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A Portrait Of Students' Speaking Skills In Interactive Learning: A Case Study In Fifth Grade At Nogotirto State Elementary School, Yogyakarta

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Abstract
Kemampuan berbicara merupakan kompetensi mendasar bagi siswa sekolah dasar, namun banyak anak yang masih enggan berbicara di depan kelas. Penelitian ini mendeskripsikan keterampilan berbicara siswa kelas V selama pembelajaran interaktif di SD Negeri Nogotirto, Sleman, Yogyakarta, mengidentifikasi hambatan yang mereka hadapi, serta menguji bagaimana guru dan orang tua mendukung pengembangan kompetensi lisan tersebut. Penelitian ini menggunakan pendekatan kualitatif deskriptif dengan desain studi kasus terikat. Sebanyak sebelas informan berpartisipasi dalam penelitian ini: satu orang guru wali kelas, lima siswa kelas V, dan lima orang tua, yang semuanya dipilih secara purposive (bertujuan). Data dikumpulkan melalui observasi kelas, wawancara mendalam, dan dokumentasi, serta diverifikasi melalui triangulasi sumber dan teknik. Analisis data mengikuti model interaktif dari Miles, Huberman, dan Saldaña. Hasil penelitian menunjukkan bahwa perilaku berbicara muncul secara tidak merata dan berubah-ubah sesuai dengan situasi. Hambatan kebahasaan (linguistik) meliputi pilihan kata dan penyusunan kalimat, sedangkan hambatan non-kebahasaan (non-linguistik) berpusat pada rasa malu, takut ditertawakan, dan keengganan untuk bertanya. Hanya satu dari lima siswa yang menunjukkan rasa percaya diri yang terlihat, meskipun jawaban yang diberikannya kurang terarah. Guru mengidentifikasi hambatan melalui kegiatan tanya jawab, kerja kelompok, dan presentasi, serta meresponsnya dengan memberikan kesempatan bergiliran, dorongan semangat, dan koreksi yang bersifat mendukung, tetapi sekolah belum memiliki program berkelanjutan yang khusus untuk latihan lisan. Bentuk dukungan orang tua bervariasi, mulai dari latihan terstruktur tentang apa yang akan dikatakan anak hingga percakapan yang berkembang secara informal. Jika ditinjau melalui teori belajar sosial Albert Bandura, perilaku berbicara muncul dari hubungan timbal balik antara faktor personal, perilaku, dan lingkungan, di mana pembelajaran interaktif menyediakan pemodelan (modelling), latihan, serta penguatan (reinforcement) yang menjadi sarana penguasaan keterampilan tersebut.

Keywords: keterampilan berbicara; pembelajaran interaktif; sekolah dasar; teori belajar sosial Bandura; studi kasus

Abstract
Speaking is a foundational competence for elementary school students, yet many children remain reluctant to talk in front of the class. This study describes the speaking skills of fifth-grade students during interactive learning at Nogotirto State Elementary School, Sleman, Yogyakarta, identifies the barriers they encounter, and examines how the teacher and parents support the development of oral competence. A descriptive qualitative approach with a bounded case study design was used. Eleven informants took part: one homeroom teacher, five fifth-grade students, and five parents, all selected purposively. Data were gathered through classroom observation, in-depth interviews, and

documentation, and were verified through source and technique triangulation. Analysis followed the interactive model of Miles, Huberman, and Saldaña. The findings indicate that speaking behaviour appears unevenly and shifts with the situation. Linguistic barriers involve word choice and sentence construction, while non-linguistic barriers centre on shyness, fear of being laughed at, and reluctance to ask questions. Only one of the five students displayed observable confidence, although his answers lacked direction. The teacher identified barriers through questioning, group work, and presentation, and responded with turn-taking opportunities, encouragement, and supportive correction, but the school had no continuing programme devoted to oral practice. Parental support ranged from structured rehearsal of what a child would say to conversation that developed informally. Read through Albert Bandura's social learning theory, speaking behaviour emerges from reciprocal relations among personal, behavioural, and environmental factors, and interactive learning supplies the modelling, practice, and reinforcement through which the skill is acquired.

***Keywords**: speaking skills; interactive learning; elementary school; Bandura's social learning theory; case study*

1. Introduction

Speaking is the most visible of the four language skills in an elementary classroom. Nurkawi (2020) describes communication broadly as the act of conveying a concept, a feeling, or an inner thought to another person through verbal language so that the intention becomes intelligible to that person. Elfrisca et al. (2023) narrow this to speaking skill as the capacity to deliver ideas, concepts, sentiments, and thoughts effectively and in a form others can grasp. For children in the upper grades of elementary school, this capacity carries weight beyond the language lesson, since it shapes their social confidence and their participation in every subject.

Indonesian education policy places the competence within a wider aim. Law Number 20 of 2003 on the National Education System states that education develops the potential of learners so that they become people of faith and good character, and healthy, knowledgeable, capable, creative, independent, democratic, and responsible citizens. Reaching that aim depends on students being able to say what they think. Evidence on literacy-related achievement remains a concern. In the 2022 Programme for International Student Assessment, Indonesian fifteen-year-olds averaged 359 points in reading, 366 in mathematics, and 383 in science, placing reading as the weakest of the three domains and ranking it 71st among the 81 participating systems (OECD, 2023). Reading and speaking are not the same skill, but vocabulary, comprehension of text, and the ability to organise ideas support both.

Several conditions inside the classroom work against oral participation. Rahma et al. (2023) attribute low speaking ability in part to instructional methods that remain traditional. Situmorang et al. (2022) argue the reverse case: regular daily practice improves speaking, whereas hesitation, silence, and fear of error make the skill harder to acquire. Hidayah (2022) records a similar pattern, describing students who lack confidence, hesitate to offer opinions, feel embarrassed to ask when they do not understand a concept, and struggle to retell the substance of a story. The consequences reach past the lesson. Insani (2025) connects limited speaking to social withdrawal, avoidance of others, and reduced willingness to express concern or sympathy.

The home environment matters as well. Handayani et al. (2024) find that consistent and attentive parental support helps children develop independence and self-regulation. Alfira and Siregar (2024) identify parents as the primary source of appropriate vocabulary and of models of good language use, and point to early literacy support, including shared reading and access to books, as important for language development. Aini et al. (2023) characterise

positive parenting through clear and consistent boundaries alongside warm, affectionate interaction, while Latif et al. (2024) associate involved parenting with a child's daily learning.

Interactive learning has been proposed as one response. Adji and Umbase (2024) define interactive instruction as an approach through which teachers build a dynamic environment that engages learners with the teacher, with peers, and with the material. Alodia et al. (2025) report that group discussion allows learners to exchange thoughts and perspectives while developing the capacity to listen and to value what classmates say. Sumiyati (2017) lists the aims of activity-based interactive learning as increasing active participation, strengthening social understanding, encouraging students to investigate concepts they will remember, developing collaboration, and teaching analytical thinking.

Indonesian studies of elementary speaking skills have taken several directions. Larosa and Iskandar (2021) analysed speaking through pantun and found that students communicated main ideas adequately while pronunciation and intonation remained weak. Delvia et al. (2019) used classroom action research and showed that storytelling improved speaking ability. Sukma et al. (2023) described the supporting and inhibiting factors affecting second-grade students' Indonesian speaking. Annisa et al. (2025) tested the effect of interactive learning media on fourth-grade speaking through a pre-experimental design. Elfrisca et al. (2023) assessed fifth-grade speaking in thematic learning across five aspects and placed most students in the adequate category. Said Azmi et al. (2019) described the teacher's function as guide, motivator, facilitator, demonstrator, and evaluator. Lubis and Nasution (2024) measured the effect of role playing on fifth-grade speaking in an Islamic elementary school. Hasria et al. (2021) examined the hiwar method at junior secondary level.

What these studies leave open is a description that holds three vantage points together at once. Most examine either the effect of a method or the perspective of a single group. The present study treats one classroom as a bounded case and draws together what students say about their own difficulty, what the homeroom teacher observes and does, and what parents report about conversation at home, then reads the composite through Albert Bandura's social learning theory. Bandura's framework suits this purpose because it explains behaviour as the product of reciprocal interaction among personal, behavioural, and environmental factors rather than as a fixed trait. Tullah and Amiruddin (2020) note the theory's premise that people are highly adaptable and acquire a wide range of behavioural skills, with the most valuable lessons often arising from unanticipated situations. Mubin et al. (2021) add that Bandura describes individuals as regulating their own thought and conduct to manage events in their lives rather than simply copying others, with their responses tied to self-evaluation.

Three questions guided the study. What barriers do students encounter when speaking during classroom learning? How does the teacher identify and address those barriers? How do parents support the development of their children's speaking?

2. Method

This study used a descriptive qualitative approach with a case study design. The approach was chosen because the aim was to understand speaking skills within learning as it occurred naturally rather than to test relationships between variables. A case study allows a detailed description of a case bounded by place, subject, activity, and time (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The case examined here is the speaking skills of five fifth-grade students at Nogotirto State Elementary School during interactive learning, together with the teacher's role and the support given by parents.

The term portrait is used in the sense of a depiction of a phenomenon in a particular context. Operationally it refers to the forms of speaking that become visible, the barriers students experience, the learning situations that either elicit or inhibit the willingness to speak, and the support provided by the teacher and by parents. Five students were studied not in order to represent elementary students in general but because they displayed a range of speaking experiences and barriers relevant to the focus of the study. Conclusions therefore remain bound to the context of fifth grade at this school.

The research was carried out at Nogotirto State Elementary School in Kapanewon Gamping, Sleman Regency, Special Region of Yogyakarta. The school was established on 1 January 1951 and operates twelve study groups, with 311 students enrolled in the 2025/2026 academic year, comprising 159 boys and 152 girls. Parents' occupations include civil servants, members of the armed forces and police, health workers, and entrepreneurs, and their educational backgrounds range from elementary school to higher education. The site was selected because fifth grade showed a range of speaking abilities and barriers, and because the homeroom teacher used question-and-answer, discussion, group work, and presentation in certain lessons. Preparation and preliminary observation began in June 2025, and intensive observation, interviews, and analysis ran from January to May 2026.

Informants were selected through purposive sampling on the basis of direct involvement in learning and the ability to supply information relevant to the focus of the study. Eleven informants participated: one fifth-grade homeroom teacher as key informant, five fifth-grade students as primary informants, and five parents of those students as supporting informants. To protect the privacy of the child participants, students are identified in this article by the initials S, I, D, Z, and A.

Data were collected through participant observation, in-depth interviews, and documentation. Observation of students covered self-confidence in speaking, participation in group discussion and learning activities, and the capacity to listen and respond. Observation of the teacher covered teaching strategy, interaction with students, and support for the learning environment. Interviews followed guides derived from the indicators of Bandura's theory, addressing personal, behavioural, and environmental dimensions. Documentation supplied the school profile, available learning documents, photographs of activities, and completed observation sheets.

Data validity was established through triangulation. Source triangulation compared information on the same focus from the homeroom teacher, the five students, and the five parents, so that a finding rested on the convergence of accounts from people who knew the phenomenon from different positions. Technique triangulation examined data from the same source through observation, interview, and documentation (Sugiyono, 2022). Where the three techniques pointed in the same direction, a finding was treated as stronger; where they differed, the context, timing, and situation of each datum were traced rather than forced into uniformity. Because observation was conducted during lessons, habits of communication at home and the relationship between parents and the school could not be observed directly, and findings on those two aspects rest on the consistency of accounts across informants.

Analysis followed the interactive model of Miles, Huberman, and Saldaña (2014) through data collection, data reduction, data display, and the drawing and verification of conclusions. Transcripts, field notes, and documentation were coded by theme, including confidence, fluency, asking and answering, participation in discussion, teacher strategy, and communication support at home. Theoretical analysis then proceeded in two stages. The first

used indicators of speaking skill to classify what was visible into linguistic aspects, such as accuracy of pronunciation, intonation, word choice, and coherence of ideas, and non-linguistic aspects, such as composure, direction of gaze, expression, volume, fluency, mastery of the topic, and confidence. The second used Bandura's framework to interpret the process behind those patterns, reading fear of error and comprehension of material as personal factors, answering or remaining silent as behavioural factors, and teacher strategy, peer response, and family communication as environmental factors.

3. Results and Discussion

a. Results

1) Barriers Students Encounter During Classroom Learning

a) Word choice and sentence construction

Linguistic barriers were not confined to pronunciation. Several students knew what they wanted to say but could not convert the idea into connected speech. S described a gap between the sentence formed in her mind and the words that actually emerged, explaining that her brain and her mouth were out of step: the words were arranged neatly in her head but came out in disarray. D reported that he understood neither the language nor how to arrange it, and I said that he had not yet mastered the sentences.

Language use at home added a further layer. S's mother said the family mostly used Indonesian and rarely Javanese. Z's mother explained that he used both Indonesian and Javanese in daily life while his Javanese vocabulary and command of speech levels were still developing. Choosing words therefore involved judging what was appropriate for the interlocutor and the situation, not only what was accurate in meaning.

Observation supported these accounts on the composition of utterances, although the observation sheets did not record pronunciation errors in detail. S was able to answer questions but at one point went blank out of embarrassment, while D showed reasonable confidence yet gave answers that lacked direction. The process of turning an idea into spoken language had not stabilised.

b) Fluency and clarity

Fluency shifted with the situation. Direct conversation with one person was easier, whereas speaking in front of the class produced greater pressure. S linked her hesitancy to the fear of stumbling over her words, and D admitted to feeling somewhat nervous because he was not accustomed to speaking in public. Although observation recorded D as confident, his answers still lacked direction, which indicates that the willingness to speak is not always accompanied by the ability to deliver ideas coherently.

Fluency was also tied to comprehension of the material and of the question. When students had not yet understood a topic, they needed longer to decide what to say, and on some occasions that pause turned into confusion, repetition, or a very short answer. Clarity of speech in this study did not stand alone but was bound up with mastery of content, comprehension of language, and psychological readiness.

c) Confidence and psychological readiness

Confidence was the barrier that appeared most consistently across interviews with students, the teacher, and parents, and in the observation records. S said that if her answer were wrong classmates might jeer, which made her feel embarrassed. I put it more directly, saying he was afraid of being wrong and of being laughed at. Speaking in Javanese, Z said much the same, that he was embarrassed and afraid a mistake would be laughed at. A said he was afraid of being mocked and afraid the teacher would treat his answer as wrong.

The homeroom teacher confirmed that this was not confined to one child. He identified lack of confidence, fear of error, and limited vocabulary as the clearest obstacles, and added that psychological differences between quiet and active children also played a part, with the overall picture falling short of his expectations.

"What is clear is a lack of confidence. Not confident, afraid of being wrong, and for some a limited vocabulary. In essence the children lack confidence, or else they are unable to master the material I deliver." (Interview with the homeroom teacher, 6 May 2026)

Observation gave a matching picture. S could answer when asked but went blank out of embarrassment; I appeared shy and unsure of his answer; Z and A had not shown confidence during the observed sessions. D was the only student recorded as confident, though the direction of his answers still needed improvement. Familiarity with the setting also made a difference: A's mother observed that he could communicate in surroundings he knew but would not speak at all with people he was meeting for the first time.

d) Understanding questions and willingness to ask

Part of the difficulty began before speech, with the question itself. D said that students sometimes did not answer because they had not understood what was asked, and that he did not know how to ask about or explain the part he had missed. I said he was confused by the question. A reported being unable to finish a task because he could not put his question to the teacher, particularly in Javanese lessons.

Willingness to ask is therefore part of speaking skill rather than separate from it. A student who has not understood a question needs re-explanation, an example, and simpler wording; without that help, difficulty with the material can turn into passivity, because the student does not know how to begin. Observation confirmed that readiness to ask after listening had not emerged consistently. The observation sheet recorded S as able to listen while the field notes stated that readiness to ask was not yet evident, and I, D, Z, and A likewise did not show adequate readiness to summarise or pose questions during the sessions observed.

e) Participation, delivery of ideas, and listening

Participation was uneven. Observation recorded I and D as engaged in learning activities, while Z and A did not show adequate participation during the sessions observed. S's participation in group discussion could not be assessed because no group activity took place in that session. Most students

showed that they could respect a classmate's opinion, but their verbal responses remained limited.

The homeroom teacher noticed that speaking responsibility within groups was distributed unevenly, with some students passing the presentation task to others. Students, for their part, saw group activity as helpful: A named group work and shared play as the activities that drew him into speaking. The capacity to listen was not always followed by an active response. S listened but responded little, I offered only brief responses, D rarely responded, and Z listened well but seldom commented on others' opinions. A had not shown adequate listening or responding at the time of observation. Speaking skill therefore needs to be developed alongside turn-taking, responding, and asking questions after listening.

Table 1. Summary of observed speaking behaviour

No.	Student	Self-confidence	Participation	Listening and responding
1	S	Not yet evident; able to answer but went blank out of embarrassment.	Could not be assessed in group discussion during the observed session.	Able to listen, but responses and readiness to ask remained limited.
2	I	Not yet evident; shy and unsure of his answers.	Engaged in learning activities.	Listened, but responded only briefly and was not ready to summarise or ask.
3	D	Reasonably confident, though answers lacked direction.	Engaged in learning activities.	Listened, but rarely responded and was not ready to ask.
4	Z	Not yet evident during observation.	Did not show adequate participation.	Listened well, but seldom responded to others' opinions.
5	A	Not yet evident during observation.	Did not show adequate participation.	Listening, responding, summarising, and asking were not yet evident.

The phrase "not yet evident" in Table 1 does not mean that a student lacks the ability altogether; it means the behaviour had not appeared, or could not be adequately observed, during the sessions concerned. Taken together, the five students show a varied rather than a uniform pattern. The skills that did appear included answering the teacher's questions, asking when material was unclear, offering opinions, taking part in discussion, responding to classmates, and presenting group work. Their appearance was inconsistent. Some students understood a question but answered quietly or in short

sentences, while others held ideas that emerged only after encouragement. Confidence varied with the situation, the interlocutor, command of the material, and how familiar the student was with the setting.

2) The Teacher's Role in Identifying and Addressing Barriers
   a) Identification through interaction and observation

      The teacher identified barriers from how students responded to questions, followed lessons, worked in groups, and delivered presentations. He recognised that each child had a distinct character: some were quiet, some were willing to speak but gave unfocused answers, and some needed encouragement before they could develop a response. In practice he attended not only to whether an answer was right or wrong but also to confidence, vocabulary, comprehension of the material, and the student's psychological state. When a student could not answer spontaneously, he offered prompts or follow-up questions so that the idea already held could come out. Observation of the teacher recorded clear and audible explanation, requests for student answers, and assistance offered when a student appeared embarrassed, with a good teacher-student relationship and encouragement given when speaking proved difficult.

   b) Implementation of interactive learning

      The strategies used included question-and-answer, group work, presentation, and the expression of opinion, with follow-up questions and additional explanation used to extend student answers.

      "First of all, active learning. Essentially group activities, where the children then present and give their opinions. They also have to be asked often, and I try to give explanations, in the sense of exploring vocabulary or sentences that need deeper understanding in the lesson." (Interview with the homeroom teacher, 6 May 2026)

      Students' accounts matched this. D described being asked to compose his own questions, which were then answered together with the teacher, and A named group work and shared play as activities that made learning more comfortable. Interactive forms were therefore in use, though their intensity and their effect differed from student to student. Group learning also had limits. Where responsibility for presenting was not divided clearly, students who were already confident gained more opportunities to speak while hesitant students remained behind their classmates, so the presence of group activity did not by itself guarantee an even distribution of speaking practice.

   c) Reinforcement, correction, and a safe atmosphere

      Students wanted correction that helped rather than correction that deepened the fear of error. Z asked for questions pitched at a level he could reach and for mistakes to be corrected directly by the teacher while he was telling a story. I wanted questions that were more interesting and easier for him and his classmates to understand. S asked that classmates not jeer when someone was speaking, and A suggested that the teacher not be too stern. These suggestions converge on a single need: a classroom atmosphere safe enough to try. Correction remains necessary, but it works better when it follows recognition of the student's effort, uses clear language, and does not

embarrass the student in front of classmates. Observation showed that the teacher did model positive conduct and give encouragement, offering direct help to students who appeared shy or hesitant, so the issue is consistency rather than absence of support.

d) Limited programmes and communication with parents

The teacher reported that the school had no dedicated programme directed continuously at speaking practice. Activities involving spoken language were limited to speech or poetry and were generally read from a text, so opportunities to explore fluent, unscripted speech were scarce. Communication with parents had likewise not addressed speaking development specifically; meetings at the start of the school year conveyed general information and encouraged parents to support their children's study. Most parents' accounts agreed, although the picture requires nuance. One parent had been contacted once or twice following a particular incident, while others received academic or general information. Communication between school and family had therefore taken place, but it was neither routine nor focused on speaking. During the observed sessions the activities that appeared belonged to regular teaching, and no separate activity designed specifically as speaking practice was visible.

3) Parental Roles and Support

a) Habitual conversation in daily life

Support from parents took several forms. S's mother talked with her after the evening prayer, asking how school had gone and responding to what her daughter reported about classmates. D's mother used the journey home to ask about his day and gave him room to recount what had happened at school. A's mother spoke with him before bed or whenever they had time together. Z's mother said there was no special speaking practice at home and that communication simply developed as it came.

These differences do not make one pattern better than another. Each family adapted its support to the time available, the child's character, and the habits of the household, and the common element was conversation that gave the child a chance to report an experience, a need, or an opinion. Student behaviour during observation nevertheless varied, which indicates that fluency at home does not transfer automatically to school.

b) Modelling and rehearsing utterances

The most structured support came from I's mother. When her son had to tell a story, she helped him write down the points he would deliver, gave him an example, and then asked him to say it again in his own version. That sequence helped the child connect an idea, the order of its content, and the spoken sentence. In other families, practice took place through reading textbooks, conversation between family members, or asking the child to communicate directly with someone else. D said that reading his textbook helped him, and A felt supported by the habit of talking with family members. Reading and practice were not always consistent, however. Some children read only when they had homework or faced a test, while others spent more

time on mobile phones or video platforms, so opportunities to acquire vocabulary and sentence patterns at home differed considerably.

c) Courage, independence, and politeness

Parents shaped attitudes towards speaking as well as language itself. S's mother had her greet guests, shake hands, and sit with them, although the child often returned to her room after a short time. I's mother encouraged him to raise his own needs with his teachers so that he would learn independence and responsibility, describing how she asked him to speak for himself when he lost his Qur'an study card rather than intervening on his behalf. For D and A, mood affected communication; D's mother said his willingness to speak was inconsistent and depended on how he felt. Z's mother hoped he would broaden his grasp of vocabulary so that he could judge what was appropriate and place himself properly when speaking. Parental support thus covered three things at once: giving the child a chance to speak, helping the child compose an utterance, and guiding the manner of speech to suit the interlocutor and the situation.

d) Communication and cooperation between parents and school

Most parents said they had never been invited to discuss their child's speaking specifically. S's mother said no such discussion had taken place during fifth grade, and Z's mother reported the same. D's mother offered a slightly different picture, having received information once or twice after a particular incident, though she felt that regular meetings to discuss children's development had become less frequent than in earlier years. Communication between school and family was therefore not absent, but it remained general, incidental, or triggered by an event. Parents hoped for franker and more directed information about their children's strengths and difficulties so that practice at home could match what the teacher found in class. A's mother went further and proposed that the school provide speaking practice in which students are required to speak in front of others.

Taken as a whole, interview and observation data pointed in the same direction on confidence, fluency, willingness to ask, participation, responsiveness, and teacher support. Small differences between data sources arose mainly because a student's ability changed with the situation, the interlocutor, and the type of activity.

b. Discussion

1) Barriers as an Interaction of Person, Behaviour, and Environment

The barriers identified cannot be reduced to language ability. Bandura's account of triadic reciprocal determinism treats behaviour as the outcome of interaction among personal factors, the environment, and behaviour itself. Whether a person performs a behaviour depends not only on the capability held but on prior learning experience, environmental conditions, and belief about the self. In this study the personal dimension appears as low confidence and anxiety, which led students to remain silent even when they knew the correct answer. The behavioural dimension appears in the choice to give short answers, speak quietly, or say nothing at all. The environmental dimension appears in the dominance of

one-way explanation, the prospect of being jeered at by classmates, and the pattern of conversation available at home.

Theory on speaking skill supplies the other half of the picture. Speaking is governed by linguistic elements such as vocabulary and sentence construction and by non-linguistic elements such as courage, fluency, contact with the interlocutor, and confidence. The difficulty students reported cannot be read as academic weakness alone, since it combines the linguistic and the psychological. This is consistent with earlier work indicating that shyness, low confidence, limited opportunity to speak, and a learning environment that does not fully open space for opinion are typical of speaking barriers among elementary students.

2) The Teacher as Model and as Designer of the Environment

Bandura's concept of modelling explains why the teacher's conduct matters so much. Learning proceeds through observation of a model, and it does not always require direct experience; observing another person's behaviour together with its consequences is sufficient (Warini et al., 2023; Lesilolo, 2019). The teacher in this study functioned as a model by demonstrating how to communicate, providing positive reinforcement, and creating an environment safe enough for students to imitate that behaviour. Rotating opportunities to speak, group discussion, encouragement, constructive correction, and recognition of a student's courage supply material for the four sub-processes Bandura describes: something to attend to, something to retain, an occasion to reproduce, and reinforcement that sustains motivation to repeat.

The finding aligns with the concept of interactive learning set out by Adji and Umbase (2024), in which learners engage actively with the teacher, with peers, and with the material. Discussion, questioning, and presentation as applied by this teacher can increase students' willingness to express opinions when they are carried out consistently. The qualifier is not decorative. The observation data showed that group activity by itself did not guarantee an even distribution of speaking practice, since students who were already confident absorbed the available turns. Interactive learning therefore works as a design problem as much as a method: turns need to be allocated deliberately if the students who most need practice are to receive it.

3) The Family as First Learning Environment

Bandura's theory positions the family as the child's first learning environment, since behaviour is acquired by observing and imitating models close at hand. Parents who build positive communication become models for speaking and for the confidence to communicate, while limited opportunity to talk at home leaves the child with correspondingly fewer learning experiences in speech. The findings support Aini et al. (2023), who describe positive parenting through clear boundaries, warm interaction, and affectionate communication, conditions that help a child feel safe enough to express an opinion and that raise confidence in communication.

The data also show that fluency at home does not transfer automatically to the classroom. A child whom parents described as talkative could still go blank in front of classmates, since context, interlocutor, and mood all intervene. What matters, then, is continuity between the two environments rather than the quality

of either taken on its own. Collaboration between teacher and parents becomes the mechanism through which a child receives consistent learning experiences and a wider range of situations in which to practise.

4. Conclusion

Speaking skills among fifth-grade students at Nogotirto State Elementary School become more visible when the teacher runs learning interactively, with room for discussion, question-and-answer, and small-group presentation. Under those conditions students who had previously been passive began to speak, because the interaction felt safer and more supportive. The principal barrier lies not in the students' capacity to think but in the absence of structured and continuing habituation to speaking. A classroom still dominated by one-way explanation accustoms students to listening passively and leaves them without an interaction model to imitate. Differences in willingness to speak also follow patterns of communication at home, with children accustomed to dialogue with their parents showing richer vocabulary and greater confidence in class.

The study carries several limitations. Observation was conducted during particular lesson periods and did not capture the full dynamics of speaking across subjects and learning situations. Students came from varied family backgrounds, and not every family factor could be traced in depth within the time and access available, so the account of home practice rests on interviews without longitudinal follow-up. The study was also confined to fifth grade, which means the findings are contextual rather than generalisable to other year levels, where different teachers and different approaches to interactive learning may produce other patterns.

Two recommendations follow. Teachers should design lessons that deliberately include speaking activity at every meeting, so that students grow accustomed to delivering ideas coherently and with confidence, and so that turns are distributed rather than absorbed by the most willing speakers. Parents should build habits of dialogue at home, read with their children, and enrich vocabulary through active daily communication. Continuity between the two settings gives students the repeated, varied practice that the acquisition of speaking skill requires.

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