215&title=The%20Correlation%20between%20Intrinsic%20Motivation%20and%20Speaking%20Proficiency%20of%20the%20English>

%20Department%20Students

- Yamao, S., & Sekiguchi, T. (2015). Employee commitment to corporate globalization: The role of English language proficiency and human resource practices. *Journal of World Business*, 50, 168-179.
- Yanuarto, W. N. (2015). To abandon or not to abandon: Foreign language anxiety and its effects on students' non-English department. *International Journal of Social Sciences*, 1(1), 1321-1333.
- Yufrizal, H. (2017). Teachers and students' perceptions of communicative competence in English as a foreign language in Indonesia. *Education Research and Reviews*, 12(17), 867-883. doi:10.5897/ERR2017.3243
- Zrekat, Y., Abu Bakar, N., & Latif, H. (2016). The level of anxiety among Jordanian EFL undergraduates in oral communication performance. *Arab World English Journal*, 7(3), 172-186. Retrieved from <http://www.awej.org/images/AllIssues/Volume7/Volume7Number3September2016/14.pdf>