CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   The Nature of Personality

2.1.1   Defining Personality: Consistency and Distinctiveness

The word personality comes from a Latin word *persona*. From many researchers of personality, there are several terms used such as motive, character, and temperament which refer to permanent special characteristics on someone (Barry, et al., 1999: 141 in Sobur, 2003:299)

Allport (1971 in Sobur, 2003:300) defines the term personality as follows:

> *"Personality is dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment."*

Personality is used to explain why people do not act the same in similar situations. In summary, the concept of personality is used to explain:

1. The stability in a person's behavior over time and across situations (consistency) and

2. The behavioral differences among people reacting do the same situation (distinctiveness).

Those ideas can be combined into the following definition:

"Personality refers to an individual's unique constellation of consistent behavioral traits." (Weiten, 1996:329).

2.1.2   Personality Traits: Dispositions and Dimensions

A personality traits is a durable disposition to behave in a particular way in a variety of situations (Weiten, 1996:329). Adjectives such as honest, dependable, moody, impulsive, suspicious, anxious, excitable, domineering, and friendly describe dispositions that represent personality traits. People use an enormous number of these trait terms to describe one another's personaliHere, the theorists divide these diverse personality theories into four main groups that share certain assumptions, emphases, and interests: 1) Psychodynamic perspectives, 2) Behavioral perspectives, 3) Humanistic perspectives, and 4) Biological perspectives.

2.2   Personality Types

There are many approaches on the theory of personality types. Here, the writer explores one of them, that is the personality types theory proposed by Sheldon. Sheldon stated that the human personality might divide on the physical dimensions/components (Sheldon in Muhadjir, 1992:16 in Sobur, 2003:318). Sheldon described human personality in three basic components, they are: 1) physical component, 2) temperamental component (Muhadjir, 1992 & Suryabrata, 1995 in Sobur, 2003:318) and 3) psychiatric component (Suryabrata, 1995 in Sobur, 2003:318).

1. Physical Component, divided into two:

   a. Primary Physical Component, which consists of:

      i.   Endomorphy

      ii. Mesomorphy

      iii. Ectomorphy

   b. Secondary Physical Component, which consists of:

      i.   Dysplasia

      ii. Gynandromorphy

      iii. Texture

2. Temperamental Component, divided into three:

   a. Viscerotonia

   b. Cerebrotonia

   c. Somatotonia

3. Psychiatric Component, divided into three:

   a. Affective

   b. Paranoid

   c. Heboid

   For further discussion, in close relation to the focus of the study, the writer will only describe more about the temperamental component to support this study. The temperamental component is divided into three, i.e.

a. *Viscerotonic type*, this type has the characteristics which are considered as the average emotional level.

   The characteristics are:

1. The attitude is not strained

2. Loves fun (entertainment)

3. Loves to have eat together

4. Big needs on other's resonance

5. Sleeps well

6. If they have difficulties, they need someone else

b. *Somatotonic type*, this type has the characteristics which are considered as the high emotional level.

The characteristics are:

1. Energetic

2. Strong attitude

3. Needs big space/big needs

4. Likes to straightforward

5. Has clear voice

6. More mature than their real age

7. If they have difficulties, they take some actions (to deal with it by themselves)

c. *Cerebrotonic type*, this type has the characteristics which are considered as the low emotional level.

The characteristics are:

1. Fast reaction

2. Uncertain attitude

3. Less courage to get along with many people (have sociophobia)

4. Less courage to speak in front of many people

5. Original habits, regulate life

6. Voice is not clear

7. Does not sleep well

8. Looks younger than their age

9. If they have difficulties, they tend to isolate themselves

2.3   Personality Measurements/Psychometrics Testing

Personality characteristics can be known by counting the average numbers of self report, personality questionnaire or personality inventory, which each factor included in the questions is taken to represent are important psychological disposition (Barry, et al., 1999:41 in Sobur 2003:322)Actually, there are several methods, which are used to measure or investigate personality characteristics such as (1) Direct Observation, (2) Interview, (3) Projective Test, and (4) Personality Inventory.

To keep focus on the study, the writer is only going to describe further the fourth method, which is Personality Inventory. It is a questionnaire, which encourages individuals to report his/her reaction or feeling in certain situation. This looks like a structured interview which asks the same question for each individuals, and the answer is usually given in the form which is easily to give scores. Personality inventory may be designed to investigate single dimension of personality (e.g. Level of anxiety) and many others.

Personality Inventory asks the tester about her/himself about her/his opinion. The question may state their habits, hobbies, feelings, or opinions. The items of the questions can be formed as statements, which can be stated for the tester as I (first person) or You (second person).

Examples:

- Do you need less time to sleep than the others?

- I only need less time to sleep than the others.

Those sentences above only need the answer of "yes" or "no", "right" or "wrong", "agree" or "disagree", and maybe the answer of "don't know", "not always", or "?".

Here are several kinds of personality inventory which are commonly used in Personality Inventory, they are (a) Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI), (b) Forced-Choice Inventories, and (c) Humm-Wordworth Temperament Scale (H-W Temperamental Scale).

In order to keep close to the focus of the study, the writer uses the Forced-Choice Inventories to investigate the respondent type of personality, which is related to their emotional levels.

Forced - Choice Inventory is classified as a voluntarily test. It is said voluntarily because the subject can choose the opinion they like, and find out that all choices are true, none is wrong (Muhadjir, 1992 in Sobur 2003:330). In this case, subjects are asked to choose the options they like which are suitable with their interests, attitudes, or ways of life. The option provided in the Forced – Choice Inventories may all good or bad. The scoring is based on

which are used. For personality measurement, the criteria, which are used, are based on the way of life on values or based on certain theory of personality.

There are many kinds of psychometrics testing which are used for the method of Forced – Choice Inventories, one of its kinds is called Personality Test-2 (see **Appendix 1**), which the writer thinks as the appropriate or suitable one to investigate or measure the respondent type of personality related to their emotional levels.

2.4   Reading Performance

Reading is a process, which is dominated by the eyes and the brain. The information of the text is caught by the eyes, then it is processed by the brain. The domination of the eyes and the brain in a reading process is in line with Kenneth Goodman's (1970) seminal article, "Reading: A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game". He said that reading employs visual inputs. The eye is an input organ. It has certain characteristics and limitations as an optical instrument. He added that the brain is the organ of information processing. It decides what tasks it must handle, what information is available, what strategies it must employ, which input channels to use where to seek information.

Some of the highlights on his seminal article are reviewed bellow:

1.   Bottom-up and top-down processing.

Virtually all reading involves a risk-a guessing game; because readers must, through the puzzle-solving process, infer meanings, decide what to retain and not to retain, and more on. In bottom-up processing or data driven, readers

what to retain and not to retain, and more on. In bottom-up processing or data driven, readers must first recognize a multiplicity of linguistic signals (letters, morphemes, syllables, words, phrases, grammatical cues, discourse markers) and use their linguistic data-processing mechanism to impose some short of order on these signals. The operations obviously require a sophisticated knowledge of the language itself, so the readers should select the signals that make some sense, that cohere, that "mean".

While top-down or conceptually driven, is a process in which we draw on our own intelligence and experience to understand a text. More recent research has shown a combination of top-down and bottom-up processing, called interactive reading. In which, in practice, a reader continually shifts from one focus to another, now adopting a top-down approach to predict probable meaning, then moving to the bottom-up approach to check whether that is really what the writer says (Nuttall, 1996:17).

2. Schema theory and background knowledge.

In short, the skill in reading depends on the efficient interaction between linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world.

3. The role of effect and culture.

Affective factors play major roles in ultimate reading skills success, just as language ego, self-esteem, empathy and motivation undergird the variability within the affective domain. In addition, culture plays an active role in motivating and rewarding people for literacy.

4. The power of extensive reading.

Here, the reader should highly warrant to strengthen the notion in conjunction with others focused reading training.

5.   Adult literacy training.

It is a specialized field of research and practice that derives insights from a number of psycholinguistic and pedagogical domains of inquiry.

Written language has certain rules or conventions for its manifestation, and we are thus able immediately to identify a genre and to know what to look for within the text (Brown, 2000:302).

Written language also has some characteristics as follows (Brown, 2000:303):

1.   Permanence; spoken language is fleeting. Once you speak a sentence, it vanishes (unless there is a tape recorder around), not like written language.

2.   Processing time; most reading contexts allow readers to read at their own rate. They aren't forced into following the rate of delivery as in spoken language.

3.   Distance; the written word allows messages to be sent across two dimensions: physical distance and temporal distance.

4.   Orthography; writing language has graphemes, sometimes punctuation, pictures, or chart lend a helping hand, so that the writer can describe the aforementioned phonological cues. But these written symbols should stand alone as the one set of signals that the reader must perceive in order to avoid ambiguity that is present in a

readers must do their best to infer, to interpret, and to "read between the lines."

5. Complexity; writing and speech represent different modes of complexity. Spoken language tends to have shorter clauses connected by more coordinate conjunctions, while writing has longer clauses and more subordination.

6. Vocabulary; written language typically utilizes a greater variety of lexical items than spoken conversational.

7. Formality; writing is quite frequently more formal than speech.

Reading comprehension is primarily a matter of developing appropriate, efficient comprehension strategies. Some strategies are relate to bottom-up procedures, and other enhance the top-down processes (Brown, 2000:306). Following are ten such strategies:

1. Identify the purpose in reading; always clearly identifying the purpose in reading something.

2. Use graphemic rules and patterns to aid in bottom-up decoding; always practice to make the correspondences between spoken and written language.

3. Use efficient silent reading techniques for relatively rapid comprehension; always manage to accomplish by allocating whatever time the readers personally need in order to complete the material.

4. Skim the text for main ideas; quickly running one's eyes across a whole text for its gist.

5.   Scan the text for specific information; quickly searching for some particular piece or pieces of information in a text.

6.   Use semantic mapping (clustering); grouping ideas into meaningful clusters.

7.   Guess; readers can use guessing to their advantage to:

> guess the meaning of a word

> guess a grammatical relationship

> guess a discourse relationship

> infer implied meaning

> guess about a cultural reference

> guess content messages.

8.   Analyze vocabulary; hare are several useful techniques:

> Look for prefixes (*co-*, *inter-*, *un-*, etc.) that may give clues.

> Look for suffixes (*-tion, -tive, -ally*, etc.) that may indicate what part of speech it is.

> Look for roots that are familiar (e.g., *intervening* may be a word a student doesn't know, but recognizing that the root *ven* comes from Latin "to come" would yield the meaning "to come in between").

> Look for grammatical contexts that may signal information.

> Look at the semantic context (topic) for clues.

9.   Distinguish between literal and implied meanings; implied meaning usually has to be derived from processing pragmatic information.

10. Capitalize on discourse markers to process relationships; many discourse markers signal relationship among ideas as expressed through phrases, clauses, and sentences.

There are also types of reading performance (Brown, 2000:312):

1. Oral and silent reading.

2. Intensive and extensive reading.

Intensive reading is about to focus on the linguistic or semantic details of a passage. Extensive reading is about to achieve a general understanding of a usually somewhat longer text.

From all of those explanations, there are principles for designing interactive reading techniques (Brown, 2000:313), they are:

1. In an interactive curriculum, make sure that you don't overlook the importance of specific instruction in reading skills.

2. Use techniques that are intrinsically motivating.

3. Balance authenticity and readability in choosing texts.

4. Encourage the development of reading strategies.

5. Include both bottom-up and top-down techniques.

6. Follow the "SQ3R" sequence.

It is a process consisting of the following five steps:

1. *Survey*: Skim the text for an overview of main ideas.

2. *Question*: The reader asks questions about what he or she wishes to get out of the text.

3. *Read*: Read the text while looking for answers to the previously formulated questions.

4. *Recite*: Reprocess the salient points of the text through oral or written language.

5. *Review*: Assess the importance of what one has just read and incorporate it into long-term associations.

7.   Subdivide your techniques into pre-reading, during-reading, and after reading phases.

8.   Build in some evaluative aspect to your techniques.

It is indicate comprehension:

1. Doing--the reader responds physically to a command.

2. Choosing--the reader selects from alternatives posed orally or in writing.

3. Transferring--the reader summarizes orally what is read.

4. Answering--the reader answers questions about the passage.

5. Condensing—the reader outlines or takes notes on a passage.

6. Extending—the reader provides an ending to a story.

7. Duplicating—the reader translates the message into the native language or copies it.

8. Modeling—the reader puts together a toy, for example, after reading directions for assembly.

9. Conversing—the reader engages in a conversation that indicates appropriate processing of information.

The writer here also talks about the definition of rate of reading. Rate of reading is also called rate of comprehension. In rate of reading, students are asked to grasp the whole materials in a limited time. Therefore, they do not have much time to translate and memorize each word. For this reason, students who read faster seem to be better readers than those whose rate of reading is slow.

Rate of reading is very essential to be used in measuring the performance of students in reading English. Rate of reading is essential for the following reasons (Afriani, 2003:21):

1. For good comprehension

2. For concentration

3. To affect strategy change

The main purpose of involving the rate of reading in the performance of reading in English is to assess the speed of comprehension. Due to the shortness of periods of time, students must have full concentration in reading the material. They do not have any reasons to be sleepy or bored of the material. Students usually do the task of material carefully because they do not want to get any mistakes. Consequently, they will take a long period of time to do it. In rate of reading with short periods of time, students must become risk takers. They have to make quick decisions without getting the fullest meaning of the material.

From the explanation above, it can be concluded that the rate of reading depends on the student, the material, and the purpose for reading. In other word, there should be more speeds of reading, which depend upon the pupil, the material, and the purpose of reading. There are three ways to test the students'

reading performance in English (Afriani, 2003:22); they are comprehension test, vocabulary test, and rate of reading test.

2.5 Speaking Performance

From a communicative, pragmatic view of the language, speaking skill is closely intertwined (Brown, 2000:267). The interaction modes of performance apply especially strongly to conversation, the most popular discourse category in the profession. Speaking skill or oral communication skill undergoes some perspectives to its practical considerations, which are:

1) Conversational discourse, the benchmark of successful language acquisition is almost always the demonstration of an ability to accomplish pragmatic goals through interactive discourse with other speakers of the language.

2) Pronunciation, emphasize whole language, meaningful contexts and automaticity of production focus on phonological details of language.

3) Accuracy and Fluency, prioritize important speakers goals of accurate (clear, articulate grammatically, and phonologically correct) language and fluent (flowing and natural) language.

4) Affective factors, to overcome to speak are the anxiety generated over risks of blurting things out that are wrong, stupid, or incomprehensible.

5) The interaction effect, one's learner performance is always colored by that of the person (interlocutor) he or she is talking with.

In conversation, make sure you can deal with both interpersonal/interactional and transactional dialogue and that you are able to

converse with a total stranger as well as someone with whom you are quite familiar (Brown, 2000:270). There are some characteristics that must be taken into account in the productive generation of speech:

1) Clustering, fluent speech in phrasal.

2) Redundancy, opportunity to make meaning clearer.

3) Reduce forms, contraction, elisions reduced vowels, etc.

4) Performance variables, opportunity to manifest certain number of performance hesitations, pauses, backtracking, and corrections.

5) Colloquial language, acquainted with the words, idioms, and phrases.

6) Rate of delivery, achieves an acceptable speed along with other attributes of fluency.

7) Stress, rhythm, and intonation, conveys important messages.

8) Interaction, the creativity of conversational negotiation.

In oral communication, we should not limit our intention to the whole picture, even though that whole picture is important. We must also see the pieces-right down to the small parts of language (Brown, 2000:271). That make up the whole, so users language users need to be shown the details how oral production that are expected to carry out, that are:

1) Imitative, practices an intonation contour or try to pinpoint a certain vowel sound in purpose of focusing on some particular element of language form.

2) Intensive, practices some phonological or grammatical aspect of language.

3) Responsive, a good deal of language speech in short replies.

4) Transactional (dialogue), conveying or exchanging specific information, an extended form of responsive language.

5) Interpersonal (dialogue), maintain social relationships.

6) Extensive (monologue), registers more formal and deliberative communication.

CHAPTER 3
PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS
OF THE DATA