THE EFFECTIVENESS OF ANALYTICAL PHONICS TO TEACH LISTENING VIEWED FROM THE STUDENTS’ SELF-CONFIDENCE (An Experimental Research for the Kindergarten Students of Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten, Lagoi, Bintan in the Academic Year of 2010/2011)

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

A. Background

The need to learn English as the second language or the first foreign language is clearly seen nowadays because English becomes an international language as a result of the existence of international trade (Mulyasa, 2003: 30). Many people learn English language for various purposes, for business, education, pleasure, science, and many other purposes. Considering the importance of English, it is important to learn English as early as possible. Paul (2003: 1) describes that millions of children in Asia are learning English as their second language and the first foreign language. Therefore, it is best to introduce the foreign language learning to the children who are at an early stage of brain and mental development. Nowadays, a lot of schools offer fast and effective English learning for young learners, because teaching English to young learners is considered good to prepare the students facing the globalization era.

English has some underlying skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Among those four skills, listening is the most important one. Brownwell (1996: 6) clarifies that listening is learnt first before speaking, reading, and writing. When people want to have an effective communication, they have to listen first in order to know what to say (1996: 6). Paul (2003: 72) agrees that the students must hear the target language first before speaking it, and after some time they improve the other skills of reading and writing. One supporting argument is that babies hear the words in their native
language first, then say them, and read and write the words afterwards. Ereene (2001: 24) defines listening as “giving full attention to the sound”. The sound can be from the teacher’s explanation, parents’ direction or television news report (Ereene, 2001: 25). Therefore, listening is the underlying skill which should be learnt first by giving full attention to the sound.

In English learning today, the students are expected to learn as early as possible. It can be seen from the phenomena when more schools for early year students started to include English as one of the main subjects. However, the school’s consideration is not followed by understanding the students’ ability to learn a language. The students have difficulties in learning the spoken skill because they do not have enough exposure to listen to it. Moreover, they get confused with the letter and sound systems which are sometimes different from each other. This case happens when they listen to a word, but they cannot figure out the written symbol of the spoken word. Therefore, the students need more exposures to recognize letter-sound correspondence in order to make them accustomed to listening to sounds and simple words. This ability helps them to improve their listening skill when they are in the higher level.

To solve this problem, phonics emerges as a method for teaching listening, reading and writing to the English learner about how to connect the spoken English sounds with letters or groups of letters (Paul, 2003: 87). For example, the representation of c, k, ck or ch spellings is in the form of /k/ sound. The most important point is that phonics emphasizes on the underlying patterns. Then, when the students are able to recognize the
patterns, they do not need to memorize the individual words. It means that the students are able to listen and recognize many new words.

Some students are not very confident when they have to learn the target language. The tendencies of not being confident can be seen when they are afraid of making mistakes, they lack of concentration and finally perform negativity, they have a high ego so that they become over confident, or the students is given high target but they cannot fulfill it because they have limited ability (www.mindtools.com).

The fact that the students are not confident enough can be dismissed by giving the interesting activity which can build the students’ confidence in listening to the target language. Paul (2003:72) mentions that learning listening does not put too much burden for the students because it does not require the students to perform or produce certain work as it is in speaking, reading, or writing. However, teaching phonics through listening first helps the students to improve the students’ self-confidence. By giving phonics, the students not only enhance their persistence in taking risk but also learn from their mistakes in recognizing and applying phonics in other skills.

Under this circumstance, teaching phonics is suitable for the students in beginning level. Young learners in the kindergarten can be considered as the English learners who are in the beginning level. Young learners, according to the definition by Phillips (1997:23), are children from the first year of formal schooling, around five or six years old up to eleven or twelve years of age. This period is important in child’s intellectual, physical, emotional, and social development. One of the students’ emotional developments is self-
confidence. Sayre (2001: 12-13) explains that self-confidence is a positive feeling when someone believes in himself and others believe in him.

Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten students have been learning English since they are in the pre-school. When the teacher explains certain topics in the first language, they also mention the words in English. In addition, the students are already encouraged to practice simple spoken expressions and written exercises. However, there are some difficulties in teaching letter-sound correspondence because besides learning letters in their native language, they are supposed to identify letters in English which show difference between the alphabet and its sound. Moreover, the students tend to be unconfident when they face new words because they are afraid to make mistakes. Therefore, the writer would like to apply phonics approach for these students in order to make them confident in performing their listening skill.

This thesis would like to discuss the effectiveness of phonics in teaching listening viewed from the kindergarten students’ self-confidence of Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten in the academic year of 2010/2011.

B. Problem Identification

The problems are identified as follows:

1. Why do the students consider that listening is difficult?
2. What are the listening activities suitable for kindergarten students?
3. What are the listening assessments suitable for kindergarten students?
4. What are the characteristics of low and high confidence students?
5. What factors break the students’ confidence in listening skill?

6. What factors build the students’ confidence in listening skill?

7. Which approach is more effective to improve the children’s listening skill, analytical phonics method or synthetic phonics method?

8. Which one is better, the group of students who have high self-confidence or low self-confidence in their listening skill?

9. Is there any interaction effect between self-confidence and the teaching methods on the students’ listening skill?

C. Problem Limitation

This thesis is limited to:

1. The implementation of analytical phonics method and synthetic phonics method are conducted in single word and simple sentence that are related to the context because the students have learnt the basic phonics of consonants.

2. Phonics methods compared are analytical and synthetic.

3. The students learn the vowel phonics.

4. The materials in the thesis are taken from many sources in the internet.

5. The self-confidence is limited to the students’ self-confidence in facing listening activity.

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D. Statement of the Problems

According to the problem identification above, the problems are stated as follows:

1. Is analytical phonics method more effective than synthetic phonics method to teach listening for the second grade students of Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten in the academic year of 2010/2011?

2. Do the second grade students of Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten having high self-confidence have better listening skill than those having low self-confidence in the academic year of 2010/2011?

3. Is there any interaction effect between phonics methods and self-confidence on the students’ listening skill of Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten in the academic year of 2010/2011?

E. Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are to find out whether:

1. analytical phonics method is more effective than synthetic phonics method to teach listening for the second year kindergarten students of Tunas Bangsa School.

2. the students having high self-confidence have better listening skill than those having low self-confidence.

3. there is an interaction between phonics methods and self-confidence on the students’ listening skill.
F. Benefits of the Study

This study would be beneficial for:

1. The Teachers

   This study informs the teachers about the application of analytical phonics in teaching listening for kindergarten students.

2. The Students

   This research helps the students to perform better in the listening activity.

3. The Other Researchers

   This research is expected to give a review or contribution to the use of phonics to improve the students’ listening skill. It is also expected to be a reference to carry out and develop related study.
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED THEORY

This chapter deals with some theories as the basis for the discussion. The purpose of this chapter is to obtain the understanding of what the basic principles of the study are, so that the problems stated in the previous chapter can be answered.

In this chapter, three major points are discussed. First is the review of related theories that discusses the relevant theories underlying the study, and second is the basic assumption of the study and the last is the hypothesis underlying the effectiveness of phonics in teaching listening for kindergarten students.

The theories to be elaborated in the study of “the effectiveness of phonics to teach listening viewed from the self-confidence of Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten students” are listening, phonics, and self-confidence.

A. Listening

Since this study concerns with listening materials for kindergarten, the elaboration of listening, listening processes, listening purposes, listening microskills, listening macroskills, and activities for developing auditory and aural skills, methods of assessing students’ auditory and aural skills are presented in this study.

1. The Nature of Listening

Rost (2001: 7) states that the term listening is used in language teaching to refer to a complex process that allows us to understand spoken language. Listening is one of the skills that becomes the basic skill in learning foreign language. It is usually used
in other skills: reading, writing, and speaking. For example, whenever we want to read, we must have a basic knowledge of pronunciation derived from listening to the dialogue in order to produce good sentences. When we want to write someone’s speech, we must be able to listen to him. When we want to speak, we must have listened to someone’s pronunciation, intonation, and utterance so that it can help us in producing utterances.

Myers and Myers (1992:143) explains that instead of paying attention to the sound, listening includes the understanding, paying overt attention, analyzing, and evaluating the spoken messages, and possibly acting on the basis of what has been heard. In line with Myers and Myers, Underwood (1993: 1) clarifies that listening is the activity of paying attention to and trying to get meaning from something we hear. It is a creative skill, not the passive one. The listeners take the raw material of the words, the arrangements of those words, and the rise and fall of the voice to create significance in order to comprehend the sounds they are listening to (Rivers, 2006: 160).

Buck (2001: 1) agrees with Underwood; he explains that listening is a process to make sense of what is heard. The understanding process is not only limited to language comprehension but also to make sense of the knowledge sources. Comprehension is a natural and continual process and so is language comprehension. He, furthermore, states that listening comprehension is a process of bottom-up or top-down in which listeners interact with the spoken text. However, the listener not only tries to understand what words, phrases, and sentence mean, but what the speaker
actually means. It can be concluded that the listener tries to make sense out of what is heard by utilizing his different knowledge sources. These knowledge sources will facilitate him to understand the massage. In other word, the meaning of the message is not in the text itself, but is something that is constructed by the listener based on a number of different knowledge sources (Buck, 2001: 2).

In line with Buck and Underwood, Petty and Jensen (1995: 181) agree that listening involves more than just hearing or paying attention, but it requires active and conscious attention to sound in order to gain meaning from them and also reach what have been heard. In line with Petty and Jensen, Yagang (1996: 16) claims that listening is the ability to identify and understand what others are saying.

Richards and Platt (1992: 216) assert that listening comprehension is the process of understanding speech in the second or foreign language. The process focuses on the role of individual linguistic unit (e.g. phonemes, words, phrases, grammatical structures, simple sentences) as well as the role of the listener expectations, the situation and context, background knowledge, and the topic. It therefore includes both top down and bottom-up processing.

Prochter (1995: 438) clarifies that the word listening is giving attention to a person or thing that you can hear. Ross (1994: 2) states that listening is a process that is triggered by our attention. In psychological terms, attention is an excitation of nerve pathways on the brain to organize the stimuli in an efficient way. The purpose of attention is to help up organize and use what we see and hear.
Kress (1993: 167) mentions that listening skill is divided into two, namely auditory and aural skills. The auditory is the ear’s ability to hear meaningful sounds. Auditory refers to the ability to recognize the sounds of a particular language and the ability to discriminate among similar sounds within the language. These abilities can be gained through training or culturally acquired. On the other hand, the aural skill refers to the ability of the student to listen and to understand spoken messages.

These definitions of listening are going to be concluded as the basis of this study. Some linguists who have almost the same opinion about what listening is are Myers and Myers, Michael Rost, Underwood, Urr, Richards and Platt, Pretty and Jensen, Kress, Prochter, and Yagang. They claim that listening is a process of understanding spoken language. However, Richards and Platt emphasize on the role of individual linguistic unit (e.g. phonemes, words, and grammatical structures) as well as the role of the listener expectations, the situation and context, background knowledge, and the topic. Finally, Buck and Heuer expect the students to be able to make sense the spoken language after they pay attention and understand it.

Based on the discussion above, it can be concluded that listening for kindergarten students is understanding speech which includes the added dimensions of recognizing the sounds, discriminating similar sounds, and understanding words, phrases, and simple sentences.

2. Listening Processes

In order to comprehend listening, there are two kinds of listening processes. They are bottom up and top down processes. Bottom up processing is “the use of incoming
data as a source of information about the meaning of a message (Richards, 1988: 59). The listeners digest the information they received such as sounds, words, clauses, and sentences, so that they can get the meaning. In this process, the listeners receive totally new information which they have never known before. Top down processing is “the use of background knowledge in understanding the meaning of a message” (Richards, 2002: 60). The listeners use their previous knowledge about some topics, situations, characters, events, place, and even their knowledge in long-term memory in the form of script or schema. Top down gives a basic description of the discourse that helps the listeners understand the context.

Listening does not depend only on bottom up processing that recognizes the words and sentences but it also needs top down processing in order to create the situation in the listeners’ mind. Otherwise, listening not only needs top down processing but also bottom up because it can help listeners find words’ meaning so that they have good description of the circumstances. In other words, listening requires bottom up and top down processing to comprehend the passage.

In this study, the writer would like to consider bottom up and top down processing so that the students will be able to understand the spoken words.

3. Listening Purposes

Besides recognizing the differences between bottom up and top down processings, there are two listening purposes which need to be discussed. Richards (1988: 63), as quoted in Brown and Yule (1983), elaborates two listening purposes.
The first is interactional functions of language. The interactional function of language emphasizes the interaction of the participants to create comfortable and not threatening situation. Brown and Yule explain that interactional purpose is listener oriented (Richard, 2002: 63). Examples of interactional functions are “greetings, small talk, jokes, complements, casual chat of the kind in which we use in past time with friends or to make encounters with strangers comfortable” (Richards, 2002: 64). The concrete example is when a neighbour knows that a woman next door has just delivered a baby, he will congratulate her by saying,” Congratulations for your healthy newborn baby, I’m glad to hear about that.” In this situation, the neighbour shows his sympathy to the woman.

The second purpose is the transactional functions of language. It is used for communicating information and usually called “message oriented”. This transactional function concerns with the interaction with other people related to the language, coherence, content, and clarity such as, taking notes or carrying out an instruction (Richards, 2002: 65).

Both interactional and transactional function are needed because interactional is used to interact with other people, while transactional is used to gain new information and skills (Richards, 2002: 66). However, this study focuses on the transactional purpose in order to understand simple words because it deals with kindergarten students who have limited vocabulary.
4. Micro and Macro skills

Brown (2001: 256) elaborates listening into two major skills. They are micro and macro skills implied in the performance of listening comprehension. There are 17 objectives to assess in listening categorized in the micro and macro skills.

a. Micro Skills

Listening micro skills includes 11 points to be considered, they are as follows:

1) Discriminating among the distinctive sounds of English.
2) Retaining chunks of language of different lengths in short-term memory.
3) Recognizing English stress patterns, words in stressed and unstressed positions, rhythmic structure, intonation contours, and their role in signaling information.
4) Recognizing reduced forms of words.
5) Distinguishing word boundaries; recognize a core of words, and interpret word order patterns and their significance.
6) Processing speech at different rates of delivery.
7) Processing speech containing pauses, errors, corrections, and other performance variables.
8) Recognizing grammatical word classes (nouns, verbs, etc.), systems (e.g., tense, agreement, pluralization), patterns, rules, and elliptical forms.
9) Detecting sentence constituents and distinguish between major and minor constituents.
10) Recognizing that a particular meaning may be expressed in different grammatical forms.
11) Recognizing cohesive devices in spoken discourse.

Regarding phonics listening materials for kindergarten students, the writer would like to take some points in the micro skills; they are discriminating among the distinctive sounds of English, retaining chunks of language of different lengths in short-term memory and recognizing reduced forms of words.

b. Macro Skills

The larger scopes of listening skills are stated in the macro skills; namely:

1) Recognizing the communicative functions of utterances, according to situations, participants, goals.

2) Inferring situations, participants, goals using real world knowledge.

3) From events, ideas, and so on, describe, predict outcomes, infer links and connections between events, deduce causes and effects, and detect such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization, and exemplification.

4) Distinguishing between literal and implied meanings.

5) Using facial, kinetics, body language, and other nonverbal clues to show the meanings.

6) Developing and using a battery of listening strategies, such as detecting key words, guessing the meaning of words from context, appealing for help, and signaling comprehension.

These macro skills are beneficial to develop the students’ listening mastery and
they provide the teachers with some skills which can be used to assess the student’s listening mastery. However, the writer would not apply those macro skills in this study because they are not suitable for kindergarten students. One point to be considered is using facial, kinesics, body language, and other nonverbal clues to decipher meanings because the students need to understand the meaning of each word in analytical phonics.

5. Activities for Developing Auditory and Aural Skills

The activities for developing auditory skills are divided into twelve and aural skills consist of thirteen activities.

a. Auditory Activities

The activities for developing auditory skills are as follows:

1) Sound Flash

The students listen carefully to the beginning sound of the word. After that, they listen to the beginning sounds of other words. They should hold up either a ‘yes’ or a ‘no’ response flashcard after each word to show whether it has the same beginning sound as the target word. Example: dig-dad, bed, dark, dinner. After recognizing the target in the initial position, the students repeat the activity for the sound in the final and medial position.

2) Sound Switch

The students pay attention to the beginning sounds of a series of words. The teacher directs them to raise their hands when they notice that the teacher
‘switched’ to a word that begins with a different sound. The teacher reads at least four words with the same sound before introducing one with a different initial sound.

3) **Same or Different?**

The students listen to pairs of words and indicate whether the two words are the same or different. The students may respond orally or by holding up ‘same’ or ‘different’ flashcards. The teacher trains the students’ auditory discrimination by beginning with gross differences and working down to minimal pairs. For example: *house/hat, pin, bin*.

4) **Imposter**

The students listen to groups of three words, two of which are the same, one of which differs by only one sound. The students have to show which word was different by holding up a flashcard with the number 1, 2, or 3 on it. Example: *pat, pit, pit (1)*.

5) **Repeat After Me**

The teacher presents a target sound in isolation, then, as the initial sound in a word. The students are required to listen and repeat the sequence. They continue the exercise with several words for each target sound. Examples: /p/ *Pete; /p/ pet; /p/ pack; /p/ pitch*.

6) **Rhyme Time**

First, the students ought to listen to and repeat pairs of rhyming words; then they suggest additional words that rhyme with the pairs.
7) **Speed Recognition Game**

The game aims to hear the target initial sound each time it is used. When the students make mistakes, they gain more scores. The perfect score is zero because at this point the students do not make any mistakes.

The teacher announces the target sound and read a list of twenty words with the target sound words randomly interspersed. He reads at a moderate fast pace. The students may make hatch marks on paper to keep track. The teacher records the students’ scores and challenges them to improve them in order to play again.

8) **Hide and Seek**

The teacher presents a target sound and groups of three words. One of which contains the target sound in the initial, medial, or final position. The students indicate which word has the target sound by circling the number 1, 2, or 3 on an answer sheet. Examples: /t/ by; tie, lie (2); /t/ wait, wade, wake (1).

9) **Close Calls**

The students get a worksheet of word pairs for problem contrasts. They have to listen as the teacher reads one of the paired words and circle it on the worksheet. Examples: *they/ they- day; then/den- then.*

10) **Starts with**

The teacher says a word aloud in a fast pace and the students respond with the letter used to spell the initial sound of the word. The teacher may repeat the activity for the final sounds.
11) **Flash Spell**

The students receive sets of flashcards on which are printed the spellings of sounds. The students are expected to hold up the card that spells the sound they hear at the beginning, end, or in the middle of the words.

12) **Spell/ Write Bee**

The teacher reads a list of words aloud and the students write them. He gives up to thirty words to review five sound-spelling correspondences in an exercise. The teacher can repeat the exercise by getting individual students spell the words orally.

Some of these auditory activities are suitable for kindergarten students. This study would like to apply these activities to teach phonics.

b. **Aural Activities**

The activities for developing the aural skills are as follows (Kress, 1996: 170):

1) **Pick a Pick**

   The students listen to the word and mark the picture in the answer sheet that shows the items named. The teacher provides the words that target sounds learned and require auditory discrimination of contrasts. Example: *man/pan; hat/bat; sun/run.*

2) **Class Keys**

   The students listen to the directions given by the teacher and follow them on the answer sheet. The teacher introduces school-related vocabulary by

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demonstrating each action on the chalk board or overhead projector screen.

Examples: put an X…; underline the…; draw a line…; connect…; circle the…;

circle the…; fill in the space below….

3) **Show Me a Pen**

The students receive a set of 12 concept cards that show pictures of words having problem contrasts, for example, *a lamp/ a ramp, a lake/ a rake*. The students arrange the concept cards face up on the desk and point to or pick up the picture of the objects told by the teacher. The teacher directs the students to “show me a ________.”, then they fill in the names of the pictured objects.

4) **Simon Says**

The students play “Simon Says” game. They have to be eliminated from the game as they make errors following the directions. This game can be used to teach parts of the body, items of clothing, position words, action verbs, gesture words, and expression words.

5) **Captions**

The students listen to a sentence, and then mark the matching picture on their answer sheets. Examples: pictures depict *a girl petting a dog and a girl feeding a dog*. Sentences: *Mary pet the dog. Mary fed the dog.*

6) **Happy Endings**

The students pay attention to the beginning part of a sentence and possible endings. They have to indicate on their answer sheets which of the endings best complete the sentence. There are four choices. The exercises begin with simple
sentences and one-word completers, then move to more complex sentences.

Example: *Tom hit the _____________. chair, book, ball, key*

7) **What’s it All About?**

The teacher reads a story to the students. He reads a brief passage of five sentences, then ask the students to listen and to pick from four choices the word that best tells the topic of the passage. The students mark the corresponding number on their answer sheets.

8) **What Do You Think?**

The students listen to sentences and mark on their answer sheets whether the sentences are true or false. The sentences intersperse with correct sentences and the sentences that are logically inconsistent. Examples: *the young lettuce asked for some milk. The students drove his book home to study.*

9) **Dictation**

The dictation format is used to practice sound/symbol associations, auditory discrimination, juncture sensitivity, and aural comprehension of words and sentences. For sounds and words: the students listen to a sound and a word that begins with that sound, such as /p/ pet (listen to the word); then listen a second time and write the spelling for the sound (word); then listen a third time to check their answers. For sentences and passages: the students listen to sentence or passage and to write it in verbatim. The teacher will read it three times: first, read the passage through at a moderate, conversational pace; next, read it slowly, breaking it into meaningful phrases of no more than five words
each; finally, read the passage through at a moderate pace. The students should write the passage during the first two readings and check their work during the final reading.

10) Getting the Facts

The students listen to a passage, then answer some questions about details in the passage. Answers can be multiple choice, yes/no, or short statements. Some of these aural activities are suitable for kindergarten students. This study would like to apply these activities to teach phonics.

6. Assessing Auditory/Aural Skills

Listening assessments are divided into two, namely auditory and aural skills (Kress, 1993: 167). As stated in the elaboration of listening theories, auditory skill is to the ability to recognize the sounds of a particular language and the ability to discriminate among similar sounds within the language. Whereas, the aural skill refers to the ability of the student to listen and to understand spoken messages.

a. Methods of Assessing Auditory Skills

The auditory skill assessments can be conducted through these ways (Kress, 1993: 167):

1) Sound Contrast Recognition in Words

The students listen to groups of two or three words aloud read by the teacher. They identify the words in the group whether they are the same or
different by circling ‘same’ or ‘different’ (S/D) on their answer sheets. The teacher provides minimal contrasts. Examples: \textit{sit/set; sit/ sit/ sit; set/ sit/ sit.}

2) \textbf{Sound Contrast Recognition in Sentences}

The students listen to pairs of sentences read by the teacher. They should indicate whether the pairs are the same or different by writing or circling ‘same’ or ‘different’ (S/D) on their answer sheets. The teacher gives minimal contrasts. Examples: \textit{Did she get it? / Did she pet it?}

3) \textbf{Target Sound Discrimination in Word Pairs}

The students listen carefully to the initial sound of the word read by the teacher, then listen to pairs of words. They are required to write or circle ‘yes’ or ‘no’ (Y/N) on their answer sheets to indicate whether the pairs of words have the same initial sound as the target word. The teacher conducts the same method for medial and final sounds.

4) \textbf{Target Sound Discrimination in Word Groups}

The students listen carefully to the initial sound or the word listen to the initial sound in each of the next four words. The students indicate whether the other words have the same initial sound as the target word. Example: \textit{bit – Ben, bug, pit, bat}. Students may respond by writing or circling ‘yes’ or ‘no’ (Y/N), by raising their hands when the initial sounds are the same, or by holding up a card that says ‘same’ or ‘different’. This method is applicable to assess sound recognition in the final and medial positions also.
5) **Rhyming Word Recognition**

   The students listen carefully to the ending sounds as the teacher read pairs of words and the students write or circle ‘yes’ or ‘no’ (Y/N) on their answer sheet to indicate whether the pairs rhyme.

6) **Sound/Spelling Association and Recognition**

   The students listen to word parts, words, word pairs, or word groups. The students circle the matching items on their answer sheets. The teacher provides multiple-choice answer sheets with four choices.

7) **Sound/Spelling Association and Production**

   The teacher asks the students to listen to the words he will read aloud, then, to write the words. He starts by using words with target sounds presented in initial position, then the medial and final positions.

8) **Sound/Spelling Discrimination**

   The students listen as the teacher reads a series of three words aloud, then on an answer sheet with four words per item, they cross out the word they did not hear. The exercise can also be done using word parts, word pairs, or phrases.

   These methods are suitable for assessing kindergarten students’ auditory skills.

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b. **Methods of Assessing Students’ Aural Skills**

There are ten methods of the aural skill assessments (Kress, 1993: 169), namely:
1) Vocabulary

The students listen as the teacher reads a word, and then they mark the matching picture on their answer sheets.

2) Aural Understanding/ Pictorial Match

The students listen as the teacher reads a short passage. Then they place the picture on the answer sheet that matches the passage just read. The teacher conducts the activity with simple noun phrases (the happy baby) and verb phrases (hit the ball). After that, he repeats the exercise with simple sentences, followed by brief passages of up to five sentences.

3) Aural Comprehension/ Sentence Completion

The students listen as the teacher reads the beginning of a sentence and a set of possible endings. The students have to indicate on their answer sheet which of the endings best completes the sentence. There are four choices.

4) Aural understanding of Main Idea or Gist

Select a passage of between 100 or 200 words. Direct the students to listen to the passage, then to select the best title for the passage from choices you will read to them. As an alternative, ask the students to select the main idea, or gist statement from the choices orally or visually presented on an answer sheet.

5) Aural Comprehension to Complete a Task

Direct the students to listen carefully and to follow your directions. Begin with a single, but specific, task (raise you right hand), then move on to a sequence of steps for the completion of a task.
6) **Simon Says**

Play Simon Says and incorporate key direction vocabulary (*first, second, left, right, up, down, in, on, close, open*, and so forth) in Simon’s orders. Winners may serve as Simons for subsequent rounds of play.

7) **Logical Predictions**

The teacher chooses a passage of between 150 and 250 words. The students listen to the passage and three additional statements, and select the statement that best tells what is most likely to happen next in the story.

8) **Paraphrase Recognition**

The teacher selects brief passages up to 150 words and construct three single sentence paraphrases for each. The students listen to each passage and three statements. They choose the statement that is closes in meaning to the passage.

9) **Factual Understanding**

The students listen as to a set of brief statements. They indicate on their answer sheets whether each statement is true or false (T/F).

10) **Logical Understanding**

The students listen carefully a statement containing an error. They should give or write the correction for the statement. Example: *Eli slept in his book (bed).*

These methods used are suitable for assessing kindergarten students’ aural skills. Therefore, this study applies these assessments to measure the students’ phonics listening.
Based on the elaboration above, the construct of listening for kindergarten students can be defined as follows: listening is understanding speech which consists of phonemes, words, phrases, and simple sentences. It includes the dimensions of recognizing the sounds, discriminating similar sounds, and understanding words, phrases, and simple sentences.

B. The Nature of Phonics

Since phonics is one of the variables in the study of “The Effectiveness of Phonics to teach Listening Viewed from the Students’ Self-Confidence”, there are some discussions to be elaborated. They are the definitions of phonics, the selection of phonics pattern, two kinds of phonics, and the lesson plans for teaching phonics.

1. The Definitions of Phonics

Phonic is a method of teaching on how to connect the spoken English sounds with letters or groups of letters (www.wikipedia.com). For example, the representation of \( c, k, ck \) or \( ch \) spellings is in the form of \(/k/\) sound. Paul (2003: 86) explains that phonics is a method where children learn phonic sounds (e.g. ‘ar’ or ‘ee’) and pronunciation rules (e.g. special ‘e’: cap + e = cape, hat + e = hate). The children also break down words up into their component sounds. Teaching phonics can be done through listening first, and then followed by reading or speaking and writing. The students should know the spelling of a word through listening in order to read it. Then, they would be able to pronounce it correctly and write the combination of the letters by matching it with the sound (Kaboodvand: 2008).
In learning English, the students need to understand the words, patterns and chunks in order to internalize them deeply and to be able to produce actively and flexibly (Paul, 2003: 73). Therefore, the students need more exposures to listen to the target language.

Mahurt (2005: 20) states that phonics can be applied in listening by guiding the students to hear sounds in words and then choose the correct answer or write the representative letters of the sounds. Listening through phonics emphasizes on the letter forms, letter sequences, letter cluster, and their relationship to letter-sounds correspondence. It means that listening through phonics focuses on how words work where it breaks down the word into letters, so does the other way round.

Listening to phonic sounds is important for developing the child's language and literacy skills. By listening and becoming familiar with them, the student will realize that letters stand for the sounds they hear in words (www.atozphonics.com) so that they finally understand the words in context.

2. Phonics Method

Richard (2001: 20-34) clarifies that there are some elements to be fulfilled in a methods. They are the nature of the language learning, the design and the procedure. The nature of phonics language learning (Loring, 2000: 3) is that learning a language is done through analyzing the letters of a word (analytical Phonics) and synthesizing the letters into a word (Synthetic Phonics). The differences between analytical and synthetic phonics are elaborated in the next discussion. The objective of this method
is to teach English skills of Listening on how to connect the letter-sound correspondence. Then, it can be The letter-sound correspondence is chosen as the content choice. The types of learning and teaching activities are in the form of drills and dictation. The learners tend to be passive because they are expected to recognize letter-sound and the words by analyzing and synthesizing them. Furthermore, teacher is as the primary source of the language and language learning. Besides giving model in the learning, controlling the activities and maintaining the interaction between teacher and students, the teacher is responsible of the content being taught as well. The materials are in the form of handout and audiovisual such as flashcards. Moreover, these materials are considered as the primary source.

3. A Selection of Phonics Patterns

Elam (www.nrfg.org) divides the phonics patterns into two; they are the vowel phonics patterns and the consonant phonics patterns.

a. Vowel Phonics Patterns

1) Short vowels are the five single letter vowels, a, e, i, o, and u when they produce the sounds /æ/ as in mat, /ɛ/ as in bet, /ɪ/ as in hit, /ɒ/ as in hot, and /ʌ/ as in cup. The term "short vowel" does not really mean that these vowels are pronounced for a particularly short period of time, but they are not diphthongs like the long vowels.
2) **Long vowels** are homophonous with the names of the single letter vowels, such as /eɪ/ in *baby*, /iː/ in *meter*, /æt/ in *tiny*, /ɒʊ/ in *broken*, and /juː/ in *humor*.

3) **Schwa** is most of the single vowel spellings can produce. Schwa is an indistinct sound of a vowel in an unstressed syllable, represented by the linguistic symbol ə. /ə/ is the sound made by the o in *lesson*. Schwa is not taught to elementary school students because it is considered difficult to understand.

4) **Closed syllables** occur when a single vowel letter is followed by a consonant. In the word *button*, both syllables are closed syllables because they contain single vowels followed by consonants. Therefore, the letter u represents the short sound /ʌ/. (The o in the second syllable makes the /ə/ sound because it is an unstressed syllable.)

5) **Open syllables** exists when a vowel appears at the end of the syllable. The vowel will say its long sound. In the word *basin*, *ba* is an open syllable and therefore says /beɪ/.

6) **Diphthongs** are the fusion of two adjacent vowel sounds. There are four common diphthongs in English. The commonly recognized diphthongs are /aʊ/ as in *now* and /ɔɪ/ as in *soil*. Four of the long vowels are also technically diphthongs, /eɪ/, /æt/, /ɒʊ/, and /juː/, which partly accounts for the reason they are considered "long."
7) **Vowel digraphs** occur when two letters are used to represent the vowel sound. The *ai* in *sail* is a vowel digraph. Because the first letter in a vowel digraph sometimes says its long vowel sound, as in *sail*. However, the *au* spelling of the /ɔː/ sound and the *oo* spelling of the /uː/ and /ʊ/ sounds do not follow this pattern.

8) **Vowel-consonant-E spellings** are those where in a single vowel letter, followed by a consonant and the letter *e* makes the long vowel sound. Examples of this include *bake*, *theme*, *hike*, *cone*, and *cute*. (The *ee* spelling, as in *meet* is sometimes considered part of this pattern.)

b. **Consonant Phonics Patterns**

1) **Consonant digraphs** include the spelling where two letters are used to represent a consonant phoneme. The most common consonant digraphs are *ch* for /tʃ/, *ng* for /ŋ/, *ph* for /f/, *sh* for /ʃ/, *th* for /θ/ and /ð/, and *wh* for /hw/ (often pronounced /w/ in American English). Letter combinations like *wr* for /r/ and *kn* for /n/ are also consonant digraphs, although these are sometimes considered patterns with "silent letters."

2) **Short vowel+consonant patterns** have the spelling of the sounds /k/ as in *peek*, /dʒ/ as in *stage*, and /tʃ/ as in *speech*. These sounds each have two possible spellings at the end of a word, *ck* and *k* for /k/, *dge* and *ge* for /dʒ/, and *tch* and *ch* for /tʃ/. The spelling is determined by the type of vowel that...
precedes the sound. If a short vowel precedes the sound, the former spelling is used, as in *pick, judge,* and *match.* If a short vowel does not precede the sound, the latter spelling is used, as in *took, barge,* and *launch.*

The final "short vowel+consonant pattern" is just one of the examples that can be used to help the children face the English alphabetic code. Although the English spelling is complex, it provides the order and reason.

A better foundation in phonics is built if children learn a few letters at a time. Consonants are the easiest to master and are usually taught first, all letters sounds except the vowels *a, e, i, o, u* ([http://www.learningbooks.net/pre-reading-teaching.html](http://www.learningbooks.net/pre-reading-teaching.html)). Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten students have learnt single consonant phonics but are not familiar with vowel phonics. Therefore, this research focuses on short vowel phonics pattern in teaching listening.

4. **Analytical Phonics**

Analytical Phonics refers to a method to the teaching of whole word and the students link the specific letters with the sound correspondence ([www.wikipedia.com: 2010](http://www.wikipedia.com)). The students analyze the words which contain some phonemes. For example, the teacher and the students discuss the similarity of some words: bat, bed, bad and bite. Analytic phonics depends on inferential learning: the students identify that the initial phoneme in */b æ t/* is the same as that in */b e d, b æ d/* or */b ai t/*, the students conclude that they should identify the phoneme with grapheme. Analytical phonics is used to teach the skills to analyze words and teach
alphabetic explicitly. Analytical Phonics is an effective and efficient phonics instruction focuses children’s attention on noticing letter/sound patterns in the major components of syllables (Moustafa, 1996: 124).

The strengths and weaknesses of the analytical phonics are presented as follow:

**a. The Characteristics of Analytical Phonics**

The characteristics of analytical phonics are (www.earlyliterature.ecsd.net):

1) Understanding the meaning is necessary,
2) Whole language elements are included,
3) Spelling mastery is used as the basic skill in learning analytical phonics,
4) The teacher’s role is very important in the success of teaching analytical phonics.

**b. The Basic Principles to the Teaching of Analytical Phonics**

The basic principles for teaching with analytical phonics are (Paul, 2002: 65):

1) The students memorize an initial, whole-word sight vocabulary.
2) The students try to understand the meaning using picture.
3) The teacher can provide look-say books to help the students familiar with the phonics they hear.
4) The teacher use ‘phonological awareness’ games to make the students aware of the letter-sound correspondence.
5) The teacher teaches consonant initial, medial and end clusters, word families or rhyming endings (rimes).
6) The teacher provides new words which the students have not known yet.

c. Steps in Teaching Analytical Phonics

The Analytical Phonics Method can be done through these steps (Loring, 2000: 20):

1) The teacher shows a picture of a word.
2) The teacher pronounces the word of that picture.
3) The teacher writes the word on the board.
4) The teacher pronounces the phonics in the word while pointing at the letters for the students.
5) The students relate the pictures with the words in order to know the meaning.
6) The teacher distributes the handouts to the students.
7) The students find the dictated words on the handout.
8) The students draw lines from the words to the picture.
9) The students bold the letters of the word on the handout (an advanced step to help the students with writing activities).

These procedures would be used to teach analytical phonics.

d. The Strengths of Teaching Analytical Phonics

The strengths of using analytical phonics are (Loring, 2000: 6):
1) The students learn phonics through the pictures or illustration so that they know the meaning of a word without guessing.

2) The students at the early age tend to recognize the letter-sound correspondence of the words based on the pictures they see.

3) After understanding the meaning of the words through pictures, the students can recognize the written words dictated by the teacher.

4) The students who have high self-confidence tend to be active in the class because they feel challenged with the activity and they are interested with the illustration.

5) The students mastery of phonics listening will lead to the success of learning other skills, especially in reading and writing. (http://www.learningbooks.net/pre-listening-teaching.html)

6) The students increase their awareness of the sounds of spoken language and their familiarity with the letters of written language prepares them to understand the alphabetic principle (www.earlyliterature.ecsd.net).

The strengths of the analytical phonics method are used as the reference in conducting the materials on the classroom.

e. The Weaknesses of Analytical Phonics

The weaknesses of analytical phonics are (Loring, 2000: 6):

1) It takes time for the students to understand the concept of analytical phonics.
2) Analytical phonics is overwhelming the students to understand the meaning.

3) The students who have low self-confidence may not be very active because they are afraid of making mistakes in understanding the words.

4) It is more complicated for the teachers to provide the materials based on the students' ability. The weaknesses are used as the reference to improve analytical phonics approach.

5. Synthetic Phonics

An individual letter or letter combination is linked with its appropriate sound and finally mix the sounds to form words. It's important that children practice the spelling of graphemes in different positions in words, not just in the 'initial letter' position. The purpose is to teach the students transitivity - the understanding of the relationship between each phoneme and a letter in all positions in a word and across all words consistently e.g. the letter t stands for the phoneme /t/ in the word 'top', /t/ in 'tap', /t/ in 'bit' and the /t/ in 'nets' (www.wikipedia.com).

Worsley (2004: 4) explains that Dr Marlynne Grant, an educational psychologist, develops a synthetic phonics program for the teaching of listening, spelling, reading, and writing. It is suitable for pupils of all ages and was devised by. In synthetic phonics there are three essential tools for literacy. They are letter/sound
match, phonological skill of blending (synthesis), and phonological skills of phoneme segmentation for spelling.

An understanding of the alphabetic principle is necessary because it focuses on the words that are made up of sounds; the sounds that can be represented by visual symbols (letters) and these letter/sound relationships that follow the logic of the alphabetic code.

a. The Characteristics of Synthetic Phonics

The characteristics of synthetic phonics are:

1) predicting or memorizing is not necessary,
2) whole language elements are not included,
3) there is a range of strategies for predicting (guessing) words using context and initial letter clues, global sight-word memorization, or teach sound units larger than the phoneme.
4) letter names are usually taught late in the program. Letter names, key words and characters can act as a form of 'noise' impeding the direct association of sound to letter/s and vice versa.

b. The Basic Principles to the Teaching of Synthetic Phonics

The basic principles for teaching with synthetic phonics are (Paul, 2002: 70):

1) Don't ask children to memorize an initial, whole-word sight vocabulary.
2) Don't teach predicting (guessing) using picture or initial letter cues.
3) Don't use look-say books and repetitive-text books; use phonics decodable text and text that has been written to match their level of knowledge and skills.

4) Don't waste time playing 'phonological awareness' games or teaching concepts of print.

5) Don't teach consonant initial and end clusters, word families or rhyming endings (rimes) as these are sound units larger than the phoneme.

6) Do teach fast, 3-5 letter/sound correspondences a week.

7) Do teach letter sounds, NOT names.

8) Do teach letter/sound correspondences to automaticity. After the teaching of half a dozen consonants plus a couple of vowels focus on the skills of segmenting all-through-the-spoken word for spelling, and sound out and blend them.

9) Do provide words, sentence and text of letter/s-sounds that the children already know.

10) Do introduce 'tricky' words systematically still emphasizing the blending of the regular sounds whilst pointing out the tricky part.

11) Do plan plenty of dictation activities with controlled letters and spellings.

12) Do develop comprehension through a broad and rich language curriculum.

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c. Steps in Teaching Synthetic Phonics

The synthetic Phonics can be done through these steps (Paul, 2003: 96):

1) The teacher says the letter-sound spelling of the word.

2) The teacher shows the writing of each letter on the board.

3) The teacher says the letter sound spelling and the word.

4) The students listen to the sentences related to the word.

5) The teacher asks questions related to the word. For example:
   
   TEACHER: If you have a ball, what do you do with the bat?

6) The students answer the teacher’s questions. For example:

   STUDENTS: hit

7) The teacher repeats the students’ answer in a complete sentence.

   TEACHER: Yes, I hit the ball with the bat.

8) The students recognize the words in which the letter-sound of the word is dictated by the teacher.

d. The Strengths of Teaching Synthetic Phonics

Teaching synthetic phonics is very beneficial for the teachers (Worsley, 2004: 5).

1) It focuses on key skills of segmenting and blending.

2) It facilitates active learning through balance and variety of activities.

3) It is built in repetition and reinforcement.

4) It can be modified to accommodate individual needs.
5) The children can decode unfamiliar words when they are introduced to text (Aston, 2003: 3).

6) The children significantly retain their listening, spelling, reading, writing and comprehension skills.

7) It is effective in teaching listening and spelling skill.

8) Low self-confident students enjoy the lessons and experience success because they do not need to memorize the meaning of the words. Hence, there is a controversy that low self-confident students might find that synthetic phonics is confusing because they have to digest the meaning of a word in a context which is burdening for them (Powel & Hornsby, 1983: 89). Furthermore, the students in the early age tend to learn something in a meaningful way. It means they need to know the meaning of the words to grasp the lesson (www.astepatatime.co.nz).

9) The attention focuses on decoding rather than on the use of unreliable strategies such as looking at the illustrations.

The strengths of the synthetic phonics method are used as the reference in conducting the materials on the classroom.

e. The Weaknesses of Synthetic Phonics

Worsley (2004: 6) clarifies that teaching synthetic phonics have some weaknesses, they are:
1) If the student is slow to learn the skill of hearing and manipulating phonemes (due to normal brain variation), finds blending difficult or has problems remembering which sounds and graphemes go together (paired-associate learning), then a slower pace and plenty of practice and revision will be needed.

2) High self-confident students are not very challenged to do the activity because it tends to be boring although they do not have any problems in following the activities.

3) Teachers who use 'pure' synthetic phonics provide their pupils with a dry and narrow literacy curriculum which lacks wonderful and inspiring materials.

4) It needs more preparation time.

5) The students tend to guess words which can confuse and scare them.

The weaknesses are used as the reference to improve synthetic phonics method. Those two kinds of phonics are going to be compared in order to know which one is more effective.

The students of Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten are already familiar with the single consonant phonics, however, they are not familiar with the short vowel phonics. Therefore, the focus of this study is to apply short vowel phonics. However, This study would like to review some consonants that have been taught before, focuses on short vowel sound and phonics put in context.

To sum up, phonics method is the study on the letter forms, letter sequences, letter cluster, and their relationship to letter-sounds correspondence. It means that
phonics listening focuses on how words work where it breaks down the word into letters, so does the other way round and its relationship to the context.

C. Self-Confidence

The students’ listening performance has to do with the students’ self-confidence in dealing with the exercises. This research discusses the nature of self-confidence, the importance of self-confidence and the characteristics of self-confidence, the self-confidence level, the self-confidence breaker, and the self-confidence builder.

1. The Nature of Self-Confidence

According to Merriam-Webster Dictionary, confidence is a feeling of consciousness of one’s powers or of reliance on one’s circumstances. Self-confidence is also the faith or belief that one will act in a right, proper, or effective way.

Self-confidence (Gerber, 2008: 3) can be defined as pleasure and satisfaction experiences in one’s own skills, abilities, and achievements, which motivate him to continue pursuing his goals and take risks.

Sayre (2001: 12-13) explains that self-confidence triggers certain feelings and show automatic reactions within people because confidence comes from within and when someone believes in himself, then the others will believe in him. This is a universal law. It does not work the other way around, no matter how much people would prefer that. Self-confidence, however, helps people to survive facing the challenging situation, to achieve the results they expected efficiently and make people feel good when someone deals with them.

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Self-confidence is built upon the ability to begin seeing oneself as skilled. The process of developing one’s self-confidence is gained through step by step and day by day experience. Many famous individuals have explained that their success is achieved because of having self-confidence (Healy, 2009: 2). Brown (2001: 62) agrees that self-confidence is the learner’s belief toward himself in accomplishing the task. In order to enhance the students’ self-confidence, the teacher is suggested to give the materials from the simple into the complex ones. Therefore, the students feel the satisfaction of understanding a concept and they are ready to move forward to learn the difficult ones.

The students who have great self-confidence can face a successful transition in adulthood. In order to boost the students’ self-confidence, the positive feedback can be given to them. Children who are taught to be ashamed of their mistakes will stop trying (www.helpingpsychology.com).

In this research, self-confidence is a feeling of someone’s belief or satisfaction towards his own skills, abilities, and achievements so that he can survive facing the challenging situation, take risks, achieve the results he expected efficiently. Moreover, he will motivate himself to continue pursuing his goals.

2. The Importance of Self-Confidence

Confidences is vital because when people consistently take action and make the appropriate course corrections, they get massive result and achieve all their goals. However, if they lack of self-confidence, they will stay stuck. Having no confidence means that they had no dreams or goals at all. Having the confidence, especially in
the context of having the ability to listen to others, is absolutely essential. Without it, people don’t communicate effectively (www.helpingpsychology.com).

3. The Characteristic of Self-Confident Students

Self-confidence (Gerber, 2009: 2) can be seen from many ways, such as behavior, body language, how to speak, and what to say. The students who have high self-confidence perform differently from those who have lower self-confidence. The following table mentions the different characteristics between high self-confident and low self-confident students (www.mindtools.com).

Table 1: The Characteristics of Self-Confident Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High Self-Confidence</th>
<th>Low Self-Confidence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Doing what the students’ believe to be right, even if others mock or criticize them for it.</td>
<td>Governing the students’ behavior based on what other people think.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being willing to take risks and go the extra mile to achieve better things.</td>
<td>Staying in the comfort zone, fearing failure and so avoid taking risks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admitting the mistakes, and learning from them.</td>
<td>Working hard to cover up mistakes and hoping that they can fix the problem before anyone notices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waiting for others to congratulate them on their accomplishments.</td>
<td>Exaggerating the students’ own virtues as often as possible to as many people as possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accepting compliments graciously. “Thanks, I really worked hard on that prospectus. I’m pleased you recognize my efforts.”</td>
<td>Dismissing compliments offhandedly. “Oh that prospectus was nothing really, anyone could have done it.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table above shows that low self-confidence can be self-destructive, and it often manifests itself as negativity. Self-confident students are generally more positive – they believe in themselves and their abilities, and they also believe in living life to the full. These characteristics of high and low self-confidence are used as the indicators of self-confidence questionnaire.

4. Self-Confidence Breaker

Students may lose their confidence because of the inner factors or the outside factors around them. Gerber (2009: 3) mentions fifteen factors that may ruin someone’s confidence:

1) **Natural**: Crises of self-confidence are a part of the human experience.

2) **Overly critical**: Being too critical of oneself chips away at his self-esteem.

3) **Inner critic**: The inner critic saying that one isn’t good enough - if it convinces him, it robs him of his wildest dreams.

4) **Should’s**: Focusing too much on what others may think one should do lowers one's self-confidence.

5) **Word choices**: Saying *I can’t* is subtle little words, but if one repeats it many times, it becomes hard to convince oneself that *he can!*

6) **Unrealistic**: To strive for perfectionist, absolute achievements invite stress and failure.

7) **Self-Talk**: Most people bombard themselves with derogatory self-talk and don't even know they're doing it.

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8) **Self-doubt:** Self-doubt may seem to be harmless, but it eats away at one’s self-confidence.

9) **Avoiding problems:** By avoiding problems one has the ability to solve, he threatens his self-confidence.

10) **Self-limitations:** Many people believe that they cannot do anything about altering any of their circumstances or their own flaws.

11) **Compelled:** Where one is compelled to participate in activities for which one have no aptitude, failure and lack of self-confidence may be consistently reinforced.

12) **Rejection:** Rejection hurts no matter how self-confident one is, a part of him may cringe every time it happens or even just thinking about it.

13) **Beaten:** When one lacks of self-confidence, one stops setting meaningful goals and resign to a life of mediocrity and dullness and a steady decline in self-confidence.

14) **In YOUR hands:** there is no use to sit around and wait for someone else to encourage, uplift, and inspire someone towards his greatest moments.

These factors that decrease the students’ self-confidence are considered in making self-confidence questionnaire.

5. **Self-Confidence Builder**

Instead of the confidence breaker, there are some factors which can increase the students’ confidence. These factors are presented by Gerber (2009: 4), as follows: 

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1) **Inner purpose:** people live their life on the basis of what is fulfilling to them, their personal interests, abilities, values and goals.

2) **Self-respect:** people respect their deeper needs and wants and regularly explore and remind themselves of what's important to them.

3) **Realistic goals:** Setting measurable goals, one can realistically achieve based on a rational assessment of his abilities.

4) **Visualize:** Visualizing oneself achieving his goals helps him to believe that the goals are attainable.

5) **Skill-up:** the students assess which skills they need and find ways to develop and practice them.

6) **Participate:** the students nurture their interests by engaging regularly in enjoyable activities that are meaningful to them.

7) **Limitations:** one should accept and be comfortable with what he can and can't do at any point in time.

8) **Clarity:** By knowing what one is able to achieve, he won't set himself up for surprise failure.

9) **Stretch:** one should look for projects which will stretch him, but won't overwhelm his abilities.

10) **Strengths:** one focuses on his strengths and what he can do - always consider which strengths to develop further.

11) **Assertive:** When one asserts himself, he enhances his sense of self. He should take a firm stand for himself.

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12) **Potential**: the students value what they want and what they are good at and take actions designed to fulfill their potential.

13) **Persistence**: one takes a leap of faith and if he falls, he should get up, re-evaluate, and start again. When one learns each time, he will get over all the fear and begin to concentrate on souring.

14) **Non-emotional**: Separating negative emotional reactions from observed reality, the students may turn out the challenge to be an opportunity.

15) **Decisions**: the students practice flexibility and firmness in making and implementing positive decisions.

16) **Opinions**: one would like to gain feedback from others, but depend on his own opinion and values when making decisions.

17) **Take risks**: the students feel good about trying something new, making progress and increasing his competence. Learning experiences build self-confidence.

18) **Challenges**: when the students are able to solve problems, face them squarely, identify ways to solve and cope with them, he has great confidence.

19) **Passion**: the students get into their wildest dreams with so much passion and fire that they forget all about the possibility of failing.

20) **Success**: referring to a list of successes in difficult times will reinforce one’s belief in his ability to overcome obstacles.

21) **Probable**: the students seek out and often put oneself in situations in which

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the probability of success is high.

22) **Acknowledge**: whatever the students accomplish, let themselves acknowledge and experience how good success feels.

23) **Rewards**: when the students recognize the success, they reward themselves for achievements and offer words of praise to themselves.

24) **Motivate**: when the students’ success depend on things that they really don’t want to do, they focus on ways to stay motivated.

25) **Responsibility**: the students take responsibility for getting rid of any negative emotions and do what will make them feel good.

26) **Mistakes**: Accepting mistakes as part of the process by not being disappointed if the students don't do it perfectly, it part of being confident.

27) **Forgiveness**: the willingness to forgive themselves when things went wrong will release negative emotions, make room for poise and self-confidence.

28) **Self-talk**: the students are able to talk to themselves positively and stop listening to the cruel inner critic.

29) **Self-trust**: the students trust themselves to be able to deal with the consequences of their decisions.

30) **Self-support**: the students strengthen the trust and support system within themselves by being kind, generous and gentle.

31) **Self-acceptance**: they replace doubts with self-accepting thoughts, balanced self-assessment and self-supportive direction.

32) **Patience**: they change the act which takes time and dedicate the effort by being patient.
33) **Practice, Practice, Practice:** by practicing naturally, the students improve their skills and eventually the self-confidence will show itself.

In this research, self-confidence is a feeling of someone’s belief or satisfaction towards his own abilities so that he will pursue his goals in a right, proper, and effective way and finally others believe in his abilities. The students having high self-confidence can be indicated as those who believe what he is doing is right, ignoring the mockery and negative criticism, dare to take risk to achieve better result, admit their mistakes when they do something wrong, wait for the other to congratulate them without showing off their success, and accept compliments graciously. Whereas, the students having low self-confidence can be indicated as those who try to build good image of themselves as the others thought about them, stay in comfort zone fearing failure, avoid risks, work hard to cover up mistakes, exaggerate their own virtue, and dismissing compliments offhandedly. In other words, the characteristics of low self-confident students are the opposite of those of high self-confident students.

**D. Rationale**

Kindergarten students feel that listening is difficult because it has to do with different letter-sound correspondence. They found it confusing to recognize the sound and the letters or words spoken. Therefore, they tend to be unconfident when they have listening activities. The teacher needs to design the lessons and techniques through considering special characteristics of spoken words, namely phoneme recognition, similar sound discrimination, words, phrases and simple sentences understanding.
1. The Difference between using Analytical Phonics and using Synthetic Phonics

Based on the reasons, the researcher will conduct a method to deliver teaching listening. It is an Analytical Phonics Method that will be compared with Synthetic Phonics Method. Analytical phonics is conducted by teaching the whole word and breaking down the word into specific letters with the sound correspondence. It helps the students to understand the meaning of a word based on the illustration or explanation given by the teacher. However, it does not give chances for the students to expose their ability in recognizing new words. In fact, the students in the early age, especially four and five years old, tend to learn through concrete things or understand the meaning of the word so that they can relate it to the real life. After understanding the meaning of the word, it will be easier for the students to receive letter-sound correspondence of the word.

On the other hand, Synthetic Phonics Method is done by giving an individual letter or letter combination which is linked with its appropriate sound and finally mixes the sounds to form words. It does not emphasis the meaning of a word. However, when applied to the higher level or elementary school students, synthetic phonics gives more exposures for the students to be familiar with some new words although they do not know the meaning of the word (Szulc-Kurpaska, 1996: 132). In contrary, the students in the early year tend to be stressful in synthesizing the phonics into words because they have to guess the group of phonics which will appear. Moreover, they need to get interesting materials instead of merely combining letter-sound correspondence.
sound correspondence (Williams and Superfine, 2007, 10). Therefore, this method is assumed to be difficult for kindergarten students.

Thus, it can be supposed that analytical phonics approach is more effective than synthetic phonics method to teach listening for the second year students in Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten, Lagoi, Bintan.

2. The Difference between Students who Have High Self-Confidence and the Students who Have Low Self-Confidence

The students having high self-confidence are those who believe what he is doing is right, ignoring the mockery and negative criticism, dare to take risk to achieve better result, admit their mistakes when they do something wrong, wait for the other to congratulate them without showing off their success, and accept compliments graciously.

In contrast, the students having low self-confidence are those who try to build good image of themselves as the others thought about them, stay in comfort zone fearing failure, avoid risks, work hard to cover up mistakes, exaggerate their own virtue, and dismissing compliments offhandedly.

The students who have high self-confidence tend to be independent because they feel that they can do the activities themselves. They are also more enthusiastic in doing the assignment. They do not feel reluctant to join the class because they think they can cope up facing the risks. They can survive learning lots of materials
including understanding the meaning of some words. Therefore, it can be assumed that the students having high self-confidence perform better in the listening activities.

As a matter of fact, the students having low self-confidence tend to be passive in listening because they think that listening is frustrating and they are afraid of making mistakes. They usually have little attention to the teacher and the materials given in the learning process. They become more passive in the class because they always depend on the teacher whenever facing difficulties. In other words, they are not independent in doing the tasks. The students will not get satisfying results in listening comprehension when they are not confident in learning listening.

In short, students who have high self-confidence are supposed to have better listening skill than the students who have low self-confidence.

3. Interaction between Teaching Methods and Students’ Self-Confidence

Analytical Phonics helps the students to learn English easily through listening to the whole word and the students break down the word into specific letters with the sound correspondence. The students are able to understand the meaning of a word based on the illustration they see. In addition, the students in the early age tend to digest the word through understanding the meaning or knowing the concrete things so that they are able to relate it to the real life. The students who have high self-confidence are ready to accept challenges. They do not easily give up when they have more challenges because they know how to stay motivated. They can survive dealing with listening materials including understanding the meaning of some words.
Therefore, it can be assumed that the students having high self-confidence perform better in Analytical Phonics.

Synthetic Phonics Method focuses on the individual letter or letter combination with the sound and finally mixes the sounds to form words. It does not emphasis on the meaning of the words so that this approach can give great advantage for the students who have low self-confidence. They tend to be afraid of making mistakes. There is the tendency that low self-confident students want to look perfect, therefore they work hard to cover up mistakes and fix the problem before anyone notices. They want to stay in their comfort zone without having much burden to understand some words. It can be assumed that synthetic phonics method can be helpful to teach low self-confident students because they do not need to memorize the meaning of the words. As a result, they feel that learning through synthetic phonics is not burdening.

To sum up, the writer assumes that there is an interaction between method and self-confidence. The students who have high self-confidence perform better in analytical phonics method, while those who have low self-confidence show better result in synthetic phonics method.

**E. Hypothesis**

There are three hypotheses that can be drawn from the study of the effectiveness of analytical phonics to teach listening viewed from the students’ self-confidence.

1. Analytical Phonics Method is more effective than Syntactic Phonics Method to teach listening for Tunas Bangsa kindergarten students in the academic year of 2010/2011.
2. The students of Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten having high self-confidence have better listening than those who have low self-confidence in the academic year of 2010/2011.

3. There is an interaction between phonics methods and self-confidence in terms of the listening skill of Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten students in the academic year of 2010/2011.
CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. The Time and Place of the Study

This research was conducted at Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten, Lagoi, Bintan, Riau Archipelago in the academic year of 2010/2011 from December up to February 2011.

Below is the time schedule of consulting the proposal, conducting the research, and submitting the result of the research:

Table 2. Time Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Jul '09</th>
<th>Dec '09</th>
<th>Jan '10</th>
<th>Nov '10</th>
<th>Dec '10</th>
<th>Jan '11</th>
<th>Feb '11</th>
<th>July '11</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proposal and Revising</td>
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<tr>
<td>Developing instrument (questioner and listening test)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Administering questioner</td>
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<tr>
<td>Conducting research (teaching)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Administering listening test</td>
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<tr>
<td>Writing report</td>
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<td>Submitting the document</td>
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<tr>
<td>Revising the document</td>
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<tr>
<td>Thesis Examination</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
B. Research Method

The method which was used in this research was experimental study. The experimental method of research is defined by Hadi (1992: 428) as a method or procedure involving the control or manipulation of conditions in order to investigate the effect of a treatment (X) for the variable (Y). Due to some problems, this research is not a true experimental-design. This research is a quasi-experimental design. In quasi-experimental design, a researcher cannot have a true situation like in true experimental design (Nunan: 1992: 41). For example, when a research is conducted in the classroom, the researcher cannot change the classroom setting.

An experimental research is applied as a method in this study. There are differences between experimental and non-experimental research in terms of the amount of control they have over the data. Experimentalists manipulate the variables in order to see the effects. On the other hand, non-experimentalists observe the variables, as cited by Blaxter (1996: 68) in Leary (1991:122). Mason and Bramble (1997: 55) add that the investigation on the effects of one variable towards another can be done separately. According to Sommer and Sommer (1991: 94) as stated by Blaxter (1996: 68), an experiment creates artificial situation in which the events that usually occur together, are divided into some variables. Mason and Bramble (1997: 55), Sдорow (1997: 47), and Sommer and Sommer have the same definition about experimental research which manipulates the experimental conditions and controls the influences that might occur. Selinger and Shohamy (1999: 135) also states that experimental research is constructed in such a way
that the variables can be controlled and manipulated. They are usually formed into
groups.

The participants in the experiment are termed **subjects** (Blaxter, 1996: 68). Whereas, the factors mentioned in this study are called **variables**. **Independent variables** are those that are changed by the researchers. On the other hand, **dependent variables** are those that are affected by the experimental treatment. Mason and Bramble (1997: 55) explain the group experiencing a treatment condition is called **experimental** or **treatment group**, the other gets a neutral treatment is called **control group**. The characteristics of a control group conditions are as follows (Mason and Bramble, 1997: 104):

1. They should be as desirable to the subjects as the treatment group conditions.
2. They should be similar in duration and procedure to the experimental treatment conditions.
3. The control conditions should be concerned with variables unrelated to the treatment effects under study.

The requirement for conducting the experiment is that the two groups perform similar ability and characteristics before applying the treatment conditions (Mason and Bramble, 1997: 56).

Unfortunately, the researchers who conduct the experimental research face some difficulties to select the subjects and control the influences (Mason and Bramble (1997: 57). In order to conduct similar experiment research but the researchers still have the control over the conditions, they use **quasi-experimental studies** in which they can design the study to match the situation. The quasi-experiment research is conducted when

(commit to user)
the situations cannot be entirely controlled or manipulated by the researcher (Nunan, 1992: 137). This study, therefore, applied quasi-experimental research because the researcher could not have a true situation like in true experimental design.

A true experiment possesses several requirements (Campbell, 1991: 260). First, the subjects of the research are randomly assigned to the experimental and control group. The writer could not meet this requirement because she could not change the arrangement of the class and the students who had been determined by the school. Second, a maximum control should exist over the independency between groups and among the subjects of each group. The result of the treatment is greatly influenced by the interaction among them. The writer could not control this independency. Third, there should be a control to the possible extraneous variables – variables which come out of the experiment variables – such as students’ participation to a certain course. The extraneous variables also influence the result of the treatment.

In line with Campbell, Nunan (1992: 41) underlines that a quasi – experiment has several characteristics: it has both pre – and posttest; it has experimental and control groups; it has no random assignment of subjects.

There are at least two groups in this quasi-experimental method, namely control group and experimental group. In this study, the control group is the class that was taught using synthetic phonic method and the experimental group was the class that was taught by analytical phonics method. Before given the treatment, the students did the pretest in order to measure the students’ basic skill. Knowing the treatment was used to make sure that those two groups have the same ability so that the researcher could make sure that
the groups have the same ability. After the treatment, the groups were given a post-test to know the progress after the treatment.

In addition, before the treatment, the writer also gave a questionnaire about students’ self-confidence. The students’ self-confidence is classified into high and low.

The proposed research design of the independent and dependent variables can be seen at the following figure:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor A</th>
<th>Teaching Methods</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Analytical Phonics (Experimental Group) (A₁)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor B</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STUDENTS’ SELF-CONFIDENCE</td>
<td>High (B₁)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low (B₂)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. Factorial Design 2x2

Note:

A₁B₁ : The mean score of listening test of students having high self-confidence who are taught by using analytical phonics.

A₂B₁ : The mean score of listening test of students having high self-confidence who are taught by using synthetic phonics.

A₁B₂ : The mean score of listening test of students having low self-confidence who are taught by using analytical phonics.
$A_2B_2$: The mean score of listening test of students having low self-confidence who are taught by using synthetic phonics.

$A_1$: The mean score of listening test of experimental class which is taught by using analytical phonics.

$A_2$: The mean score of listening test of experimental class which is taught by using synthetic phonics.

$B_1$: The mean score of listening test of students having high self-confidence.

$B_2$: The mean score of listening test of students having low self-confidence.

**C. Subject of the Study**

1. **Population**

   Population is as a set of all instruments (Johnson and Christensen, 2000: 158). Gay (1992: 125) clarifies that population is the researcher’s interest of the group in which he/she would like the results of the study to be generalized. It is the individuals who have the quality or characteristics in common from which a researcher may get the data. The target population in the present study is all of the students in level 2 Kindergarten of Tunas Bangsa School, Lagoi, Bintan. There are two classes in which each class consists of 12 students. The total population is 24 students. Those 24 students are used as the sample of population.

   The characteristics of population:

   a. The learners are in level 2 kindergarten in the academic year 2010/2011.

   b. The students are taught by the same teacher.
The samples picked out from the population are 24 students coming from two classes. One class will be used as the experimental group and the other one as the control group. The control group is taught through synthetic phonics approach. The experimental group gets analytical phonics treatment.

2. Sample

A sample in a group of individuals who represents a larger population (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2000: 103). Sample is some or part of investigated variable (Suharsimi, 1997: 117). In line with Suharsimi, Fraenkel and Wallen, Gay (1992: 125) clarifies that sample is a group of subjects which usually represents the larger group from which they are selected. It means that sample is a part of population from which the research data are obtained. Johnson and Christensen (2000: 158) express that a sample is a set of elements taken from a larger population according to certain rules.

In this thesis, the writer would like to emphasize that sample is a part of the population to represent the data. Since there are two classes in the second year of Kindergarten, the researcher takes those two classes to be the sample. It is usually called total sampling.

The sample of this research is the second year kindergarten students, two classes, of Tunas Bangsa School in the academic year of 2010/2011. The two classes are chosen because they have the same ability and characteristics. This is based on the students’ pre-test scores. The classes are Kindergarten B1 which consists of 12 students and Kindergarten B2 which consists of 12 students. Therefore, the total number of the sample is 24 students.
3. Sampling

Sampling is the process of drawing a sample from the population (Mason and Bramble, 1997: 113). The writer would like to take the total samples from a population. There are 24 kindergarten students in Tunas Bangsa School who are divided into two classrooms. Therefore, these two classes are going to be used as the samples of the research. As the sample, the learners have common characteristics of population. They are as follows:

a. The learners are in kindergarten 2 level in the academic year 2010/2011.
b. The students are taught by the same teacher.
c. The students have the same English competence, based on the students’ pre-test.
d. The students in one class are taught through analytical phonics approach.
e. The other class is taught by synthetic phonics approach.

The treatments are applied to the samples.

D. Techniques of Collecting Data

Based on the aims of the study, the writer uses a questionnaire and a test as the instruments in collecting the data. In order to answer the research problems and to obtain a correct conclusion, the writer should have valid and reliable instruments.

1. Instrument

The instruments used in collecting the data are the questionnaires and the tests.
a. Questionnaires

Questionnaires are the most commonly used instruments to gather the answers that interest the researcher and it is similar to interviews. The advantages of conducting questionnaire are it is self-administered, economical for larger sample, and the respondents can respond anonymously. Having larger sample helps the researcher to generalize the data. Being anonymous helps the respondents answer openly and honestly. Questionnaires are not as easy as it seems to interpret the data. There are some hints on wording questions (Blaxter, 1996: 162):

1) Try and avoid questions which are ambiguous or imprecise or which assure specialist knowledge on the part of the respondent.

2) Remember that questions which ask respondents to recall events or feelings that occurred long ago may not be answered accurately.

3) Two or three simple questions are usually better than one very complex one.

4) Try not to draft questions which presume particular answer, or lead the respondent on, but allow for all possible responses.

5) Avoid too many questions which are couched in negative terms; though in some cases, such as when you are asking a series of attitude questions, it can be useful to mix positive and negative questions.

6) Remember that hypothetical questions, beyond the experience of the respondent, are likely to attract a less accurate response.

7) Avoid questions which may be offensive, and couch sensitive questions in a way and in a place (e.g. at the end of the questionnaire) unlikely to affect
your overall response rate. Do not ask too many open-ended questions: they take too much time to answer properly, and too much time to analyze.

The questionnaire of the students’ self-confidence which consists of thirty numbers is arranged based on the self-confidence characteristics proposed by Gerber (2009: 3). Self-confidence characteristics are divided into two; namely high self-confidence and low self-confidence. High self-confidence and low self-confidence students are categorized into six characteristics. These characteristics are used as the indicators, in which each indicator is elaborated into five statements to clarify the students’ opinion.

The degree of self-confidence was measured by the teacher through the questionnaire. In fact, the students might have some difficulties in understanding the questionnaire; therefore the respondents were accompanied by the researcher in answering the questionnaire in order to clarify the meaning of the statement. However, the researcher did not lead the students to answer certain point. Each indicator is elaborated into 2 statements, Yes/No. There are 30 numbers in the self-confidence questionnaire. The students are required to choose one of two items that is suitable to their opinion.

Kindergarten students are in the process of cognitive development. They learn how to identify yes/no response when they have to face yes/no questions. The students are in the stage of differentiating two responses such as true/false, yes/no, same/different (Winkel, 1996: 17). As a result, they have difficulties in understanding multiple choices. Thus, regarding that kindergarten students might...
have difficulties in understanding the degree of agreement and disagreement, Likert scale is adjusted in order to score the two points in which the interval between each point on the scale is assumed to be equal (Dornyei, 2003: 35). The purpose of Likert scale is to register the extent of agreement and disagreement of a particular statement. However, the responses of agreement and disagreement is changes into Yes/No statements in order to make the students understand the statements easily. The items of the questionnaire are in positive and negative direction. The score is as follows:

Table 3: Likert Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Positive Item</th>
<th>Negative Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This questionnaire needs to be measured its validity and reliability. Since there are only two classes and both are used as the experimental and control groups, the questionnaire is not tested to the other classes. However, the validity and reliability of the questionnaire is measured based on the result of those two groups. Since there are two options in each statement, the minimum scores required are 0 and the maximum scores are 30.

Obtaining the data of the students’ self-confidence, the researcher conducts a questionnaire. The purpose is to measure the questionnaire itself whether it is valid and reliable. Since the requirements of measuring the instrument are validity and reliability, those two terms need to be elaborated in this study.
1) The Validity of the Questionnaire

Ary (2010: 213) clarifies that validity refers to the measurement of the instrument related to the extent to which it is supposed to measure. Selinger and Shohamy (1999: 189) agree that validity deals with the extent to which a test measures what it is intended to. Educational and psychological testing instruments are meant to measure the students’ achievement, intelligence, creativity, aptitude, attitude, motivation and the like. The researcher must create the tests and the scales which are drawn from the construct presented as the indicators. Ary (2010: 214) explains that the instrument’s validity depends on the particular situation and particular purpose of the research. A test which is valid to one situation may not be valid to the other. A validity of an instrument deals with the purpose of the research. For example, a test on the students’ end-of-year achievement may not be useful to measure the students’ competence prediction.

To measure the validity of the questionnaire, the writer uses internal validity. It refers to the consistency of the result obtained from a piece of research. The formula is as follows:

\[ r_i = \frac{\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_e}{s_x} \times \frac{p_i}{q_i} \]

If \( r_i \) is higher than \( r_e \), it means that the item is valid.

Example of the validity computation item number 1:

\[ r_i = \frac{19.33 - 16.96}{6.19} \times \frac{0.71}{0.29} \times \sqrt{2.45} = 0.38 \times 1.57 = 0.60 \]

Because \( r_i \) (0.60) is higher than \( r_e \) (0.404), it means item number 1 is valid.
2) The Reliability of the Questionnaire

In order to know the reliability of the questionnaire, the formula is as follows:

\[ r_{kk} = \frac{k}{k-1} \left( 1 - \frac{\sum pq}{S_t^2} \right) \]

Notes:
- \( r_{kk} \) = the coefficient of the reliability
- \( k \) = the number of valid items on the test

The result of the questionnaire reliability is as follows:

\[ r_{kk} = \frac{27}{27-1} \left( 1 - \frac{6.15}{38.29} \right) \]
\[ r_{kk} = 0.872 \]

Where:
- \( \sum x_t^2 = 918.96 \)
- \( S_t = \sqrt{\frac{\sum x_t^2}{n}} \) The statement is reliable if \( r_o \) is higher than \( r_t \).

\[ S_t = \sqrt{\frac{918.96}{24}} = 6.19 \]
\[ S_t^2 = 6.19^2 = 38.29 \]

The result of the reliability is that \( r_{kk} \) (0.872) is bigger than \( r_t \) (0.404) for the level of significance \( \alpha = 0.05 \). It means that all the questionnaires are reliable.

There are 27 items are used to get data from experimental and control group.
Before administering the questionnaire in the experiment and control class, the researcher should make sure the questionnaire is valid and reliable. In order to check the validity and the reliability of the questionnaire, firstly, the researcher had to try it out to the students of the class who do not belong to the experimental and control class. Since there are only two classes in Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten, the researcher conducted the try-out in Pratama Kindergarten, Solo Baru, Sukoharjo. The students in this school were assumed to have the same ability as the students in Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten. They have learnt English since they were in the pre-school. They study English two times a week, 35 minutes each. Moreover, they have known about some consonant phonics. Therefore, the students in this school was assumed to have the same characteristics as Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten students.

After conducting the try-out, there were 27 valid and reliable items out of 30 items. The valid and reliable items were items number 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30. Those valid and reliable items were used to get data of experimental and control class. Then, the median of the data was used to divide the self-confidence level into two groups. They are high and low self-confidence levels. The data was categorized into 50% of upper group for high self-confidence and 50% of lower group for low self-confidence of both classes. There were twelve students from experimental class and twelve students from control class, 50% x 24 = 12 for upper group and 50% x 24 = 12 for lower group.
b. Tests

Test is a useful instrument in educational research. Test refers to the collection of data on the subjects’ ability. In the second language acquisition research, tests are usually used to gain the data of the students’ knowledge of the second language (Shelinger and Shohamy, 1999: 476). Ary (2010: 197) confirms that a set of stimuli to gain the students’ responses are valued through scores. Score is an indicator showing the students’ achievement in possessing the characteristics being measured. There are two important requirements for tests, they are validity and reliability. The other requirement which is not less essential is the objectivity.

Once the scoring key is made for an objective test, the other person or machine can replace the researcher’s existence in scoring the tests. Therefore, a test is objective when there is the agreement among the scorers in checking the students’ tests.

Despite the controversies about dictation, Oller (1999: 39) states that dictation is the reliable and highly valid. Dictation was chosen as the testing technique in the listening test. The test administered in this research was short responses in the form of multiple choices, true/false, cloze, ticking off items (Urr: 1996: 113) and minimal pair contrast (Lado and Fries, 1954 as cited by Oller, 1999: 167). It consisted of seventy numbers which were distributed into ten numbers of multiple choice items, five numbers of true/false items, twenty-five numbers of cloze items, and ten numbers of ticking off items and twenty minimal pair contrast.

This test was used as the achievement test to measure the students’ listening skill. The listening test should be valid and reliable. The validity and reliability of the listening test is formulated as follows:
1) The Validity of the Listening Test

The following formula is used to know the validity of listening test:

\[ r_i = \frac{\bar{X}_i - \bar{X}_t}{S_t} \sqrt{\frac{p_i}{q_i}} \]

If \( r_i \) is higher than \( r_t \), it means that the item is valid.

The example of the validity computation item number 1 is as follows:

\[ r_i = \frac{41.88 - 37.79}{14.01} \sqrt{\frac{0.71}{0.29}} = 0.29 \times 1.57 \]

\[ r_i = 0.46 \]

Because \( r_i (0.46) \) is higher than \( r_t (0.404) \), it means that the item is valid.

2) The Reliability of the Listening Test

To measure the reliability of the listening test, the formula (Kuder and Richardson) is as follows:

\[ r_{kk} = \frac{k}{k-1} \left( 1 - \frac{\sum pq}{S_t^2} \right) \]

If \( r_{kk} \) is higher than \( r_t \) the item is reliable.

Where: \( \sum x_t^2 = 4713.96 \)

\[ S_t = \sqrt{\frac{\sum x_t^2}{n}} = \sqrt{\frac{4713.96}{24}} = 14.01 \]

\[ S_t^2 = 14.01^2 = 196.41 \]

\[ r_{kk} = \frac{61}{61-1} \left( 1 - \frac{13.91}{196.41} \right) \]

\[ r_{kk} = 1.0167 \times 0.9292 = 0.944 \]
\( r_{kk} \) (0.944) is bigger than \( r_t \) (0.404). It means that all listening test items are reliable. There are 61 items are used to get data from experimental and control group. However, the researcher applied 60 items.

This research provided 70 items to measure the students’ listening skill. Before administering the listening test for the experimental class and control class, the instrument needs to be tried out to the other class in order to know the validity and reliability. The try-out was conducted to the second grade of Pratama Kindergarten students. There were 61 valid and reliable items in this instrument. However, there were 60 items taken as the listening test. The item numbers were 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 26, 28, 29, 30, 31, 33, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, and 68.

F. Techniques of Analyzing the Data

The analyses of the data are divided into two, namely descriptive analysis and inferential analysis. Descriptive analysis consists of mean, median, mode, and standard deviation. Whereas, inferential analysis includes normality, homogeneity of the data, and F-test. The normality and homogeneity were done before testing the hypothesis. The last was the use of multifactor analysis of variance 2X2. \( H_o \) is rejected if \( F_o > F_x \) and if \( H_o \) is rejected, the analysis is continued to know which group is better by using Tukey test.
1. Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive analysis is the analysis that summarizes the research data. It includes the measure of central tendency and frequencies. The measure of central tendency is a statistic that represents a set of scores. It consists of mean, median, mode, and standard deviation. Nunan (1992: 28) elaborates that mean is the average of a set of scores. Median is the middle score in a set of scores which have been ordered from the lowest to the highest. Mode is the score that occurs most frequently in a set of scores. Standard deviation (SD) is a statistic representing the degree of dispersion of a set of scores around their mean. It is calculated by deducting the mean from each individual score, squaring the resulting figures to get rid of the minutes signs, adding these together, and dividing by the number of scores minus one. It comes to the variance. Then, standard deviation is gained through obtaining the square root of the variance (Ary, 2010: 209).

The formulas of Mean, Median, Mode, and Standard Deviation are as follows:

a) Mean

\[
\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{N} \quad \text{or} \quad \bar{X} = \frac{\sum f_i X_i}{N}
\]

\(\bar{X}\) = the mean

\(\sum X\) = the sum of raw scores

\(N\) = the number of cases

\(\sum f_i X_i\) = The sum of frequency and scores multiplication
b) Median

\[ M_e = L + i \left( \frac{N - c_f b}{f_w} \right) \]

- \( M_e \): the median
- \( L \): the lower limit of the interval within which the median lies
- \( i \): the interval size
- \( N \): the number of cases in the distribution
- \( c_f b \): the cumulative frequency in all intervals below the interval containing the median
- \( f_w \): the frequency of cases within the interval containing the median

\[ M_d = L + i \left( \frac{f_1}{f_1 + f_2} \right) \]

- \( M_d \): the mode
- \( L \): the lower limit of the interval within which the median lies
- \( i \): the interval size
- \( f_1 \): the frequency of interval containing mode reduced by that of the previous interval
- \( f_2 \): the frequency of interval containing mode reduced by that of the following interval
d) **Standard Deviation**

\[
\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2}{N}} \quad \text{or} \quad \sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum f_i x_i^2 - (\sum f_i x_i)^2}{N}}
\]

\(\sigma\) = the standard deviation

\(\sum x^2\) = the sum of the squares of each score (that is, each score is first squared, then these squares are summed)

\((\sum X)^2\) = the sum of the scores squared (the scores are first summed, then the total is squared)

\(N\) = the number of cases in the distribution

After analyzing the central tendencies, frequencies (f) are used to measure the number of occurrences of the data. Frequencies also give the information of the subject performance on the test. In this research, the test measured is the listening test. The frequencies are presented in the class intervals which are used in ‘condensing, organizing, and summarizing the data when the score range is large’ (Selinger and Shohamy, 1999: 211-213).

2. **Inferential Analysis**

Inferential analysis is to determine whether changes in a dependent variable are caused by an independent variable (Nunan, 1992: 36). It is taken from the word ‘infer’
in which the researcher is inferring from samples to population. Inferential analysis consists of normality, homogeneity, and F-test of the data.

**a. Normality**

The normality testing is used to test the null hypothesis that data come from a normally distributed population, when the null hypothesis does not specify which normal distribution, i.e. does not specify the expected value and variance (Wikipedia). This study uses Lilliefors testing to measure normality. The formula is as follows:

\[ L_0 = |F(z_1) - S(z_1)| \]

Where:

1) \[ S = \sqrt{\frac{\sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2}{n-1}} \]

2) \[ z_1 = \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{s} \]

3) \[ F(z_1) = 0.5 - (Z \text{ table}) \text{ or } 0.5 + (Z \text{ table}) \]

4) \[ S(z_1) = \frac{1}{n} \]

If \( L_0 \) is lower than \( L \_1 \) or \( L_0 < L_1 \), it means that the sample is in normal distribution.

**b. Homogeneity**

The homogeneity of this study applies Barlett formula.

\[ S_1^2 = \frac{\sum X_1^2 - (\sum X_1)^2}{n-1} \]
2) \[ S_2^2 = \frac{\sum X_2^2 - (\sum X_2)^2}{n-1} \]

3) \[ S_3^2 = \frac{\sum X_3^2 - (\sum X_3)^2}{n-1} \]

4) \[ S_4^2 = \frac{\sum X_4^2 - (\sum X_4)^2}{n-1} \]

5) \[ \left\{ S^2 = \sum (n_i - 1) s_i^2 / \sum (n_i - 1) \right\} \]

6) \[ \text{Log} s^2 \]

7) \[ B = (\text{Log} s^2) \Sigma (n_i - 1) \]

8) \[ X_o^2 = (\ln 10) \{ B - \Sigma (n_1 - 1) \log s_1^2 \} \]

If \[ X_o^2 \text{ (X}_{\text{observation}} \) is lower than \[ X_t^2 \text{ (X}_{\text{table}} \), it can be concluded that the data are homogeneous.

c. **F-Test**

In analyzing the data, the researcher investigates the combined effect of analytical phonics approach and self-confidence in improving the students’ listening skill. The experiment investigating the combined effects of two or more independent variables is called a factorial design and the results are analyzed by means of multifactor analysis of variance (Ary, 1985: 169).

In this study, the writer uses F-test. The formula is as follows:

\[ F = \frac{MS_b}{MS_w} = \frac{SS_b/df_b}{SS_w/df_w} \]
Notes:

\[ M_{S_b} = \text{the mean square between groups} \]

\[ M_{S_w} = \text{the mean square within groups} \]

\[ S_{S_b} = \text{the sum of square between groups} \]

\[ S_{S_w} = \text{the sum of square within groups} \]

\[ d_{f_b} = \text{the degrees of freedom between groups} \]

\[ d_{f_w} = \text{the degrees of freedom within groups} \]

d. Multifactor Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

The computation of Multifactor Analysis of Variance consists of:

1) The total sum of squares:

\[ \sum x_t^2 = \sum X_t^2 - \frac{(\sum x_t)^2}{N} \]

2) The sum of squares between groups

\[ \sum x_b^2 = \frac{(\sum X_1)^2}{n_1} + \frac{(\sum X_2)^2}{n_2} + \frac{(\sum X_3)^2}{n_3} + \frac{(\sum X_4)^2}{n_4} - \frac{(\sum X_t)^2}{N} \]

3) The sum of squares within groups:

\[ \sum x_w^2 = \sum x_t^2 - \sum x_b^2 \]

4) The between-columns sum of squares:

\[ \sum x_{bc}^2 = \frac{(\sum X_{c1})^2}{n_{c1}} + \frac{(\sum X_{c2})^2}{n_{c2}} - \frac{(\sum X_t)^2}{N} \]
5) The between-rows sum of squares:

\[ \sum x_{br}^2 = \frac{\left( \sum X_{r1} \right)^2}{n_{r1}} + \frac{\left( \sum X_{r2} \right)^2}{n_{r2}} - \frac{\left( \sum X_{t} \right)^2}{N} \]

6) The sum of squares interaction:

\[ \sum x_{int} = \sum x_b^2 - \left( \sum x_{bc}^2 - \sum x_{br}^2 \right) \]

7) The number of degrees of freedom associated with each source of variation:

- df for between-columns sum of squares = \( C - 1 \)
- df for between-rows sum of squares = \( R - 1 \)
- df for interaction = \( (C - 1)(R - 1) \)
- df for between-groups sum of squares = \( G - 1 \)
- df for within-groups sum of squares = \( \sum (n - 1) \)
- df for total sum of squares = \( N - 1 \)

where:

- \( C \) = the number of columns
- \( R \) = the number of rows
- \( G \) = the number of groups
- \( n \) = the number of subject in one group
- \( N \) = the number of subject in all groups

8) The finding of \( q \) is found by dividing the difference between the means by the square root of the ratio of the within group variation and sample size.
In order to know the difference between columns, rows, and cells, Tukey test is applied in this study.

1) Between columns: $$q = \frac{\bar{x}_{c1} - \bar{x}_{c2}}{\sqrt{\text{error variance}/n}}$$

2) Between rows: $$q = \frac{\bar{x}_{r1} - \bar{x}_{r2}}{\sqrt{\text{error variance}/n}}$$

3) Between column: $$q_{(HSC)} = \frac{\bar{x}_{c1r1} - \bar{x}_{c2r1}}{\sqrt{\text{error variance}/n}}$$

4) Between column: $$q_{(LSC)} = \frac{\bar{x}_{c1r2} - \bar{x}_{c2r2}}{\sqrt{\text{error variance}/n}} \quad \text{or} \quad q_{(LSC)} = \frac{\bar{x}_{c2r2} - \bar{x}_{c1r2}}{\sqrt{\text{error variance}/n}}$$

5) Between rows: $$q = \frac{\bar{x}_{c1r3} - \bar{x}_{c1r2}}{\sqrt{\text{error variance}/n}}$$

6) Between rows: $$q = \frac{\bar{x}_{c2r3} - \bar{x}_{c2r2}}{\sqrt{\text{error variance}/n}}$$

ANNOVA and Tukey test functions as an explanatory tools. It describes the significant differences of the data and shows whether there is an effect or interaction among the data (Selinger and Shohamy, 1999: 235). Furthermore, in order to know which teaching approach and attributive variable (self-confidence) are more effective, the research compares the means among the variables.
CHAPTER IV
THE RESULT OF THE RESEARCH

This chapter discusses the result of the research. There are four important things discussed in this chapter, namely the description of the data, normality and homogeneity test, hypothesis test, and the discussion of the result of research.

A. The Data Description

This research aims to investigate the effect of phonics method and self-confidence toward English on students’ listening achievement of the second grade students of Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten, Lagoi, Bintan. Two classes of B1 and B2 in which each consists of 12 students are used as the control and experiment group respectively.

The treatments are conducted differently in each class. The experimental group is taught using Analytical Phonics Method and the control group is taught using Synthetic Phonics Method. However, in order to know the students’ low and high self-confidence towards English, the students are given a questionnaire about their self-confidence before having the treatments.

After experiencing the treatments, the students do a post-test. The data of the post-test are analyzed as the result of this research. The data description of each group is as follows:
1. Experimental Group ($A_1$)

The maximum score to be achieved in the listening test is 60. Since the students’ evaluation is based on A-E scales, 60 is divided into five ranges. The students who scored 1-12 got E, 13-24 got D, 25-36 got C, 37-48 got B and 49-60 got A. However, the result of the listening test in this research is not transferred into A-E. Here are the students’ listening scores and the frequency distribution of the scores of the experimental group. The highest score is 48 and the lowest score is 40. The mean is 36.58, the mode is 46.7, the median is 45.5, and the standard deviation is 2.89. The frequency distribution, the histogram and polygon of these data are presented in table 4 and figure 2.

Students’ listening scores:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class Limit</th>
<th>$f_i$</th>
<th>$f_c$</th>
<th>$X_i$</th>
<th>$X_i^2$</th>
<th>$f_iX_i$</th>
<th>$f_iX_i^2$</th>
<th>$c_i$</th>
<th>$f_i\cdot c_i$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>40-41</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>1640.25</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>3280.5</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42-43</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td>1806.25</td>
<td>127.5</td>
<td>5418.75</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44-45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>1980.25</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>1980.25</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-47</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>2162.25</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>8649</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48-49</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>2352.25</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>4704.5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Σ</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>9941.25</td>
<td>536</td>
<td>24033</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: The frequency distribution of the post-test scores of the experimental group
Figure 2. The histogram and polygon of frequency distribution of the post-test scores of experimental group.

2. Control Group ($A_2$)

Here are the students’ listening scores and the frequency distribution of the scores of the control group. The highest score is 46 and the lowest score is 34. The mean is 36.83, the mode is 44, the median is 42.5, and the standard deviation is 12.22. The frequency distribution, the histogram and polygon of these data are presented in table 5 and figure 3.

Students’ listening scores:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students’ Listening Score</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5. The frequency distribution of the post-test scores of the control group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class Limit</th>
<th>( f_i )</th>
<th>( f_c )</th>
<th>( X_i )</th>
<th>( X_i^2 )</th>
<th>( f_iX_i )</th>
<th>( f_iX_i^2 )</th>
<th>( c_i )</th>
<th>( f_i c_i )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>34-36</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>1225</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>3675</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>-9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37-39</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>1444</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>2888</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-42</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>1681</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>1681</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43-45</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>1936</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>9680</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-48</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>2209</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>2209</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Sigma )</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>6286</td>
<td>442</td>
<td>17924</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3. The histogram and polygon of frequency distribution of the post-test scores of control group.

3. High Self–Confident Students (\( B_1 \))

Here are the students’ listening scores and the frequency distribution of the scores of the high self-confident students. The highest score is 48 and the lowest score is 43. The mean is 45.67, the mode is 46.3, the median is 45.9, and the standard deviation is 1.99. The frequency distribution, the histogram and polygon of these data are presented in table 6 and figure 4.
Students’ listening scores:

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. The frequency distribution of the post-test scores of the high self-confident students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class Limit</th>
<th>$f_i$</th>
<th>$f_c$</th>
<th>$X_t$</th>
<th>$X_t^2$</th>
<th>$f_iX_t$</th>
<th>$f_iX_t^2$</th>
<th>$c_i$</th>
<th>$f_i c_i$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>42-43</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td>1806.25</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>3612.5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44-45</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>1980.25</td>
<td>133.5</td>
<td>5940.75</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-47</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>2162.25</td>
<td>232.5</td>
<td>10811.25</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48-49</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>2352.25</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>4704.5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Sigma$</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8301</td>
<td>548</td>
<td>25069</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4. The histogram and polygon of frequency distribution of the post-test scores of high self-confident students.
4. Low Self–Confident Students \((B_2)\)

Here are the students’ listening scores and the frequency distribution of the
scores of the high self-confident students. The highest score is 44 and the lowest score is
34. The mean is 39.75, the mode is 41.5, the median is 40.25, and the standard deviation
is 3.49. The frequency distribution, the histogram and polygon of these data are presented
in table 7 and figure 5.

Students’ listening scores:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class Limit</th>
<th>(f_i)</th>
<th>(f_c)</th>
<th>(X_i)</th>
<th>(X_i^2)</th>
<th>(f_iX_i)</th>
<th>(f_iX_i^2)</th>
<th>(c_i)</th>
<th>(f_i) (c_i)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>34-36</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>1225</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>3675</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37-39</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>1444</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>2888</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-42</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>1681</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>6724</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43-45</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>1936</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>5808</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\Sigma)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>6286</td>
<td>477</td>
<td>19095</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7. The frequency distribution of the post-test scores of the low self-confident students.
Figure 5. The histogram and polygon of frequency distribution of the post-test scores of low self-confident students.

5. The scores of the students who have high self-confidence toward English taught by using Analytical Phonics Method ($A_1B_1$).

Since there are only 6 respondents of this group, the histogram and polygon of the data are not provided. It can be seen that the highest score is 48 and the lowest score is 46. The mean is 47. Trimodal exists when there are three modes; they are 46, 47 and 48. The median is 47 and the standard deviation is 0.89.

Students’ listening score:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$X$</th>
<th>$X - \bar{X}$</th>
<th>$(X - \bar{X})^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>282</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean: $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{n} = \frac{282}{6} = 47$
Mode: \( Mo = 46, 47, 48 \) (trimodal)

Median: \( Me = \left( \frac{47+47}{2} \right) = 47 \)

Standard Deviation: \( s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(X-\bar{X})^2}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{4}{6-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{4}{5}} = 0.89 \)

6. The scores of the students who have low self-confidence toward English and are taught by using Analytical Phonics Method \((A, B)\).

From the data, it can be seen that the number of respondents is 6. The highest score is 44 and the lowest score is 40. The mean is 42.17, the mode is 43, the median is 42.5, and the standard deviation is 1.47.

Students’ listening score:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( X )</th>
<th>( X - \bar{X} )</th>
<th>( (X - \bar{X})^2 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>-2.17</td>
<td>4.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>-1.17</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>3.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>253</td>
<td></td>
<td>10.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean: \( \bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{n} = \frac{253}{6} = 42.17 \)

Mode: \( Mo = 43 \)

Median: \( Me = \left( \frac{42+43}{2} \right) = 42.5 \)

Standard Deviation: \( s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(X-\bar{X})^2}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{10.83}{6-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{10.83}{5}} = 1.47 \)
7. The scores of the students who have high self-confidence toward English taught by using Synthetic Phonics Method ($A_2B_1$).

There are 6 respondents of this group. The highest score of the post-test is 46 and the lowest score is 43. The mean is 44.33. The bimodal exists when there are two modes found in the data; they are 43 and 45. The median is 44.5 and the standard deviation is 1.13.

Students’ listening score:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>X</th>
<th>$X - \bar{X}$</th>
<th>$(X - \bar{X})^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>-1.33</td>
<td>1.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>-1.33</td>
<td>1.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>2.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>266</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean: $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{n} = \frac{266}{6} = 44.33$

Mode: $Mo = 43, 45$ (bimodal)

Median: $Me = \left(\frac{44+45}{2}\right) = 44.5$

Standard Deviation: $s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(X-\bar{X})^2}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{6.33}{6-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{6.33}{5}} = 1.13$

8. The scores of the students who have low self-confidence toward English taught by using Synthetic Phonics Method ($A_2B_2$).

There are 6 respondents of this group. The highest score of the post-test is 40 and the lowest score is 34. The mean is 36.83, the mode is 38, the median is 37, and the standard deviation is 2.15.
Students’ listening score:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>X</th>
<th>X - X̄</th>
<th>(X - X̄)^2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>-2.83</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>-1.83</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>-0.83</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>221</td>
<td></td>
<td>23.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean: \( \bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{n} = \frac{221}{6} = 36.83 \)

Mode: Mo = 38

Median: Me = \( \frac{36 + 38}{2} \) = 37

Standard Deviation: \( s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (X - \bar{X})^2}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{25}{6-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{23.03}{5}} = 2.15 \)

B. Normality and Homogeneity Test

The requirement of analyzing the data using inferential analysis is that the sample must be in normal distribution and homogeneous. The normality test is conducted by using Liliefors testing and Bartlett formula is used to test the homogeneity.
1. Normality

Table 8. Summary of Normality Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Data</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>$L_o$</th>
<th>$L_e$</th>
<th>$\alpha$ (Alpha)</th>
<th>Distribution of Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$A_1$</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.1324</td>
<td>0.2404</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Normal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$A_2$</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.1424</td>
<td>0.2404</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Normal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>$B_1$</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.1429</td>
<td>0.2404</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Normal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>$B_2$</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.1778</td>
<td>0.2404</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Normal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>$A_1B_1$</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.1176</td>
<td>0.3190</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Normal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>$A_1B_2$</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.2019</td>
<td>0.3190</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Normal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>$A_2B_1$</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.1976</td>
<td>0.3190</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Normal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>$A_2B_2$</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.1443</td>
<td>0.3190</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Normal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To sum up, all of the data are in normal distribution.

2. Homogeneity

The purpose of having homogeneity test is to know that the data are homogeneous. The data are considered homogeneous if the $X_o$ is lower than the $X_e$ at the level of significance $\alpha$: 0.005 (7.815).

Table 9. Homogeneity Analysis of the Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>df or (n-1)</th>
<th>l/df</th>
<th>$s_i^2$</th>
<th>log $s_i^2$</th>
<th>(df)log $s_i^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>-0.09691</td>
<td>-0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>0.33646</td>
<td>1.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>0.167317</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.69897</td>
<td>3.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Sigma$</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$$X_o^2 = (\ln10)(B-\Sigma(n_1-1)\log s_i^2)$$

$$= (2.3026)(7.458-5.53) = 4.44$$
Because $X^2_o$ ($X_{observation}$) 4.44 is lower than $X^2_\ell$ ($X_{table}$) 7.815, it can be concluded that the data are homogeneous.

C. Hypothesis Test

1. Multifactor Analysis of Variance Test

In order to know whether the $H_0$ (null hypothesis) is rejected or accepted, the hypothesis test must be done. This hypothesis test is conducted through Multifactor Analysis of Variance. Statistically, the $H_0$ (null hypothesis) will be accepted if $F_o$ is lower than $F_t$ and rejected if $F_o$ is bigger than $F_t$. The summary is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>Fo</th>
<th>Ft(0.5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between columns (method)</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>40.85</td>
<td>4.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between rows (self-confidence)</td>
<td>228.17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>228.17</td>
<td>97.09</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Columns by rows (interaction)</td>
<td>10.67</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10.67</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>334.84</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>111.613</td>
<td>47.49</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within group</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>381.84</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the summary of 2 X 2 multifactor of variance above, it can be concluded that:

a. Because $F_o$ between columns (40.85) is higher than $F_{t(0.05)}$ (4.60), the difference between columns is significant or the difference between the listening achievement of the students taught by Analytical Phonics Method and those taught by Synthetic Phonics Method is significant. It can be concluded that
methods of teaching differ significantly from one another in their effect on the ability of the subjects in the experiment.

b. Because $F_o$ between rows (97.09) is higher than $F_{t(0.05)}$ (4.60), the difference between rows is significant or the difference between the listening achievement of students having high self-confidence and those having low self-confidence is significant.

c. Because $F_o$ interaction (4.54) is lower than $F_{t(0.05)}$ (4.60), there is no interaction effect between two variables (phonics methods and degree of self-confidence) on the student’s listening achievement. It means that the effect of teaching methods on the ability to listen does not depend on the degree of self-confidence.

Table 11. The summary of mean score (ANOVA)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A</th>
<th>A_1</th>
<th>A_2</th>
<th>Σ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$B_1$</td>
<td>47.00</td>
<td>44.33</td>
<td>45.67</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$B_2$</td>
<td>42.17</td>
<td>36.83</td>
<td>39.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Sigma$</td>
<td>44.58</td>
<td>40.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Seen from the means, the students having high self-confidence taught by analytical phonics method perform better than high self-confident students taught by synthetic phonics method. Furthermore, the students having low self-confidence taught by analytical phonics method perform better than those low self-confident students taught by synthetic phonics method.
2. Tukey Test (between columns)

After analyzing the variance, it needs to be followed by doing a Tukey test (between columns and between rows). This test aims to test the difference of the mean of each group. The following is the complete summary of Tukey test:

Table 12. Summary of the result of Tukey Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Between Group</th>
<th>$q_o$</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>$q_t$</th>
<th>Significantly</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$A_1 - A_2$</td>
<td>8.89</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>$A_1 &gt; A_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_1B_1 - A_2B_1$</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>$A_1B_1 &gt; A_2B_1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_1B_2 - A_2B_2$</td>
<td>8.61</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>$A_1B_2 &gt; A_2B_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$B_1 - B_2$</td>
<td>14.02</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>$B_1 &gt; B_2$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$q = \frac{\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_j}{\sqrt{\frac{S^2}{n}}}$

a. *Between columns* $q = \frac{\bar{x}_{c1} - \bar{x}_{c2}}{\sqrt{\text{Error variance} / n}}$

$$= \frac{44.58 - 40.58}{\sqrt{2.35/12}} = \frac{4}{0.2} = \frac{4}{0.45} = 8.89$$

Because $q_o$ between columns (8.89) is higher than $q_t(0.05)$ (3.08), it means that Analytical Phonics Method is significantly different from Synthetic Phonics Method for teaching listening. The mean score of the students who are taught by using Analytical Phonics Method is 44.58 and that of those who are taught by using Synthetic Phonics Method is 40.58. It can be concluded that Analytical Phonics Method can create better students’ achievement than Synthetic Phonics Method. In other words, Analytical Phonics Method is more effective than Synthetic Phonics Method for teaching listening.
a. *Between columns* \(_{(HSC)}\) \(q = \frac{\bar{X}_{c_1}r_1 - \bar{X}_{c_2}r_1}{\sqrt{\text{Error variance}/n}}\)

\[
= \frac{47 - 44.33}{\sqrt{2.35/6}} = \frac{2.67}{\sqrt{0.39}} = \frac{2.67}{0.62} = 4.31
\]

Because \(q_0\) between cells \(A_1B_1\) and \(A_2B_1\) (4.31) is higher than \(q_{t(0.05)}\) (3.46), it means that the Analytical Phonics Method is significantly different from Synthetic Phonics Method for teaching listening to the students who have high self-confidence. The main score of the students who have high self-confidence taught by using Analytical Phonics Method is 47 and that of those who have high self-confidence taught by using Synthetic Phonics Method is 44.33. It can be concluded that group of students having high self-confidence taught by using Analytical Phonics Method can create better students’ listening achievement than group of students having high self-confidence taught by Synthetic Phonics Method.

c. *Between columns* \(_{(LSC)}\) \(q=\frac{\bar{X}_{c_1}r_2 - \bar{X}_{c_2}r_2}{\sqrt{\text{Error variance}/n}}\) or \(q=\frac{\bar{X}_{c_2}r_2 - \bar{X}_{c_1}r_2}{\sqrt{\text{Error variance}/n}}\)

\[
= \frac{42.17 - 36.83}{\sqrt{2.35/6}} = \frac{5.34}{\sqrt{0.39}} = \frac{5.34}{0.62} = 8.61
\]

Because \(q_0\) between cells \(A_1B_2\) and \(A_2B_2\) (8.61) is higher than \(q_{t(0.05)}\) (3.46), it means that the Analytical Phonics Method is significantly different from Synthetic Phonics Method for teaching listening to the students who have low self-confidence. The mean score of the students who have low self-confidence taught by using Analytical Phonics Method is 42.17 and that of those who have low self-confidence taught by using Synthetic Phonics Method is 36.83.
and are taught by using Synthetic Phonics Method is 36.83. It can be concluded that group of students having low self-confidence taught by Analytical Phonics Method can create better students’ listening achievement than group of students having low self-confidence taught by Synthetic Phonics Method.

Based on the Tukey Test analysis in item b and c above, it is found that high self-confident students taught by using Analytical Phonics Method can create better listening achievement than high self-confident students taught by Synthetic Phonics Method. The group of students having low self-confidence taught by Analytical Phonics Method can create better listening achievement than group of students having low self-confidence taught by Synthetic Phonics Method. It can be concluded that there is no interaction between the methods and the level of self-confidence.

3. Tukey Test (between rows)

It is also necessary to find out the difference of mean between rows. The summary is the following:

\[ q = \frac{\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_j}{\sqrt{S_w^2/n}} \]

a. Between rows \( q = \frac{\bar{x}_{r1} - \bar{x}_{r2}}{\sqrt{\text{Error variance}/n}} \)

\[ = \frac{45.67 - 39.50}{\sqrt{2.35/12}} = \frac{6.17}{0.44} = 14.02 \]
Because $q_o$ between rows (14.02) is higher than $q_{t(0.05)} (3.08)$, it means that group of students who have high self-confidence are significantly different from those who have low self-confidence in learning listening. The mean score of the students who have high self-confidence is 45.67 and that of those who have low self-confidence is 39.5. It can be concluded that the students who have high self-confidence have better achievement in listening than those who have low self-confidence.

D. The Discussion of the Result of Research

1. Analytical Phonics Methods is more Effective than Synthetic Phonics Method to Teach Listening

Analytical Phonics Method is more effective than Synthetic Phonics Method for teaching listening. Analytical Phonics refers to a method to the teaching of whole word and the students link the specific letters with the sound correspondence (Wikipedia: 2010), it is a good method to be applied to teach listening for kindergarten students. This approach helps the students learn phonics through pictures so that the students know the meaning without guessing. When the students know the meaning, they tend to be more confident in learning English. As a result, they become more active in getting involved in the classroom activities (Loring, 2000: 6). The students try hard to follow the materials and they enjoy the lesson because they can see some interesting pictures. They do not realize that they are learning phonics. As stated by Moustafa (1996: 124), Analytical Phonics is an effective and efficient phonics instruction focusing children's attention on noticing
letter/sound patterns in the major components of syllables: that is, on recognizing the letter/sound patterns in initial, medial or ending of a word. However, the teacher needs to spend the time for making the teaching aids, such as flash cards and handouts.

On the other hand, Synthetic Phonics makes the students frustrated because the students do not have any idea about the words or phrases that they are learning. They have problems in combining the phonics into a whole word. The students are not interested to follow the lesson because there are no pictures to attract their attention. In addition, the students experience difficulties in understanding the meaning presented in context by the teacher. Paul (2003: 83) explains that synthetic phonics method is more suitable to be applied for primary school students, however it is not suitable for kindergarten students because they still need to learn using pictures or see and touch the real things.

2. The Students who Have High Self-Confidence Have Better Listening Ability Than Those who Have Low Self-Confidence.

The students who have high self-confidence have better achievement in listening than those who have low self-confidence. The students who have high self-confident look very enthusiastic and brave to show their best during the activities. They are very active and interested to get involved in teaching-learning process. They are more confident when they know the meaning of the words or phrases of the phonics that they are learning. Therefore, they can influence their friends who have less self-confident to be more active. Gerber (2009:3-4) mentions that the students who have
high self-confidence show their interest by following the meaningful activities, feel enthusiastic to try something new, focus on his strengths, and by practicing naturally, the students improve their skills and eventually the self-confidence will show itself.

In line with Gerber, Sayre (2001: 33) explains that the self-confidence focuses on three main stages, they are the behavioral, belief, identity stages. When someone behaves as a confident person, then everybody will treat him as a confident person. Finally, self-confident is integrated into him as a person as part of his identity.

Low self-confident students are afraid to take risks so that they are not very active in the teaching-learning process. They look at others and tend to imitate their friends in answering the questions (www.mindtools.com). In short, low self-confident students show lower achievement than those high self-confident students.

3. There is No Interaction between Teaching Methods and Students’ Self-Confidence.

The result of the study explains that there is no interaction effect between two variables (methods of teaching and degree of self-confidence) in teaching listening. It can be seen from the $F_a$ interaction (4.54) which is lower than $F_{1(05)}$ (4.94). It means that the effect of teaching methods on the ability to listen does not depend on the degree of self-confidence.

Analytical Phonics helps the students learn English easily through listening to the whole word and break down the word into specific letters with the sound correspondence. The students understand the meaning of a word based on the
illustration they see. When listening, the students in the early age depend on the illustration they see to make them interested in the activity (Urr, 1996: 107). After knowing the meaning, they are able to relate it to the real life (Curtain and Pesola, 1994: 29). The students who have high self-confidence are ready to accept challenges. They do not easily give up when they have more challenges because they know how to stay motivated. They can survive dealing with listening materials including understanding the meaning of some words (www.mindtools.com). This research proves that Analytical Phonics is better for the students having high self-confidence. Therefore, it can be concluded that Analytical Phonics is good and suitable for the students who have high self-confidence. In other words, Analytical Phonics is more effective for the students who have high self-confidence.

Regarding the characteristics of self-confidence learners, the students who have high self-confidence taught by Synthetic Phonics show better result than the students having low self-confidence taught by the same Method. Carbo (1997: 351) explains that although most young learners find it harder to learn phonics through part-to-whole teaching (Synthetic Phonics) than through whole-to-part teaching (Analytical Phonics), the characteristics of high self-confident students take part in the success of the teaching method applied. It means that high self-confident students perform better in any teaching methods because they show the same characteristics of the willingness to take risks, accepting the tasks as challenges and working hard to achieve the best result (Mills, O'Keefe & Stephens: 1992: 104). It was assumed that Synthetic Phonics is more effective for the students who have low self-confidence; in
fact, this research finds that Synthetic Phonics is more effective for the students having high self-confidence.

Because low self-confident students want to look perfect, they avoid making mistakes, work hard to cover up mistakes and fix them before anyone notices. They want to stay in their comfort zone without having much burden to understand some words. Low self-confident students taught by Synthetic Phonics were not enthusiastic to follow the lesson. Although they were able to form a word from the phonics mentioned by the teacher, they did not know the meaning of the word that they were discussing. Low self-confident students find that synthetic phonics is confusing because they do not have any idea about the activities. Furthermore, the students in the early age tend to learn something in a meaningful way (Urr: 1996: 107). It means they need to know the meaning of the words to grasp the lesson (www.astepatatime.co.nz). Regarding to this situation, Mahurt (2005: 33) also states that synthetic phonics may have two effects. First, if the students think that understanding the meaning is not important, they will find it easy to follow the lesson. Yet, if the students are typically those who should know the meaning of the words, they will find it frustrating learning letter-sound correspondence in a meaningless way. Moreover towards low self-confident students, they have to keep in their mind that learning something should be beneficial for them and the activity should attract their attention, which can be done through giving pictures (Sayre 2001: 21). In conclusion, the synthetic phonics method is not effective to teach low self-confident students.

To sum up, there is no interaction effect between methods and self-confidence.
Considering the explanation above, it can be concluded that Analytical Phonics Method is more effective for the students who have both high and low self-confidence. *It shows that there is no interaction between teaching methods and the students’ self-confidence.*
CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION, IMPLICATION, AND SUGGESTION

A. Conclusion

The findings of the research are:

1. Analytical Phonics Method is more effective than Synthetic Phonics Method for teaching listening to the second-grade students of Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten in the academic year of 2010/2011.

2. The students who have high self-confidence have better listening achievement than the students who have low self-confidence of the second grade students of Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten in the academic year of 2010/2011.

3. There is no interaction effect between teaching methods and students’ self-confidence in teaching listening to the second grade students of Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten the academic year of 2010/2011.

Based on the research findings, it can be concluded that Analytical Phonics Method is a very effective method for teaching listening and improving the students’ listening skill for the second grade students who have high and low self-confidence of Tunas Bangsa Kindergarten, Lagoi, Bintan. The effectiveness of the teaching method is not influenced by the degree of the students’ self-confidence.
B. Implication

The result of the research proved that Analytical Phonics Method is more effective than Synthetic Phonics Method to teach listening. This approach helps the students recognize letter-sound correspondence through breaking down the words into phonics. The students find it interesting and challenging to get involved in the analytical phonics activities because they become more familiar to learn new words by breaking them down into letter-sound correspondence. This mastery will lead to the success of learning other skills (www.learningbooks.net).

Self-confidence takes part in the success of conducting the teaching method. The students having high self-confidence tend to perform better than those having low self-confidence. The research shows that the students who have high self-confidence taught using Analytical Phonics and Synthetic Phonics perform better than those having low self-confidence students, although those taught by Analytical Phonics shows better result.

C. Suggestion

There are some suggestions for the teachers, students, and other researchers, as follows:

1. For the teachers:
   a. The result of this research can be evidence that Analytical Phonics Method is one of the effective approaches to use in teaching listening. The teachers are recommended to use this method in teaching English.
b. The psychological factor, in this case self-confidence, can be something to be considered before choosing an appropriate method to use.

2. For the students.
   a. The students must have high self-confidence in order to make them enthusiastic and spiritful to learn English, especially in learning listening in English.
   b. The students must notice that listening is not difficult. It can be done in an interesting and fun way.

3. For the other researchers:
   a. This research can be a reference for other researchers.
   b. There are probably some weaknesses in this study, which should be considered by other researchers to conduct better research at the same subject and to the different level of respondent.
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*commit to user*


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