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***The Effect of Matching Teaching with Learning Styles
On the Student's Speaking Skill at IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon***



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On the Student's Speaking Skill at IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon

Dengan ini menyatakan bahwa hasil penelitian ini merupakan hasil karya sendiri, benar keasliannya, bukan skripsi, thesis ataupun disertasi dan tidak terkait dengan pihak lain. Apabila ternyata di kemudian hari penelitian ini merupakan hasil plagiat atau penjiplakan atas karya orang lain, maka saya bersedia bertanggung jawab sekaligus menerima sanksi sesuai dengan aturan atau hukum yang berlaku termasuk mengembalikan seluruh dana yang telah diterimanya kepada LP2M IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon.

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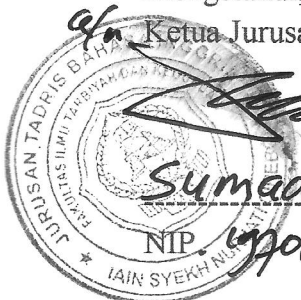
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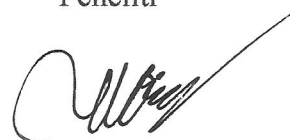
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ABSTRACT

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Key Words: teaching speaking, communicative competence, integrated approach, natural method, free-technique

The ability to speak English in the era of globalization where worldwide social relations intensified is highly demanded. However, oral English proficiency among graduates of high school and tertiary level is commonly low. The purpose of this research was to examine the influence of applying 8 weeks (13 hours) an adaptive teaching with learning styles on the students' speaking ability. This is a quasi-experimental research using *the post-test two experimental groups design*. The study involved 158 students of semester three in the Department of English Language Teaching at IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon. The participants were randomly selected into two experimental groups. The experimental group 1 that consists of Class A and C was treated through Role-Play technique. Whereas the experimental group 2 that consists of Class B and D received Communication Games technique. In the beginning of the study, all participants in the experimental groups filled out questionnaires on learning preferences (Nunan, 1999). At the end of the study, all students in the experimental groups were involved in language performance test, and post-test questionnaire. Independent samples *t*-test, ANOVA, and analytic inductive methods were used for analyzing both qualitative and quantitative data. Studies showed that 45 (41.28%) female and 11 (35.48%) male students in both groups are concrete learner type. It further confirmed that most of (44.1%) the students feel insecure, and 67% feel shy to speak English. After the implementation of an adaptive teaching with learning styles, "Analytical learners" in the experimental group 2 achieved better linguistic knowledge and linguistic skill than Communicative, Concrete and Teacher-Oriented types. However, learning styles do not affect the students' speaking skill as the value of significance is less than 0,05. Moreover, Communication Games helped the learners achieved better speaking skills, especially it can improve students' vocabulary knowledge. Whereas, Role-Play, on the other

hand, boosts students' fluency of all four learner types. But, the use of Role-Play in the experimental Group 1 and Communication Games in the Experimental Group 2 indicates significance value of t-test 0,653 which is less than 0,05 or $0,653 < 0,05$, it means the instructional strategies do not affect the students speaking skills. Thus, null hypothesis is accepted. Findings negate previous studies and confirm that a method might be effective in a case but not in other case (s).

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

This is an introductory chapter in which the researcher begins his presentation with background of the study followed by statement of the problem, research questions, purpose of the study, outcomes of the study, significance of the study, and finally he ends it with a description of terminological definitions.

Speaking English skill in the era of globalization where worldwide social relations intensified (Joseph: 2001) is highly needed. Specifically, because it is the most spoken language either as a mother tongue by 341 million people or spoken as a foreign language by 167 million people (Ramsey: 2004, pp. 1-2), language of science, information and technology (Hasman: 2000, p. 3), and language of education (Zacharias: 2003, p. 18). In other words, it is the world language. Consequently, having a good command of English is considered as a key qualification in most parts of the world. And English fluency becomes pre-requisite for job-seekers' recruitment in big companies around the world. Moreover, speaking ability or an ability to conduct a conversation in the target language is considered the standard of measurement for either success or failure of language learners (Razak: 2009, pp. 1-2). In the words of (Riggenback&Lazaraton, 1991, pp. 125-136 cited in Widiati&Cahyono, 2006, p. 269) saying that the success of ESL/EFL learners is determined by his ability to communicate effectively in the target language. Relevant with this is what has (Penny Ur, 1996, p. 120, cited in Chi, 2011, p. 1) said that of all the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing), speaking seems intuitively the most important: people who know the language are referred to as "speakers" of that language, as if speaking included all other kinds of knowing; and many if not most of foreign language learners are primarily interested in learning to speak.

Similarly, Brown and Yule (1983) believed that many language learners regard speaking skills as the criteria for knowing a language. (Murad: 2009, p. 7). Good language learners are those who speak the target language.

Parallel with this is what Dawson has (1963) pointed out that speaking is considered as basic skill in the context of language learning. It is really basic in the pre-school listening

and speaking. Another reason is that it is used more frequently than written form in every day affairs life.

Goh and Burns (2012: 21) advocate obvious connection between language learners' speaking abilities and their academic learning. Since much formal learning takes place through the spoken language, and, increasingly, through the medium of English, being able to speak (and listen) in the language of instruction will greatly facilitate students' participation in class and the learning of the subject matter. Teachers use talk in academic settings as an important tool for helping learners explore, develop, consolidate, and investigate ideas, as well as evaluate propositions. In large class sizes, students are often asked to work in groups. Some classes also adopt group work as a way of promoting cooperative learning. Discussion, oral presentation also have become popular classroom activities in which learners need to use spoken language for thinking and learning. In such situation, the more learner is able to speak, the more he/she has opportunities to gain better achievement. Recent research with young children revealed the power of talk in developing early writing proficiency.

Responding to the factual necessity to be able to communicate using such a global language, as English, it is found a large percentage of the world's language learners study English in order to develop communicative proficiency in speaking. (Widiati and Cahyono: 2006, p. 269). Zacharias (2003: 55) further stated that the three main reasons of most language learners for studying English were: 'to communicate with people from other countries' (67%), 'to get a better job' (65%) and 'globalization era' (65%).

Supporting the foregoing perspectives, it is evidence that second or foreign language teaching program has been designing its top priority goal to produce graduates who acquire speaking skill (Richard, 1990).

Basically, the focus of teaching speaking in the Indonesian context is to equip students with skill to share and exchange information, ideas, and emotions using oral language (Fisher and Frey: 2007, p. 6) fluently and accurately. The former is considered as meaning-based instruction while the latter is called form-based oriented instruction. (Murdibjono, 1998, cited in Widiati and Cahyono, 2006, p. 279). Fluency oriented or meaning-based instruction is of student-centred teaching approach which aims to train students to be able to speak no matter how incorrect his/her grammatical structures and pronunciation is. In contrast, accuracy oriented or form-based instruction focused on

teaching students to be able to speak accurately; meaning grammatically correct and sound production (pronunciation) as well. It is usually conducted in teacher-centred approach.

Which of the two orientations need to be taken into account first? Scholars are of two views. First, the fluency oriented views small grammatical or pronunciation errors are insignificant, especially in the early learning stages since too much emphasis on correcting them might be more harmful than useful for the learners. Direct and too much correction may cause excessive monitor in the mind, hindering the natural acquisition of spoken skills. Second, accuracy oriented said that speech is considered as successful when the learner can make himself/herself understood and presented in the correct manner ranging from grammar to pronunciation. (Ebsworth, 1998 cited in Nakagawa: 2011, p. 2).

More specifically, the National Education Curriculum (Departemen Pendidikan Naional: 2006, p. 308) revealed that the objective of teaching English as a Foreign Language is to develop oral and written communicative competence to the level of informational literacy among Senior High School students. In this context, Richards stated that the goal of second and foreign language teaching is to educate students to possess communicative competence through the implementation of communicative syllabus and methodology. (Richards, p. 20). Both fluency and accuracy are important goals to pursue in communicative language teaching.

Savignon (1972, p. 9, cited in Nunan: 1999, p. 226) defined communicative competence as “the ability to function in a truly communicative setting-that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adjust itself to the total information input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors”. Moreover, she asserted that communicative competence is not restricted to spoken language, but involves writing as well. According to Richards et al (1985, p. 49, cited in Nunan: 1999, p. 226) communicative competence is characterized by: (a) knowledge of grammar and vocabulary of the language; (b) knowledge of rules of speaking (e.g., knowing how to begin and end conversations, knowing what topics can be talked about in different types of speech events, knowing which address forms should be used with different persons one speaks to and in different situations; (c) knowing how to use and respond to different types of speech acts such as requests, apologies, thanks, and invitations; (d) knowing how to use language appropriately. In other words,

communicative competence includes knowledge of linguistic competence and a range of other sociolinguistic and conversational skills that enable the speaker to know how to say what to whom, when. (Nunan: 1999, p. 226).

In line with communicative competence learning orientation, the researcher is of the opinion that teaching speaking English at the tertiary level needs to be directed to accuracy and fluency orientation.

Unlike the teacher-centered (curriculum-centered) paradigm which emphasizes covering content and meeting standards and success tends to be determined largely by how well students do compared with their peers, the learner-centered approach stresses student growth through experiences incorporating each student's unique need and interests.

The students are involved in some decisions as to how things are learned and how their progress is supposed to be assessed. Students are more likely to experiment, explore, and create. The curriculum becomes more personalized, focused on meeting the needs of the students (Partin: 2009, p. 140).

In the words of Nunan (1988: 2) learner-centred curriculum involves learners' maximum participation to decide what they need, how to learn and likely to be evaluated as well as to maximize their times during their learning. In short, it is the students who are more active than their teachers.

From this perspective, it is assumed that learner-centered class room suits language learning process since it provides choices in learning activities, assessment, and schedules, whenever feasible. Students are also exposed to exercise the target language that helps them attain language skill (s) comfortably.

Studies reported that teaching speaking English in Indonesia has been carried out through meaning-based instructional approach adopting various classroom activities. Some activities were designed to train students to speak for real communication (Rachmayjanti, 1995) and some others were provided merely to give opportunities to the students to practice speaking English through games (Murdibjono, 1998); role-plays (Dana Saputra, 2003; Diani, 2005; Murdibjono, 1998); combination of role-play and dialogue techniques, Diani, 2005); paper presentation (Purjayanti, 2003, Tomasowa, 2000); small group discussion (Murdibjono, 2001); small group discussion through a task called Talking about Something in English (TASE) (Wijayanti, 2005); small group discussion applying talk show model (Karana, 2005); and repeating patterns (Hariyanto,

1997). Similar research had shown that EFL speaking classroom was characterized by five major interaction patterns: teacher-class, teacher-group, teacher-student, student-student, and student-teacher (Kasim, 2004, cited by Widiati and Cahyono, 2006, pp. 280-282).

In spite of the efforts have been made by teachers to enhance students speaking skill through numerous activities provision, studies had shown that oral English proficiency among graduates of high school and university is commonly low. (www.ef.com: 2 October 2012); (EkawahyudanAzisSuganda: 1999, p. 61); (Mattarima and Hamdan: 2011, p. 291); (Widiati and Cahyono: 2006, p. 278). EFL learners in Indonesian schools have less courage to speak English, feel anxious during the speaking class because of the pressure from class activities and tasks which require them to present and speak spontaneously (N.N. Padmadewi: 1998 cited in Mattarima and Hamdan: 2011, p. 289). They were unwilling to exercise the target language acquired in the classroom because they lack self-confidence, lack prior knowledge on the topic, and poor relationship between teacher and students (C. Tutyandari: 2005) cited in (Mattarima and Hamdan, 2011: 289); (Meszaros: 1998).

According to Richards (2012: 3) there are several reasons for poor speaking skills: (a) curriculum lacks emphasis on speaking skills; (b) teachers are poor users of English; (c) classroom activities do not support oral proficiency; (d) lack of English exposure in and outside the classroom; (e) examination system does not emphasize oral skills

As a paradox happens between the practice of teaching speaking English and an ideal goal of teaching second or foreign language (communicative proficiency) matching teaching to learning styles is expected to expose the learners to fluency as well as accuracy in speaking class.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Based on the previous discussion, it is evidence that in the globalization era the demand for speaking skill in foreign language especially English is quite strong. In contrast, Indonesian EFL learners either graduates of high school or university show poor level of communicative competence particularly they had not reached a good level of oral competency.

The practice of teaching speaking English in EFL classroom was characterized by certain activity or activities. However, many of EFL learners have less courage to speak English, and feel anxious. Classroom activities in general and speaking activities in particular merely depend on the teacher's decision making. They neglect students' interest and learning styles differences.

On the other hand, studies had shown the effects of accommodating learning styles differences through providing different instructional activities in various classroom settings. The problem was that research addresses Teaching Speaking at IAIN Cirebon that involves learners' learning styles and different communicative activities to improve the learners' English proficiency was virtually non-existent. Accordingly, this study is intended to further explore whether the application of matching teaching with learning styles and the use of communicative activities (Role-Play and Communication Games) affect the learners' speaking skills or not.

1.3. Research Questions

The following research questions guide this study:

- 1). what learning styles do typically the students engage in English class?
- 2). to what extent is matching teaching with learning styles influential?

1.4. Purpose of the Study

This study was conducted to meet the following purposes:

- 1). to identify students' learning styles in English class.
- 2). to examine the influence of matching teaching with learning styles on the student's speaking performance.

1.5. Significance of the Study

This study is of valuable in the sense that it reveals significant data for teachers, students, researchers, and readers.

1. For the lecturers.

This research results can be used as reference for the teachers to improve their performance in teaching speaking which enables them to motivate the students to use the language.

2. For the students.

The results of this research will cover multiple advantages, namely attitude, improvement, verbal competence, and learning styles data of the students, all of which are useful for them to know their strength and weakness.

3. For the researchers

The results can be used as a base for further research in the area of teaching English in particular using learning styles diversity approach and of other subjects in general since this study is conducted in a limited environment.

4. For the Readers

This study can be used as academic resources in the related field.

1.6. Definition of Terms

The following definitions were either operationally defined or based on published definitions for this study:

Learning is a process of growing cooperation, and a process of a learner's interpersonal relationships. Hence, a teacher is expected to help a student learns (Yiwen: 2009, p. 6). Learning is also defined as the process of internalizing rules which results from either overt teaching or a self-study of linguistic rules (Huda: 1999 p. 8). Learning is affected by external factors including learning styles.

Rita Dunn defined learning style as the following:

A person's learning style is the way that he or she concentrates on, processes, internalizes, and remembers new and difficult academic information or skills. Styles often vary with age, achievement level, culture, global versus analytic processing preference, and gender (Shaughnessy, 1998) cited in Yeh (2004: 6).

According to Kinsella cited in Reid (2002: 170-194), learning style refers to "an individual's natural, habitual, and preferred ways of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills which persist regardless of teaching methods or content area". Learning style can be described as the unique way that people learn. It is relatively consistent pattern of how a person perceives, grasps, and processes knowledge. It is a "biologically and developmentally imposed set of personal characteristics that make the same teaching method effective for some and ineffective for others" (Dunn, Beaudry, & Klaves, 1989, p. 50 cited in Lang & Evans: 2006, p. 62). Gregorc (1979: 234 as cited

in Lang & Evans: 2006, p. 62) defines learning styles as “distinctive behaviours that serve as indicators of how a person learns from and adapts to his environment. It also reflects how his mind operates.

Richards et.al. (1992: 61) define learning style as the particular way which is more frequently used by a student to learn. It is relatively a stable behaviour. Learning style is defined as the way by which a person acquires, retains, and retrieves information (Felder: 1995, p. 21). Reichman&Grasha (1974) learning style is attitudes, habits, and strategies learners will use when they work and how they engage with their peers when they learn. (Putinseva: 2006, p.5). Learning styles are the general orientations to the learning process exhibited by learners. (Nunan: 1999, p. 55). Learning style is preferred ways of learning used more frequently by a person when he/she learns. Instruction is a process of enriching students with theoretical knowledge and with practical skills and abilities. (B. V. Melyayev: 1963, p. 2).

Matching teaching with learning styles is a learner-centred approach to language learning that explicitly explores learner’s learning styles and teacher’s strategies in every day classroom language instruction (Oxford, 2001; Cohen &Dörnyei, 2001).

It is instructional activities that provide the proportion of the tasks to fit different learner types in TEFL class. The proportion of the tasks was adjusted according to the learning style preferences of the students as identified through the questionnaire.

Proficiency refers to performance, or, that is, to measurable behaviour. Speaking proficiency means how well students can use language in communication. It can be also defined as ability to share and exchange information, ideas, and emotions using oral language fluently and accurately both in transactional talk and interactional language. Fluency emphasizes an ability to make him/her understood while conducting a conversation. No matter how incorrect the structure is. Accuracy stresses grammatical correctness and pronunciation. In the present study speaking skill is measured by the student’s score on the speaking test.

Teaching speaking means a process of imparting knowledge and skill through proportionate activities to make students able to interact fluently and accurately using spoken language.

Speaking skill has been defined as an individual ability to convey messages verbally in an appropriate manner that is fluently and accurately.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL GROUNDS

This chapter discusses previous studies on matching teaching with learning styles some theories of learning, learning styles, and strategies for teaching speaking.

2.1. Literature Review

Previous Studies on Matching Teaching with Learning Styles

Studies on learning/teaching styles had been increasing in the last three decades stretching from elementary to higher education that focuses on the effects of matching and mismatching teaching with students' learning styles in ESL, EFL teaching and other subjects.

Claxon and Murrell (1987, as cited in Ho, 1999: 53), states that understanding students' learning style and then teaching them through their learning preferences contribute to more effective learning and significant academic progress. Similarly, Jim Keef wrote: "*Learning style diagnosis... gives the most powerful leverage yet available to educators to analyse, motivate, and assist students in school... it is the foundation of a truly modern approach to education.* (1979: 132 as cited in Dunn, 1984: 10). Like other factors such as age, sex, motivation, intelligence, anxiety, and learning strategies, learning style affects language learning success (Sharp, 2004 : 1).

Optimal learning occurs when students' and teachers' expectation of each other are mutually respected through establishment of agreement between them on what should be done and why. (Kasaian and Ayatollahi, 2010: 131). Parallel with this is what Zhenhui (2001) stated that teachers' knowledge and understanding about his/her students' preferred ways of learning help them create effective teaching. Studies have shown that students can learn more effectively if teachers try to cater to their learning-style preferences (Willing, 1985, 1988, Nunan, 1988, 1996, Richards&Lockhart, 1994). Similarly, Rod Ellis stated that students' learning will be more successful when the

instruction is matched to students' particular aptitude for learning and if they are motivated (2008).

Extensive studies verify both student achievement and motivation improve significantly when learning and teaching styles are matched (Dunn and Dunn, 1979: 242).

Brown (1994) as cited in Zhenhui (2001: 4) advocates matching approaches in teaching to students' learning styles increase students' motivation to learn and enhance their achievement as well class performance. Researchers like (Griggs & Dunn, 1984; Smith & Renzulli, 1984; Charkins et.al., 1985) asserts that teaching and learning styles be matched especially in foreign language instruction (e.g. Oxford et.al, 1991; Wallace & Oxford, 1992) cited in Zhenhui (2001: 1). Kumaravadivelu (1991: 98) cited in Zhenhui (2001: 1) confirms that when there is a less gap between teacher intention and learner interpretation enhances learners' achievement. Other researchers have further reported that students whose learning styles are matched with the teacher's approach to teaching will have greater ease of learning (Packer & Bain, 1978) and higher satisfaction (Renninger & Snyder, 1983) than those whose styles are mismatched (She: 2003: 609).

Researchers like Claxon and Ralston (1978) believe that when an individual is participating in a learning task, the learning is usually accomplished more rapidly and retained longer if it is presented in ways that the individual prefers. Learning is more productive when teachers take learning styles into account (Boylan 1984). A teacher's success will largely depend on understanding such pupil differences and capitalizing on them (Bernard 1972).

The learning of all students including the weak one may be enhanced when students are taught in a way that suits their learning styles. Other researchers asserted that attention to students' learning styles can have a strong effect on achievement (Kolb, 1976, 1984; Gregorc, 1979; McCarthy, 1986; Gardner, 1993; Performance Learning System, 2003; Raab, 2004). Moreover, teachers who have, and use, more teaching strategies and methods produce more students to learning (Orlich, Harder, Callahan,

Kauchak & Henson, 1994). Similarly, the students who are actively engaged in learning will be more likely to succeed. (Lang & Evans: 2006, p. 63).

Ford and Chen (2001) cited in Visser et al (2006: 99) stated that numerous studies reported leaning in matched conditions may, in certain context, be significantly more effective than learning in mismatched condition. According to Liu and Reed (1994) cited by Visser et al (2006: 99) that understanding the variables related to matching learning styles may approve to affect learning achievement significantly. Miller (2001) and Stitt-Gohdes (2003) cited by Brown (2003: 1) support the research findings saying that when students' learning styles (high school students) suit the teachers' instructional preferences, student motivation and achievement usually improve. Primarily, matching of teaching/learning styles is more beneficial to vocational students who are field independent (learners who prefer more autonomy and less personal interaction), whereas mismatching is more suitable for field-dependent students (learners who prefer more guidance and structure) Hayes and Allison (1997) cited in Brown (2003: 1).

Conversely, researchers, like Vaughan and Baker (2001) pointed out that matching may lead to learners' becoming bored; Zhang (2006) opposes that the literature on teacher/student style match/mismatch contains somewhat ambiguous findings, some arguing the benefits of a match; whilst others challenges that the effect of matching is insignificant; Rush and Moore (1991) on the other hand had shown that learning in mismatched conditions helps learners to overcome weaknesses in their cognitive styles, to develop a more integrated approach to their learning.(Visser et al, 2006: 98-99). Hayes and Allison's (1997) finding saying that "exposing learners to learning activities that mismatched with their preferred learning style will help them develop the learning competencies necessary to cope with situations involving a range of different learning requirements (Brown, 2003: 1). Kowoser and Berman (1996) advocate that providing mismatches in teaching and learning styles can also stimulate learning and flexibility in learning. (Visser et al, 2006: 99).

Interestingly, Smith, Sekar and Townsend (2002 as cited in Coffield et al. 2004: 39) stated that the number of researches that support “matching hypothesis” is equivocal with that of contend it. They found nine studies which showed that learning is more effective where there is a match and nine showing it to be more effective where there is a mismatch. Similarly, Reynolds (1997 as cited in Coffield et al. 2004: 39) found five empirical studies in favour of “matching hypothesis” and three against them.

‘Matching hypothesis’ suggests that matching or mismatching students’ learning styles with instructional techniques affects learning significantly (Bedford: 2004) cited by Putinseva (2006: 1). The issue of matching or mismatching arises because of different ideas about the fundamental purposes of education (Gregorc, 2002 as cited in Coffield et al. 2004: 40).

It is not, in fact, realistic for a teacher to always try match learning differences, but he/she can have a repertoire of teaching methods from which to choose that, at least at times, fit individual differences.

It is probably beyond the abilities of most teachers both in terms of time allocation, teaching facilities and to a certain extent due to pedagogical knowledge to design instructional activities that accommodate learning styles’ diversities. However, they can cater to variation in the nature of their students’ learning styles by adopting a flexible teaching approach involving a variety of learning activities. Matching teaching with learning styles does not mean that teacher presents material to the students through their preferred styles, but it means that credit is to be given for their strength (e.g., listening) while they work to overcome their weakness (e.g., reading). If a pupil received positive feedback for his skill in listening, it might increase his desire to explore another avenue of learning. Acknowledging individual differences guides the teacher to evaluate the student more accurately. Moreover, it tells that equal levels of intelligence are not equivalent to equal time intervals being required to complete the course. In other words, the course may be finished in the same time but in different manner (Bernard 1972).

In contrast, when serious mismatch occurs during the teaching process, students tend to be bored and inattentive, do poorly on tests, get discouraged about the course, and finally not good at all subjects. (Oxford et. Al: 1991) cited in Zhenhui (2001: 1). Reid (1987, in Peacock, 2000) further, stated: “Each individual has his own learning-style and learning strengths and weaknesses” and, hence, mismatching teaching styles to learning styles might result in negative effects, such as demotivating students and creating not conducive atmosphere to learning. More studies indicated that individual’s learning style would influence his/her perception of the learning environment, interaction, responsive ability and achievement (Dunn, 1984; Guo, 1987; Hassard, 1992; Herrmann, 1990; Riding & Rayner, 1998 as cited in Tuan et al, 2005). Therefore, students with different learning styles might need different instructional approaches to help and motivate them become competent language learners.

Relevant to this is that, when there is a mismatch between teaching and preferred learning-styles, students can have difficulty in understanding the subject matters (Allwright and Bailey, 1991, in Yu et al. 1996). On the other hand, matching teaching styles to learning styles stimulates students to work harder in and away from the classroom. However, as Felder (1995) warns that the teaching style which learners prefer may not be the best for learning. For Kolb (1984: 203 as cited in Coffield et al. 2004: 40) mismatching is not always bad. It trains students to be creative: to adapt with different situation. Mismatching in fact is favouring certain students and disadvantaging others.

Therefore, to response to teachers’ unawareness about the existing style-war in the classroom, it is suggested to teach around the learning cycle that is to match teaching with learning styles. Teaching around the learning cycle improves a balance of left brain with right brain. This phrase “Teaching around the learning cycle” or the 4MAT system refers to an eight-step instructional sequence created by McCarthy (1990 as cited in Coffield et al. 2004: 41) which seeks to accommodate both preferences for using the two

hemispheres of the brain in learning and what she considers the four main learning styles namely imaginative, analytic, common sense, and dynamic learners.

Matching teaching with learning styles provides an open learning environment with opportunities for students to acquire more language exposure and construct meaningful knowledge. In this way, students tend to learn more successfully, since the instructor nurtures their learning styles.

Previous Studies on the Implementation of Matching Teaching with Learning Styles for Teaching Speaking in Indonesian Context.

Research on matching teaching with students' learning styles in a particular language skill such as speaking in Indonesian context is relatively not accessible so far. Razak, (2009) for example conducted a research on *Developing Students' Speaking Ability in Accordance with their Learning Styles*. She concluded that providing learning activities preferred by each types of learner increased their speaking ability. Moreover, she deliberately stated specific classroom activities to address different types of learners such as picture describing and narrating activities for visual learners, discussion model for auditory learners, and role play method was adopted for enhancing kinaesthetic learners' speaking skill. However, she excluded teachers' teaching styles investigation as to know whether styles war or contradiction exists during learning process especially in speaking class. It is imperative to include teachers' teaching styles survey and analysis since the main basis of applying matching teaching styles with learning styles is when mismatch happens. Similarly, Purnomo (2009) conducted a research on *"Students' Learning Styles and their Efforts to Improve Speaking Skill: A Case Study at an SMA in Bandung."*

Most studies on teaching speaking in the Indonesian schools setting focused on the use of specific method or technique regardless students' learning styles. For examples, *"Communicative Language Teaching Approach in Improving Students' Speaking Ability in EFL"* was conducted by Geno in 2009. *"The Implementation of*

Teachers' Strategies in Motivating Students to Communicate in English: A Case Study at Senior High School in Papua" was carried out by Werimona.

Asniatih, (2009) conducted a research on "Teaching Speaking through Story Telling: A Case Study at ten grader students of MAN Kendari. "The Use of Group Discussion in Speaking Instruction (A Case Study at English Conversation Club in Bandung) was done by Imani in 2010. "The use of Video in Teaching Speaking Skill: A Classroom Action Research at Junior High School in Bandung." studied by Mulyati in 2012.

Similarly, Nurmayasari (2011) made a research on "The Use of Audio Visual Aid in Teaching Speaking Skill at Senior High School in Bandung." It was a classroom action research. Another similar research was also done by Suherman in 2011 entitled: "The Use of Pictures in a Speaking Class at an Elementary School in Bandung." "The Use of Role Play Technique in Improving Students' Ability in Speaking English: an Experimental Research at SMK (Vocational School) in Bandung was conducted by. Girsany in 2011. Meanwhile, Putra (2011) conducted a research on "The Implementation of English Club Program in Teaching Speaking: A Case Study at SMA in Bandung." "Audio Lingual Method as an Alternative Method in Teaching Speaking" which was a classroom action research at SMPN 2 Pemalang done by Anggraeni in 2006.

Previous Studies on Learning Styles among Indonesian Students

On the other hand, research on learning styles among Indonesian EFL learners is also quite limited. For instance: Basthomi (2002) conducted a research on Styles and Strategies of a Vietnamese and an Indonesian Student in Learning English at Curtin University, Australia in 2002. Another researcher, Husain (2000) employed quasi-experimental research about Learning and Personality Styles among the Students of English Department at Universitas Negeri Makassar, Ujung Pandang. Similarly, a research on Learning Style Profile among the Students of SMAN 7 Padang in 2007 was

undertaken by Ardi. Joy M. Reid also conducted a research on the Learning Style Preferences of ESL students in 1987. Among the respondents were Indonesian students studying in the US.

However, those studies did not explicitly investigate teaching speaking in accordance with the students' proportionate preferred activities, and what will be going on in the classroom where teaching activities serve a particular group of student only, whereas the others were not addressed appropriately. Majority of the research was conducted employing qualitative methods except that of Razak's and Husain's who employed quasi-experimental methods.

Considering the factors that have been discussed earlier, they are the positive effects of applying matching teaching with learning styles, the increase number of researches on learning styles, and the situation of speaking skills among the Indonesian students in general, and among the students of IAIN Cirebon, in particular, it is a high time to conduct a similar research on this matter as to either support or negate the previous findings and/or theories. This research is slightly different from those of the previous ones in which most of them were not conducted through true experiment method.

Studies on Role-Play as a teaching strategy

Role-Play is a teaching strategy that fits within the social family of models (Joyce and Weil, 2000: 59). The educational use of Role-Play has been increasing more and more worldwide, especially during the 1970s and 1980s, and is now getting more place in university curricula, business, and industrial training program. It offers several advantages for both teacher and student. First, it raises student interest to learning. Second, it enhances student participation in learning process. Third, it develops sense of tolerance: empathy and understanding (Jarvis et.al, 2002: 1).

In the context of language teaching, Role-Play is an effective technique to enliven the teaching and learning atmosphere, arouse the interest of learners, and make

the language acquisition impressive. Role-Play is very important in teaching English because it provides students opportunity to expose the target language in various social roles and contexts (Freeman, 2000: 134). In addition, it also gives students opportunity to develop creativity as they play another person's role for a while. Stephen D. Hattings cited in Dorathy and Mahalakshmi (2011: 2) says the Role-Play would seem to be the ideal activity in language classroom that offers students to practice communication in the target language and hence develop their speaking skill. The use of Role-Play challenges learners to show instantaneously socio-pragmatic and pragma-linguistic knowledge in interaction. Role-Play, as Harmer (2001: 275) advocates is fun and motivating. It provides a much wider range of language opportunities for quieter students to express themselves. Moreover, it has been practiced for years by researchers in conversation classes.

Numerous researches show the positive effects of Role-Play method on enhancing the speaking skills of the learners. Among them are as follows: "Effectiveness of role play in enhancing the speaking skills of the learners in a large classroom: An investigation of tertiary level students" at Stamford University Bangladesh conducted by Priscilla Islam and Tazria Islam in 2012. "The Impact of 'Role Play' on Fostering EFL Learners' Speaking Ability: A Task-Based Approach" by Mohammad Aliakbari and Behroz Jamalvandi. The research involved the students from different universities in the city of Ilam-Iran. "The Effect Using Role-Play on Iranian EFL Learners' Speaking Ability" by Ramin Rahimy and Samaneh Safarpour. The research investigated 60 intermediate language learners in Shokouh Language Institute in Bandar Azali, Iran. Another research was conducted by Nguyen Thi Thuy Nga on "The Use of role-play activities in improving speaking skills of first-year chemistry-majors at Hanoi University of Industry". Sameera Ahmed Al-Senaidi conducted a research on "Using Role-Play to Promote Oral Fluency". The research investigated three Grade 4 Learners. Feng Liu and Yun Ding examined the use of "Role-

play in English Language Teaching” among 30 Chinese freshmen learning English as a Foreign Language.

Studies on Communication Games as a teaching strategy

Games as a teaching strategy has got special attention from both researchers and practitioners in recent years to foster students to “use the language”.

Advocates of the usage of games in language teaching confirm games are fun, challenging, and motivating. They provide opportunities for the learners to experiment, discover, and interact with their environment. Encourage shy students to take part in classroom activities. Minimize the stress during learning as they learn a language naturally, that is, as they learn their mother tongue (Mei and Yu-jung, 2014: 1).

Games help students to make and sustain the effort of learning, provide language practice in the various skills – speaking, writing, listening and reading and create a meaningful context for language use (Kim, 1995: 1). Games also may lower affective filter, encourage creative and spontaneous use of language, promote communicative competence, foster whole class participation, and support healthy competition (Lengeling and Malarcher, 2014: 5). Games can lower anxiety, create conducive atmosphere to learning. They are good way of practicing language, and thus promote fluency (Uberman, 1998: 2-3-), (I-Jung, 2005: 2-3).

A number of studies reveal the effect of the usage of games on the students’ English proficiency. Among them are as follows: Jian Wang et.al investigated the impact of games in teaching English. In their study, they included 50 grade-six EFL students from one elementary school in Taiwan. The results of the research show significant improvements on the students’ motivation, vocabulary acquisition and reduce anxiety levels. Moreover, the study reveals pedagogical application of games enhance the learners’ English performance and attitudes towards learning (Jian Wang et.al. 2011: 1).

On the other hand, Mania Moayad Mubalsat conducted a research on “The Effect of Using Educational Games on the Students’ Achievement in English Language Proficiency for the Primary Stage”. The research findings confirm that games have a good impact on improving the learners’ achievement and create an interactive environment. The study further states, that the use of games in teaching English has increased the students’ attention and motivation. Games also create conducive environment that stimulate students to learn (2011: 11-12). Another research on the use of games in teaching English was conducted by Windiahsari in 2009 among the students of Faculty of Law at Universitas Negeri Semarang.

2.2. Theoretical Ground

2.2.1. Learning

Learning does not belong exclusively to the domain of an education system. Learning begins a very long time before school; continues for even longer after school; and happens rapidly, and in parallel with school, in a great number of different ways and settings. From the Islamic perspective, learning starts as soon as human life exists in the womb.

Learning is mental activity undertaken by any individual to acquire knowledge, concepts, skills and attitude. Moreover, learner is the main actor for changes to take place in the part of the learner. It is an active process of creating behavioural changes.

Pritchard (2009: 2) has been defining learning as follows:

A change in behaviour as a result of experience or practice. The acquisition of knowledge.
Knowledge gained through study.

To gain knowledge of, or skill in, something through study, teaching, instruction or experience.

The process of gaining knowledge.

A process by which behaviour is changed, shaped or controlled.

The individual process of constructing understanding based on experience from a wide range of sources.

Two major theories of learning include behaviourism and constructivism. Behaviourism is a theory of learning focusing on observable behaviours and discounting any mental activity. Learning is defined simply as the acquisition of new behaviour.

Behaviourism

Behaviourism theory of learning is associated with such prominent psychologists as Pavlov who developed the theory of 'classical conditioning' through the study of dogs. From his perspective, learning begins with a stimulus-response connection. In this theory, a certain stimulus leads to a particular response. Another psychologist is Thorndike who introduced a theory of learning called 'connectionism'. Thorndike emphasised the role of experience in the strengthening and weakening of stimulus-response connections: 'Responses to a situation that are followed by satisfaction are strengthened; responses that are followed by discomfort weakened.' Thorndike proposed that practice also influences stimulus- response connections. His idea that rewards promote learning continues to be a key element of behaviourist theory.

Watson advocates the behaviourism theory. He invented the law of frequency that stressed the importance of repetition: 'The more frequent a stimulus and response occur in association with each other, the stronger that habit will become.' He also devised the law of decency: 'The response that has most recently occurred after a particular stimulus is the response most likely to be associated with that stimulus.' Edwin Guthrie put forward a theory of what he called 'contiguity': 'A stimulus that is

followed by a particular response will, upon its recurrence, tend to be followed by the same response again.

Skinner is probably the best known psychologist in the behaviourist tradition.

He identified the theory of operant conditioning. His most fundamental principle is his law of conditioning: A response followed by a reinforcing stimulus is strengthened and therefore more likely to occur again. A second principle was his law of extinction: 'A response that is not followed by a reinforcing stimulus is weakened and therefore less likely to occur again (Pritchard, 2009: 14-15).

Behaviourists believe that knowledge is developed through sensory impressions. Learners, therefore, build knowledge through every day experiences in a type of trial and error approach to knowledge-building (Jati, 2011: 19). Behaviourists see learning as a relatively permanent, observable change in behaviour as a result of experience. This change is effected through a process of reward and reinforcement but has little regard, initially, for mental process or understanding.

Learning, according to behaviourism theory is a process of establishing a new behaviour than can be attained through stimulus to create a response. The response then needs reinforcement, repetition to form a habit. For that purpose employing reward and punishment approach might be taken into consideration.

Considerations for the use of rewards:

Giving rewards to children in learning carry both positive and negative effects.

Positive effects:

1. Create sense of self-confidence. The rewards should be valuable for the children.

2. Keep intrinsic motivation remains high. The rewards are given unexpectedly.
3. Keep extrinsic motivation. Give to every-one a reward for his best efforts he made.
4. Maintain high self-esteem especially with the less and lower attaining students. Do not give a reward only to the best child
5. Invigorate or add fun to an activity.

Negative effects:

1. Using extrinsic rewards may lead to problem.
2. Rewards can belittle or demean a learning experience.
3. Rewards can engender feelings of unfairness or competition.
4. Rewards can detract from the real issue involved in completing tasks.
5. Rewards do not always to higher quality work.
6. Rewards may isolate children who feel they have little chance of getting a reward. (Pritchard, 2009: 10).

Constructivism

Constructivists view learning as the result of mental construction. That is, learning takes place when new information is built into and added onto an individual's current structure of knowledge, understanding and skills. We learn best when we actively construct our own understanding.

Jean Piaget is considered to be one of the most influential early proponents of a constructivist approach to understanding learning. He is, furthermore one of the best known psychologists in the field of child development and learning. Learning is a process of constructing and understanding knowledge, concepts, skills, and attitude. We learn factual information; we learn to understand new ideas; we learn skills, both mental and physical; and we learn about, and develop, new attitudes to our environment.

Social constructivism

Constructivist theory of learning views child development as a lone scientist. This implies an image of a child alone, exploring the immediate environment, and concluding the nature and the structure of the world. Amidst the development of this theory, social constructivism grows and adds dimension to the constructivist domain.

The main proponents of social constructivism are Lev Vygotsky, a Russian psychologist. Social constructivism theory of learning emphasizes interaction between the learner and others. Others may be in different forms as more knowledgeable person like parents, teachers, or peers. More knowledgeable peoples neither imply older nor in a position of responsibility for learning. From this perspective, learning is a process of social interaction. Learning will take place in very different environment. Moreover, the success of learning lay very much on the hand of individual learner.

Social constructivism gives a high priority to language in the process of intellectual development. Dialogue becomes vehicle to share and develop knowledge. The dialogue is often with a more knowledgeable people. Nevertheless, dialogue with peers can be of equal value. And an individual's prior and current knowledge form the basis of any contribution to dialogue. It is the existing knowledge and understanding (schema) that new ideas and understanding can be constructed in the course of dialogue. According to cognitive psychologists, schema refers to units of knowledge, understanding and skill as a way of referring to conceptual knowledge which is stored in long term memory. New schemas are regularly created and existing schemas are constantly updated. This creating and updating takes place every time through reading, listening to, observing, trying out or sensing anything new.

In formal learning, the role of the more knowledgeable is usually taken by a teacher. The teacher has the role of stimulating dialogue and maintaining its momentum. He engages groups and individuals in dialogue and supports the development of

understanding. The undertaking of this role in a planned way is known as “scaffolding”. To understand the concept scaffolding, it is necessary first to understand Vygotsky’s work called a zone of proximal development (ZPD).

The ZPD is the area of understanding into which a learner will move next. It is a point at which a child has mastered a skill but can act more effectively with the assistance of a more skilled adult or peer. The ZPD theorizes a learner is able to work effectively, but only with support. Passing through the zone of proximal development is a process which can be aided by the intervention of another. In this context, a teacher can implement his role. More specifically, the teacher needs to take into account the current state of the understanding of the children in question, and plan accordingly and appropriately. The zone is significantly different for each individual child. Planning a lesson needs the basis of current existing data of the students’ schema.

Scaffolding is the process of giving support to learners at the appropriate time and at the appropriate level of knowledge to meet the needs of the individual. Scaffolding can be in the forms of discussion, helping students solve simple problem, provision of materials, designing tasks which match and give help appropriate to the individual, collaborative learning (in pairs or small groups) (Pritchard, 2009: 18-25).

Wray and Lewis (1997) classify four fundamental aspects of constructivist learning theory:

- Learning is a process of interaction between what is known and what is to be learnt.
- Learning is a social process.
- Learning is a situated process.
- Learning is a metacognitive process.

From these four aspects they formulate four principles for teaching:

- Learners need enough previous knowledge and understanding to enable them to learn new things; they need help making links with new and previous knowledge explicit.
- Provision should be made for social interaction and discussion in groups of varying sizes, both with and without the teacher.
- Meaningful contexts for learning are very important; it must be remembered that what is meaningful for a teacher is not necessarily meaningful for the child.
- Children's awareness of their own thought processes should be promoted.

The foregoing discussion reveals very important element of learning; that is, mental activity. Mental activity should be at the centre of our teaching methods and can be encouraged in a variety of ways. Learning seems to proceed well if the points above are in place *and* if there is mental activity on the part of the learner.

From constructivist point view, learning is not a passive process. For learning to result, the following conditions are required known as the five-stage model:

- Engagement
- Exploration
- Transformation
- Presentation
- Reflection

Engagement is described as 'the time during which students acquire information and engage in an experience that provides the basis for, or content of, their

ensuing learning' (Reid *et al.* 1989). *Exploration* refers to the stage where children follow their instincts, and teachers set learning tasks to develop both engagement and exploration. These tasks are designed to give the child an overview of what is contained in the information under consideration and may take many forms.

Transformation means the stage where the child reconfigures information that he has engaged and explored into a form for possible presentation.

Presentation is the stage where the child presents the result of the transformed information in which from the teacher's point of view shows whether learning objective has been achieved. And from the learner's point of view, presentation is represented by his ability to answer the question.

Reflection is time to reflect upon what has been undertaken, the process and the content give the opportunity for internalization, and for a deeper level of understanding to be developed. *Reflection* can also take many forms. One common approach is to ask children to give a short presentation/explanation of what they have been doing and what they have learnt.

The following discussion is essential features of constructivism.

Constructivist learning theory is built around a set of important features which can be summed up as follows (after Jonassen *et al.* 1999):

- The construction of knowledge and not the reproduction of knowledge is very essential.

It is the processes that the learner puts into place and uses that are important, rather than the fact of knowing something as an end product. A learner is actively engaged with, and in control of, the learning process.

- Learning can lead to multiple representations of reality.

When learning involves the use of a variety of resources (e.g. first-hand experience, secondary sources, interactive materials, independent research, dialogue), alternative viewpoints of the subject in question are formed; this in turn can be used to foster the skills of critical thinking.

- Authentic tasks in a meaningful context are encouraged.

Authentic tasks, such as problem-solving, are used to situate learning in familiar and realistic contexts.

- Reflection on prior experience is encouraged.

Learners are prompted to relate new knowledge and concepts to pre-existing knowledge and experience, which allows the 'new' to integrate with what is known already and in this way adding to a learner's framework of understanding (schema) or amending it.

- Collaborative work for learning is encouraged.

Dialogue with others allows additional and alternative perspectives to be taken into account when developing personal conclusions. Different knowledge, points of view, and understanding can be given and considered before moving on.

- Autonomy in learning is encouraged.

Learners are given, and accept, increasing amounts of responsibility for their own learning. This happens in a number of different ways: by collaborating with others, by working on self-generated problems and by the formulating of, and testing of, hypotheses, for example.

The chart below shows the differences and similarities between the work of Piaget and Vygotsky.

Both Piaget and Vygotsky were constructivists. They believed that individuals

actively construct their own knowledge and understanding. Vygotsky stressed the importance of the social interaction in which an individual participates. Piaget emphasized the inner motivation to balance new information with existing knowledge and understanding.

No.	Piaget	Vygotsky
1	Cognitive Constructivism	Social Constructivism
2	Children learn through being active.	Children learn through being active.
3	Children operate as 'lone scientists'.	Learning is a socially mediated activity.
4	If a child is shown how to do something rather than being encouraged to discover it for themselves, understanding may actually be inhibited.	Emphasis placed on the role of the teacher or 'more knowledgeable other' as a 'scaffolder'.
5	The teacher is the provider of 'artefacts' needed for the child to work with and learn from	The teacher is a facilitator who provides the challenges that the child needs for achieving more.
6	Cognitive growth has a biological, age related, developmental basis.	Development is fostered by collaboration (in the Zone of Proximal Development), and not strictly age related.
7	Children are unable to extend their cognitive capabilities beyond their stage of development.	Development is an internalisation of social experience; children can be taught concepts that are just beyond their level of development with appropriate support.

8	There is no point in teaching a concept that is beyond their current stage of development.	‘What the child can do with an adult today, they can do alone tomorrow.’
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Wray and Lewis (1997) single out four pivotal aspects of learning. They are:

- Learning is a process of interaction between what is known and what is to be learnt.
- Learning is a social process.
- Learning is situated.
- Learning is a metacognitive process.

In addition that:

- Learning can sometimes proceed in a rote fashion, with less understanding involved initially.
- Learning depends on an individual's preferred learning style.
- Learning depends on certain conditions concerning the brain.
(Pritchard, 2009: 28-32, 117).

2.2.2. Learning styles

Coffield et al. (2004: 70) stated that Betts developed Betts Inventory in 1909 to measure imagery type of leaning style. Furthermore, it was probably Witkin and his colleagues in the 1940s who started all this off (Witkin 1950; Witkin et al. 1954 as cited in Smith and Dalton 2005: 7). They developed a theory of perception called field dependence/independence. Field dependent people were not easily able to see a figure that was embedded in a background display, while field independent people found easily to see it because they were not confused by what surrounded it.

In the earlier days the term “cognitive style” was used rather than learning style (Swanson, 1995 as cited in Tuan, 2012: 2). Cognitive style has been defined in different ways, as:

- a certain approach to problem-solving, based on intellectual schemes of thought;
- individual characteristics of cognitive processing which are peculiar to a particular individual;
- a person’s typical approach to learning activities and problem-solving;
- strategies, or regular mental behaviours, habitually applied by an individual to problem- solving.

Another related term is learning preferences that refer to an individual’s preferred intellectual approach to learning, which has an important bearing on how learning proceeds for each individual, especially when considered in conjunction with what teachers expect from learners in the classroom. It has been used to refer to the environmental, emotional, sociological and physical conditions that an individual learner would choose, if they were in a position to make a choice (Dunn *et al.* 1989). (Pritchard, 2009: 42).

Witkin and his colleagues later extended the idea to learning styles, saying that some people are able to analyze and learn things in isolation from other surrounding issues, while others needed to learn on a more holistic basis which included the surrounding matters as well. Specifically, according to Kirby (1979 as cited in Tuan, 2012: 2) the term “learning style” came into use when researchers began looking for ways to combine course presentation and materials to match the needs of each learner.

Since then the term learning style has been defined in different ways by many researchers depending on their perspective.

Rita Dunn defined learning style as the following:

A person's learning style is the way that he or she concentrates on, processes, internalizes, and remembers new and difficult academic information or skills. Styles often vary with age, achievement level, culture, global versus analytic processing preference, and gender (Shaughnessy, 1998) cited in Yeh (2004: 6).

Furthermore, Dunn and Dunn suggest elements that affect learners when they are learning. Those factors include:

- 1). Immediate environment (sound, light, temperature, and design);
- 2). Own emotionality (motivation, persistence, responsibility, and need for structure or flexibility);
- 3). Sociological needs (self, pairs, peers, team, adult, or varied);
- 4). Physical needs (perceptual, strengths, intake, time and mobility). (Dunn and Dunn, 1978: 4).

According to Kinsella cited in Reid (2002: 170-194), learning style refers to “an individual's natural, habitual, and preferred ways of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills which persist regardless of teaching methods or content area”.

Learning style can be described as the unique way that people learn. It is relatively consistent pattern of how a person perceives, grasps, and processes knowledge. It is a “biologically and developmentally imposed set of personal characteristics that make the same teaching method effective for some and ineffective for others” (Dunn, Beaudry, & Klaves, 1989, p. 50 cited in Lang & Evans: 2006, p. 62).

Gregorc (1979: 234 as cited in Lang & Evans: 2006, p. 62) defines learning styles as “distinctive behaviours that serve as indicators of how a person learns from and adapts to his environment. It also reflects how his mind operates.

Richards et.al. (1992: 61) define learning style as the particular way which is more frequently used by a student to learn. It is relatively a stable behaviour. However, Berry (1981: 42) suggests that an individual’s characteristic may change according to circumstances and in response to specific training (Douglas Andrew Town, *Cognitive style and learning strategies*, <http://www.monografias.com/trabajos16/learning-styles/lerning-styles.shtml>. 19 January 2006.

Learning style is defined as the way by which a person acquires, retains, and retrieves information (Felder: 1995, p. 21). Reichman & Grasha (1974) learning style is attitudes, habits, and strategies learners will use when they work and how they engage with their peers when they learn. (Putinseva: 2006, p.5).

Learning styles are the general orientations to the learning process exhibited by learners. (Nunan: 1999, p. 55).

Learning style means:

- a particular way in which an individual learns;
- a mode of learning – an individual’s preferred or best manner(s) in which to think, process information and demonstrate learning;
- an individual preferred means of acquiring knowledge and skills; habits, strategies, or regular mental behaviours concerning learning, particularly deliberate educational learning, that an individual displays. (Pritchard, 2009: 42).

In short, a learning style is a preferred way of learning and studying; for example, using pictures instead of text; working in groups as opposed to working alone; or

learning in a structured rather than an unstructured manner. It is preferred ways of learning used more frequently by a person when he/she learns.

Each individual will adopt an approach to learning which is most comfortable for and leave those are not. Being aware of own preferred ways of learning help learners to:

- use an appropriate learning style to suit the particular learning that is being undertaken,
- and take opportunities to improve their potential for learning when faced with a learning activity that might steer them towards one of their weaker-or at least one of their less favoured-style (Pritchard, 2009: 43).

Generally speaking, they agreed to a certain degree upon the approaches to the study of learning style: psychological, cognitive and social/interactive (Lang et al., 1999 as cited in Uzun, 2012: 123). Similarly, Conner (2004 as cited in Putinseva, 2006: 1) stated that the study on learning style models falls into general categories for example information processing, personality pattern, and social interaction. Furthermore, Mitchell (1994 as cited in Coffield et.al. 2004: 56) claimed that there were over 100 learning style models.

Researchers of learning style have been classifying learning style differently. For example:

1). Cognitive style model

Witkin, Gooddenough, and Otman (1979) cited in Douglas Andrew Town, *Cognitive style and learning strategies*, characterize an individual as who relies on the

external environment as a given, in contrast to who works on it. Moreover, Willing (1988: 41-42) state those who tend to accept or rely upon the external environment are relatively more Field Dependent (FD), while those who tend to work on it are relatively more Field Independent (FI).

Willing goes on to contrast the two poles of Field Dependent (Concrete) and Field Independent (Analytical) from different dimensions.

Information processing

No.	Field Dependent (Concrete) Attributes	Field Independent (Analytical) Attributes
1	Experiences item as fused with context; what is interesting is the impression of the whole	Finds item easy to detach an experienced (perceived) item from its given background
2	Item is experienced and comprehended as part of an overall associational unity with concrete and personal interconnections; (item's storage in, and retrieval from, memory is via these often affectively-charged associations)	The item is extractable because it is having a rudimentary meaning on its own; thus it can be moved out of its presented surroundings and into a comprehensive category system For understanding (and "filling" in memory
3	Tendency to show traits of extraversion (person's mental processing is activated by relatively higher-intensity stimulus; therefore likes rich, varied input	Tendency to show traits of introversion (the person's mental processing can be strongly activated by low-intensity stimulus; hence dislikes excessive input)

4	Tendency to be “impulsive” in thinking tasks; “plays hunches”	Tendency to be “reflective” and cautious in thinking task
5	Any creativity or unconventionality would derive from individual’s imaginativeness or “lateral thinking”	Any creativity or unconventionality would derive from individual’s development of criteria on a rational basis

Learning strengths

No.	Field Dependent (Concrete) Attributes	Field Independent (Analytical) Attributes
1	Performs best on tasks calling for intuitive “feel” for language (e.g. expression; richness of lexical connotation; discourse; rhythm and intonation)	Performs best on analytical language tasks (e.g. understanding and using correct syntactical structures; semantically ordered comprehension of words; phonetic articulation)
2	Prefers material which has a human, social content; or which has fantasy or humor; personal; musical, artistic	Favors material tending toward the abstract and impersonal; factual or analytical; useful; ideas
3	Has affinity for methods in which various features are managed simultaneously; realistically; in significant context	Has affinity for methods which are: focused; systematic; sequential; cumulative
4	Less likely to direct own learning; may function well in quasi-autonomy (e.g. guided discovery); but may well express preferences for a formal, teacher dominated learning	Likely to set own learning goals and direct own learning; (but may well chose or prefer to use----for own purpose----an authoritative text or passive lecture situation

	arrangement, as a compensation for own perceived deficiency in ability to structure	
5	Right hemisphere strengths	Left hemisphere strengths

Human relations

No.	Field Dependent (Concrete) Attributes	Field Independent (Analytical) Attributes
1	Tendency to experience and relate not as a completely differentiated "self but rather as to a degree---- fused with group and with environment	Greater tendency to experience self as a separate entity; with, also a great deal of internal differentiation and complexity
2	Greater tendency to defer to social group for identity and role definition	Personal identity and social role to a large extent self-defined
3	More other-oriented (e.g. looking at and scrutinizing other faces; usually very aware of other feelings in an interaction; sensitive to cues	More tendency to be occupied with own thoughts and responses; relatively unaware of the subtle emotional content in interpersonal interactions
4	Greater desire to be with people	Relatively less need to be with others
5	Learning performance much improved if group or authority figure give praise	Self-esteem not ultimately dependent upon the opinion of others

2). The Honey-Mumford Model

Honey-Mumford Model described four learning styles as:

- Activists
- Reflectors
- Theorists
- Pragmatists

Activists prefer to learn by doing rather than, for example, by reading or listening. They thrive on trying anything that has not been experiencing and interesting. They like to immerse themselves in a wide range of experiences and activities and like to work in groups so that ideas can be shared and ideas tested. They like to get on with things, so they are not interested in planning. Activists are bored by repetition, and are most often open-minded and enthusiastic.

Reflectors stand back and observe. They like to collect as much information as possible before making any decisions; they are always keen to 'look before they leap'. They prefer to look at the big picture, including previous experiences and the perspectives of others. The strength of reflectors is their painstaking data collection and its subsequent analysis, which will take place before any conclusion is reached. Reflectors are slow to make up their minds, but when they do, their decisions are based on sound consideration of both their own knowledge and opinions, and on what they have taken in when watching and listening to the thoughts and ideas of others.

Theorists like to adapt and integrate all of their observations into frameworks, so that they are able to see how one observation is related to other observations. Theorists work towards adding new learning into existing frameworks by questioning and assessing the possible ways that new information might fit into

their existing frameworks of understanding. They have tidy and well-organized minds. They sometimes cannot relax until they get to the bottom of the situation in question and are able to explain their observations in basic terms. Theorists are uncomfortable with anything subjective or ambiguous. Theorists are usually sound in their approach to problem-solving, taking a logical, one-step-at-a-time approach.

Pragmatists are keen to seek out and make use of new ideas. Pragmatists look for the practical implications of any new ideas or theories before making a judgment on their value. They will take the view that if something works, all is well and good, but if it does not work, there is little point in spending time on the analysis of its failure. A strength of pragmatists is that they are confident in their use of new ideas and will incorporate them into their thinking. Pragmatists are most at home in problem-solving situations.

3). Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) Research

Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) describes learning styles as follows:

Visual learners

Visual learners prefer to learn by seeing. They have good visual recall and prefer information to be presented visually, in the form of diagrams, graphs, maps, posters and displays, for example. They often use hand movements when describing or recalling events or objects and have a tendency to look upwards when thinking or recalling information.

Auditory learners

Auditory learners prefer to learn by listening. They have good auditory memory

and benefit from discussion, lectures, interviewing, hearing stories and audio tapes, for example. They like sequence, repetition and summary, and when recalling memories tend to tilt their head and use level eye movements.

Kinaesthetic learners

Kinaesthetic learners prefer to learn by doing. They are good at recalling events and associate feelings or physical experiences with memory. They enjoy physical activity, field trips, manipulating objects and other practical, first-hand experience. They often find it difficult to keep still and need regular breaks in classroom activities.

4). The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

The MBTI describes four personality types which can be interpreted as some sort of the other learning style descriptions.

The Myers-Briggs Model classifies individuals according to their preferences on scales derived from the theories of psychological types developed by Carl Jung. According to the model, learners may be: *extroverts, introverts, sensors, intuitors, thinkers, feelers, judgers, perceivers*.

The following attributes and strengths relate to each of the different types mentioned above.

Extrovert learners

Attribute

Extrovert learners like to:

- Talk to understand new information and ideas;
- Work in groups;
- Try something first and think about it later;

- See the results from a project;
- See examples of how other people are doing the work;

Strengths

Extroverts learn best when they can work with a friend and learn by trying something themselves instead of watching or listening to others. When they have difficulty with understanding, they benefit by talking about their ideas with others.

Introvert learners

Attributes

Introvert learners like to:

- Study alone;
- Listen to others talk and think about information privately;
- Think about something first and try it later;
- Listen, observe, write, and read;
- Take time to complete assignments.

Strengths

Introverts learn best when they can find quiet places to work and have enough time to reflect on, redraft and improve their work. Introverts often like to make connections between school work and their personal interests.

Sensing learners

Attributes

Sensing learners:

- like clear goals;

- are careful and pay attention to details;
- like taking one step at a time;
- have a good memory for facts;
- pay more attention to practical tasks and ideas.

Strengths

Sensing learners learn best when they can ask their teacher to explain exactly what is expected and when they can focus on skills and tasks that are important in their lives. They like to use computers, watch films or find other ways to see, hear and touch what they are learning.

Intuitive learners

Attributes

Intuitive learners:

- like reading and listening;
- like problems that require the use of imagination;
- like variety;
- are more interested in big ideas than in little details;
- like starting on new projects rather than finishing existing ones.

Strengths

Intuitive learners learn best when they can find ways to be imaginative and creative in school. They prefer to follow their instincts and understand the big picture before they begin school tasks.

Thinking learners

Attributes

Thinking learners:

- want to be treated fairly;
- like teachers who are organized;
- want to feel a sense of achievement and skill;
- use clear thinking to work out problems;
- like clear and logical direction.

Strengths

Thinking learners learn best when they have limited time to do their work and are able to put information in a logical order that makes sense to them. They succeed when they can focus on what they already know in order to make connections to new information.

Feeling learners:

Attributes

Feeling learners:

- like to have a friendly relationship with teachers;
- learn by helping others;
- need to get along with other people;
- like to work with groups;
- like tasks with which they have a personal connection.

Strengths

Feeling learners learn best when they can work with a friend, find opportunities to choose topics they care about and help others.

Judging learners:

Attributes

Judging learners:

- like to have a plan and stick to it;
- work in a steady, orderly way;
- like to finish projects;
- take school seriously;
- like to know exactly what is expected of them.

Strengths

Judging learners learn best when they have short-term goals, when they are able to make a plan of action and find out from the teacher exactly what is expected.

Perceiving learners

Attributes

Perceiving learners:

- are open to new experiences in learning;
- like to make choices;
- are flexible;
- work best when work is fun;
- like to discover new information.

Strengths

Perceiving learners learn best when they find new ways to do routine tasks in order to generate interest and to discover new information and ideas.

5). Kolb's Learning Style Model

Kolb's Learning Style Model classifies individuals over two dimensions as having

a preference for:

1. The *concrete experience* mode or the *abstract conceptualization* mode (the dimension concerning how the learner takes in information).
2. The *active experimentation* mode or the *reflective observation* mode (the dimension concerning how the learner internalizes information).

Kolb describes four learning types based on the two dimensions, as follows:

- *Type 1: Diverger (concrete, reflective)*. Type 1 learners often use the question ‘Why?’ and they respond well to explanations of how new material relates to their experience and interests.
Diverging learners prefer to learn by observation, brainstorming and gathering information. They are imaginative and sensitive.
- *Type 2: Assimilator (abstract, reflective)*. Type 2 learners often use the question ‘What?’ and respond well to information presented in an organised, logical fashion. They benefit if they are given time for reflection. Assimilating learners prefer to learn by putting information in concise logical order and using reflective observation.
- *Type 3: Converger (abstract, active)*. Type 3 learners often use the question ‘How?’ and respond to having opportunities to work actively on well-defined tasks. They learn by trial and error in an environment that allows them to fail safely. Converging learners like to learn by solving problems and doing technical tasks, and are good at finding practical uses for ideas.
- *Type 4: Accommodator (concrete, active)*. Type 4 learners often use the question ‘What if?’ and respond well when they are able to apply new material in problem-solving situations. Accommodating learners are people-oriented, hands-on learners and rely on feelings rather than logic.

6). The Filder-Silverman Learning Style Model

The Filder-Silverman Learning Style Model classifies learners as:

- sensing learners who prefer the concrete, are practical, and are oriented toward facts and procedures; or intuitive learners who prefer the conceptual, are innovative, and oriented towards theories and meanings;
- visual learners who prefer visual representations of material – pictures, diagrams, flow charts;
or verbal learners who prefer written and spoken explanations;
- inductive learners who prefer to consider topics by moving from the specific to the general;
or deductive learners who prefer to consider topics by moving from the general to the specific;
- active learners who learn by trying things out and working with others; or reflective learners who learn by thinking things through and working alone;
- sequential learners who prefer to work in a linear, orderly fashion and prefer to learn in small incremental steps; or global learners who prefer to take a holistic view and learn by taking large steps forward ((Pritchard, 2009:44-51).

7). Perceptual Learning Style Preferences (PLSP)

In 1984 Joy Reid (1998: 18) developed and normed the PLSP survey. The questionnaire was designed to identify the students' preferred learning style among six categories: visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, tactile, group, and individual learning.

Visual learners

Characteristics of Visual learners:

- learn well from seeing words in books, on the chalkboard, and in workbooks;
- remember and understand information and instruction better if they read them;
- don't need as much oral explanation as an auditory learner;
- can often alone with a book;
- prefer to take notes of lectures and oral directions if they want to remember the information.

Auditory learners

Characteristics of auditory learners:

- learn from hearing words spoken and from oral explanation;
- remember information by reading aloud or by moving their lips as they read, especially when they are learning new material;
- benefit from hearing audiotapes, lectures, class discussion;
- benefit from making tapes to listen to, by teaching other students, and by conversing with their teacher.

Kinaesthetic learners

Characteristics of kinaesthetic learners:

- learn best by experience, by being involved physically in classroom experiences;
- remember information well when they actively participate in activities, field trips, role-playing in the classroom;
- prefer a combination of stimuli---- for example, an audio tape combined with an activity to help them understand new material.

Tactile learners

Characteristics of tactile learners:

- learn best when they have the opportunity to do "hands-on" experiences with

materials;

- like to work on experiments in a laboratory, handle and build models, and touch and work with material;
- write notes or instruction to help remember information;
- prefer physical involvement in class-related activities to help them understand new information.

Group learners

Characteristics of group learners:

- learn more easily when they study with at least one other student;
- complete work well when they work with others;
- like group interaction and class work with other students;
- remember information better when they work with two or three classmates;
- benefit from group work stimulation, that is the stimulation which rises from the group helps them learn and understand new information.

Individual learners

Characteristics of individual learners:

- learn best when they work alone;
- think better when they study alone;
- remember information they learn by themselves;
- understand material best when they learn it alone;
- make better progress in learning when they work by themselves.

8). Learner types

In 1988 K. Willing developed a questionnaire of 30 items to identify adult immigrant students' learning style in Australia. The questionnaire classifies the students into four

types, namely analytical learners, communicative learners, concrete learners and teacher-oriented learners. Nunan (1999: 57) explicitly defined the four learner types with reference to their preference over learning tasks:

Type 1: Analytical learners

These learners like

- studying grammar;
- studying English books;
- reading newspapers;
- studying alone;
- finding their own mistakes;
- and working on problems set by the teacher.

Type 2: Communicative learners

These students like:

- to learn by watching;
- listening to native speakers
- talking to friends in English;
- watching television in English
- using English out of class in shops, trains, etc.,
- learning new words by hearing them,
- and learning by conversations.

Type 3: Concrete learners

These learners tend to like:

- games, pictures, films, video;
- using cassettes;
- talking in pairs;
- practicing English outside class.

Type 4: Teacher-oriented learners

These learners prefer:

- the teacher to explain everything;
- to have their own textbook;
- to write everything in a notebook; to study grammar;
- learn by reading,
- and learn new words by seeing them.

2.2.3. Theory and function of language

This section focuses on the study of theory and function of language which is critical for determining an approach to teaching speaking.

Huebner (1960) said “language is essentially speech, and speech is basically communication by sounds” (Rahimy and Safarpour, 2012: 53).

There are, at least, three views of language and language proficiency on which an approach is to be based.

The first is the *structural view* which is the most traditional of the three. It views language as a system of structurally related elements for decoding of meaning. The purpose of language learning is seen to be the mastery elements of this system, which are generally defined in terms of phonological units (e.g., phonemes), grammatical units (e.g., clauses, phrases, sentences), grammatical operations (e.g., adding, shifting, joining, or transforming elements), and lexical items (e.g., function words and structure words. Audio-lingual Method, Total Physical Response, and the Silent Way represent this particular view of language.

The second view of language is the *functional view*. According to this view, language is a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning. This theory emphasizes the semantic and communicative dimension rather than merely the grammatical characteristics of language, and leads to a specification and organization of language teaching content by categories of meaning and function rather than by elements of structure and grammar. The English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Natural Approach or

Communicative Approach or Communicative Language Teaching embody this particular view of language.

A communicative syllabus, therefore, would include not only elements of grammar and lexis, but also specify the topics, notions, and concepts the learner needs to communicate about.

The third view of language can be called *interactional view*. It sees language as a vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations and for the performance of social transactions between individuals. Language is seen as a tool for the creation and maintenance of social relations. Interactional theories focus on the patterns of moves, acts, negotiation, and interaction found in conversational exchanges. According to this view, language teaching content, may be specified and organized by patterns of exchange and interaction or may be left unspecified, to be shaped by the inclinations of learners as interactors.

Structural, functional, or interactional models of language provide the axioms and theoretical framework that may motivate a particular teaching method. In short, understanding the theory of language may help teachers determine appropriate teaching method. Moreover, it needs the support of understanding the theory of language learning as well (Richards and Rogers, 1986: 16-17).

2.2.4. Speaking and Spoken language

According to Huebner, speaking is a skill used by someone in daily life communication whether at school or outside (Rahimy and Safarpour, 2012: 53). Speaking is productive skills (Broughton et.al. 2003: 76) that can be improved through communicative activities. Broughton et.al further state that talking in a free and easy way is the best way to improve oral fluency (2003: 84). Speaking can also be regarded as the process of language production spontaneously without any planning and rehearsal (Goh and Burns, 2012: 26). Moreover, speaking is natural, spontaneous speech production in which interlocutors do not focus on the mechanics of their

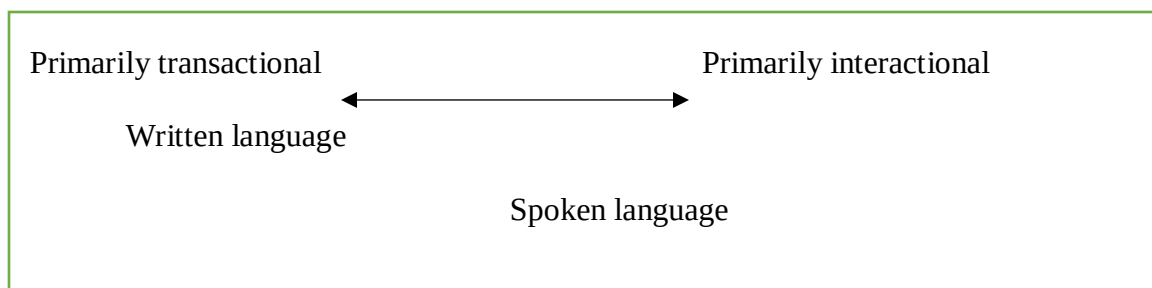
interaction but on the ideas, emotions/information being conveyed (Hughes, 2002: 77). Speaking skill has been defined as an individual ability to convey messages verbally in an appropriate manner that is fluently and accurately.

Unlike writing, speaking is a two-way communication in which each speaker needs to speak. He needs to speak individually and, ideally, he needs someone to listen to him speaking and to respond to him. On the other hand, in written production, each writer can get on by himself, without demanding the readers to read the text and to respond to him (Brown & Yule, 1983: 25). In the words of Hughes as saying that “most speech takes the form of a give and take, not only between speakers but also between the discourse and what is happening around it (Hughes, 2002: 13).

The previous discussion indicates spoken language differs from written language both in form and function. Brown and Yule (1983: 23) made clear distinctions of both of them. The primary function of written language is transactional, that is to convey message or information. However, there are relatively major exceptions, like literature, and relatively minor interactional ones like love letters. This is called information-transferring function or message oriented. And the primary function of spoken language is interactional, that is to establish and maintain social relations. This is called listener oriented. However, an important function of spoken language is primarily transactional, that is to convey information which is called message oriented. To simplify, spoken language has primarily two functions, namely interactional and transactional, whereas written language shows the transactional function uppermost.

The following chart shows the functions of language.

Functions of language



Hughes (2002: 9-10) on the other hand, has drawn general contrast between the spoken and written forms of language in the aspects of production and social aspects.

Aspects of production (forms)

<i>Spoken language</i>	<i>Written language</i>
context dependant	decontextualized
Unplanned	planned
Transient	non-transient
oral/aural	visual/motoric
Dynamic	static

Social aspects (functions)

<i>Spoken language</i>	<i>Written language</i>
primary	secondary
rhetorical	logical
stigmatised	prestigious

informal	formal
inter-personal	contractual
locus of change	conservative

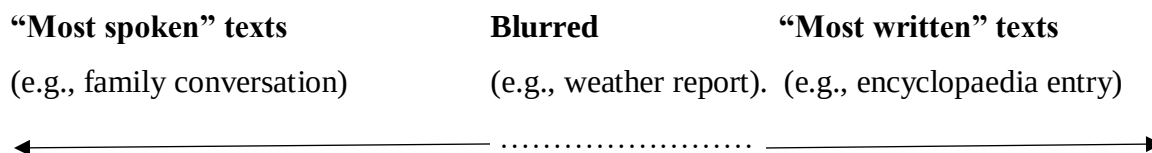
Goh and Burns (2012: 79-80) describe typical features of spoken and written text production as follows:

Spoken language	Written language
Dialogic / interactional.	Monologic / non-interactional.
Co-constructed spontaneously by more than one speaker	Constructed over time by individual writers / readers.
Shared knowledge of context.	Assumed knowledge of context.
Unplanned and negotiated	Planned and redrafted.
Impermanent (produced for “real time”)	Permanent (produced for the “long term”).
Close to action in time and space (context-embedded).	Distant from action in time and space (context-removed)
Uses more informal language.	Uses more formal language.

Moreover, it is possible to produce speech that is planned and rehearsed, as in news broadcast or political speeches, although in such cases, speakers are usually working from written texts. Similarly, writers may work collaboratively to negotiate pieces of writing, which will, nevertheless, exhibit features of written text when completed. Written texts can be “speech-like” as, for example, in notes left for a family member (e.g., “Gone to movies, back at 6:00”). Therefore, language production can be thought of as a kind of continuum, with “most spoken” texts that relate to immediate action at one end and “most written” texts that are abstract and reflective at the other.

Somewhere around the middle of the continuum lie texts that have characteristics of both modes, so they blur the typical distinctions outlined above.

Continuum of spoken and written language

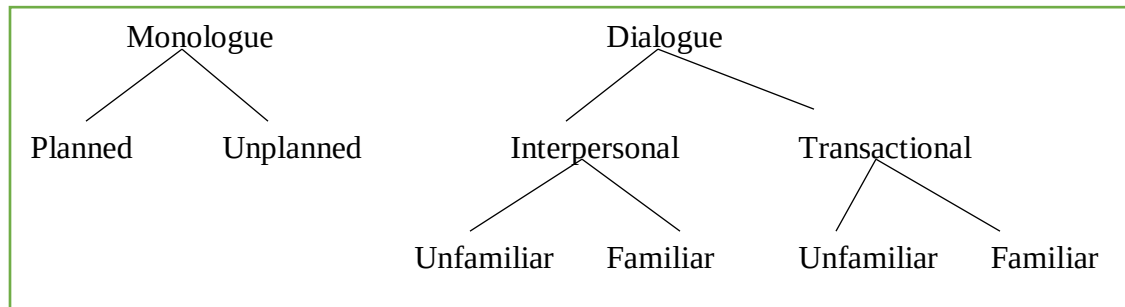


As spoken language differs from written language, the former includes such variety of forms as:

- Casual conversation (with strangers, friends, and intimates).
- Monologues of various kinds (speeches, stories, jokes).
- Telephone calls (business and private).
- Service encounters (in shops, ticket offices, etc.).
- Language in action (talk that accompanies actions such as demonstrating, assembling, cooking etc.).
- Organizing and directing people (at work, in the home, in the street).
- Interviews (jobs, journalistic, in official settings).
- Classroom talk (classes, seminars, lectures, tutorials).
- Rituals (church prayers, sermons, weddings).

Another forms spoken language or as Brown (1994: 237) called it types of oral language and aural text as according to Nunan’s (1998: 21) terminology is seen in the following diagram:

Types of Oral Language



Monologues are spoken language used by speakers for a period of time such as in speeches, lectures, readings, news broadcast and the like, in which the hearer must process long stretches of speech without interruption-the stream of speech will go on whether or not the hearer comprehends. Planned, as opposed to unplanned monologues, differ clearly in their discourse structures. Planned monologues (e.g., speeches and other written material) usually indicate little redundancy and are therefore relatively difficult to understand. Unplanned monologues for instance impromptu lectures and long “stories” in conversation exhibit more redundancy, which makes ease in comprehension, but the presence of more variables like hesitations, false starts, pauses, and corrections can either help or hinder comprehension.

Dialogues are spoken language used by two or more speakers for the purpose of exchanges that promote social relationships (interpersonal) and that convey propositional or factual information (transactional).

Based on word usage, Spoken language consists of two kinds, namely formal and informal dialogue (Curry, 1987: 3-4).

For example

Formal greetings and farewells

Paul: Hello. How are you?

Don: Fine, thank you. How are you?

Paul: Fine, thanks. Oh, excuse me, here's my bus. Good-bye.

Don: Good-bye.

Language notes:

Thanks is slightly less formal than *thank you*.

Informal greetings and farewells

Dick: Hi! How are you?

Helen: Fine, thanks, and you?

Dick: Just fine. Where are you going?

Helen: To the library.

Dick: O.K. I'll see you later. So long.

Helen: So long.

Language notes:

Hi is an informal equivalent of *hello*.

O.K. is a less formal equivalent of *all right*.

So long is an informal equivalent of *Good-bye*.

In terms of its function, Spoken language can be classified into two kinds, they are transactional talk and interactional talk. The main purpose of transactional talk is to get business done. Transactional talk is message oriented. This means that it is important that the message is clearly expressed so that there is less chance for misunderstanding. Whereas the general function of interactional talk is to establish and maintain social relationship, not to convey information. It is much more people oriented. Precise understanding is not required, and conversation partners allow each other a lot of not clear expression and even inaccuracy (Burkart, 1998: 7), (Nunan, 1999: 228).

2.2.5. Teaching speaking skills

Teaching speaking means a process of imparting knowledge and skill through proportionate activities to make students able to interact fluently and accurately using spoken language. This means that there are two major activities in the teaching of speaking. First, providing learners with linguistic knowledge such as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and discourse. Second, training them to acquire linguistic skill: an ability to use linguistic knowledge in communication through speech production.

There are four broad categories of speaking skill that learners need to develop, and they are called as core speaking skills. Each skill has specific skills or sub-skills that are appropriate for a range of speaking and communication needs (Goh and Burns, 2012: 58-59).

Four categories of core speaking skills

No	Core skill	Specific skills
1	Pronunciation Produce the sounds of the target language at the segmental and supra-segmental levels.	a. Articulate the vowels and consonants and blended sounds of English clearly. b. Assign word stress in prominent words to indicate meaning. c. Use different intonation patterns to communicate new and old information.
2.	Speech function Perform a precise communicative function or speech act.	a. Request: permission, help, clarification, assistance, etc. b. Express: encouragement, agreement, thanks, regret, good

		wishes, disagreement, disapproval, complaints, tentativeness, etc. c. Explain: reasons, purposes, procedures, processes, cause and effect, etc. d. Give: instructions, directions, commands, orders, opinions, etc. e. Offer: advice, condolences, suggestions, alternatives, etc. f. Describe: events, people, objects, settings, moods, etc. g. Others.
3	Interaction management Regulate conversations and discussions during interactions.	a. Initiate, maintain, and end conversations. b. Offer turns. c. Direct conversations. d. Clarify meaning. e. Change topics. f. Recognize and use verbal and non-verbal cues.
4	Discourse organization	a. Establish coherence and cohesion in extended discourse through lexical and grammatical choices. b. Use discourse markers and intonation to signpost changes in the discourse, such as a change of topic.

		c. Use linguistic conventions to structure spoken texts for various communicative purpose, e.g., recounts and narratives.
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From this point of view, the goal of the teaching of speaking is to enable the students to produce spoken messages according to the level they have learnt and reached as they carry out different tasks in a various contexts outside the classroom. It is to enable the students to use the language to interpret, express, and negotiate meaning. In communicative language teaching, the emphasis is on what the learner is able to *do* in and with the language (Burkart, 1998: 15). In other words, the main purpose of the teaching of speaking is to enable the students to use the target language. The ability to use the target language has been identified as a major character of successful language learner. Successful language learner is identical with the term of good language learner.

Nunan (1999: 58) identified characteristics of the good language learner.

Good language learners:

- find their own way
- organize information about language
- are creative and experiment with language
- make their own opportunities, and find strategies for getting practice in using the language inside and outside the classroom
- learn to live with uncertainty and develop strategies for making sense of the target language without wanting to understand every word
- use mnemonics (rhymes, word associations, and so forth) to recall what has been learned
- make errors work

- use linguistic knowledge, including knowledge of their first language in mastering a second language
- let the context (extra-linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world) help them in comprehension
- learn to make intelligent guesses
- learn chunks of language as wholes and formalized routines to help them perform ‘beyond their competence’
- learn production techniques (e.g., techniques for conversation going)
- learn different styles of speech and writing and learn to vary their language according to the formality of the situation

Fisher and Frey, 2007: 6 state, the focus of teaching speaking is to equip students with skill to share and exchange information, ideas, and emotions using oral language fluently and accurately. The former is considered as meaning-based instruction while the latter is called form-based oriented instruction. (Murdibjono, 1998, cited in Widiati and Cahyono, 2006: 279).

Fluency oriented or meaning-based instruction is of student-centred teaching approach which aims to train students to be able to speak no matter how incorrect his/her grammatical structures and pronunciation is. In contrast, accuracy oriented or form-based instruction focused on teaching students to be able to speak accurately; meaning grammatically correct and sound production (pronunciation) as well. It is usually conducted in teacher-centred approach.

Which of the two orientations need to be taken into account first? Scholars are of two views. First, the fluency oriented views small grammatical or pronunciation errors are insignificant, especially in the early learning stages since too much emphasis on correcting them might be more harmful than useful for the learners. Direct and too much correction may cause excessive monitor in the mind, hindering the natural acquisition of spoken skills. Second, accuracy oriented said that speech is considered as

successful when the learner can make himself/herself understood and presented in the correct manner ranging from grammar to pronunciation. (Ebsworth, 1998 cited in Nakagawa, 2011: 2).

However, in the context of Communicative Language Teaching, both fluency and accuracy are important. While fluency may be an initial goal in language teaching, accuracy is achieved to some extent by allowing students to focus on the elements of phonology, grammar, and discourse in their spoken output (Brown, 1994: 254).

More specifically, the National Education Curriculum of Indonesia (Departemen Pendidikan Naional, 2006: 308 revealed that the objective of teaching English as a Foreign Language is to develop oral and written communicative competence to the level of informational literacy among Senior High School students.

In this context, Richards stated that the goal of second and foreign language teaching is to educate students to possess communicative competence through the implementation of communicative syllabus and methodology. (Richards, p. 20). Both fluency and accuracy are important goals to pursue in communicative language teaching.

The concept of communicative competence was initiated by Dell Hymes (1971, 1979) and expanded on by many researchers who followed such as Canale and Swain, (1980); Canale (1983); Savignon (1972, 1983) to tell one's language ability to use language effectively in real communication. This ability consists of *knowledge* about the language and specific *skills* in using the language. Moreover, Hymes, states clear distinction between linguistic competence and speakers' actual performance in social situation. Advanced competent language learners are able to produce utterances that are grammatically accurate, easy for listeners to process, and contextually appropriate and acceptable. In the context speech, acceptability means intelligibility-easy to be understood. And there are two standards of pronunciation, they are British and American pronunciation.

Communicative competence refers to, a certain extent, language proficiency. Scholars identified four components that made up communicative competence: grammatical competence, discourse competence, socio-linguistic competence, and strategic competence.

Grammatical competence referred to knowledge about grammar, vocabulary, and phonology, while discourse competence is meant as the ability to connect utterances to produce a coherent whole. Socio-linguistic competence has been defined as the ability to use language that is accurate and appropriate to socio-cultural norms and consistent with the type of discourse produced in specific socio-cultural contexts. And the fourth competence is strategic competence that referred to verbal and non-verbal actions taken to prevent and address breakdowns in communication.

Strategic competence is language learners' strategic competence that reflects one's ability to use strategies appropriately to keep an interaction goes on. These strategies are used for two purposes. First, to avoid having to speak too much. It is called as reduction strategies, merely because the scope of communication is reduced. Second, to enable speakers to convey their messages by using whatever resources they have access to. These strategies are called achievement strategies. They help learners maximize opportunities for speaking in the target language and to achieve their communication goals and help further their language develops (Goh and Burns, 2012: 63-64), ((Burkart, 1998: 6).

Communicative competence has been defined as “the ability to function in a truly communicative setting-that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adjust itself to the total information input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors”.

Moreover, he asserted that communicative competence is not restricted to spoken language, but involves writing as well. Communicative competence is characterized by: (a) knowledge of grammar and vocabulary of the language; (b) knowledge of rules of

speaking (e.g., knowing how to begin and end conversations, knowing what topics can be talked about in different types of speech events, knowing which address forms should be used with different persons one speaks to and in different situations; (c) knowing how to use and respond to different types of speech acts such as requests, apologies, thanks, and invitations; (d) knowing how to use language appropriately.

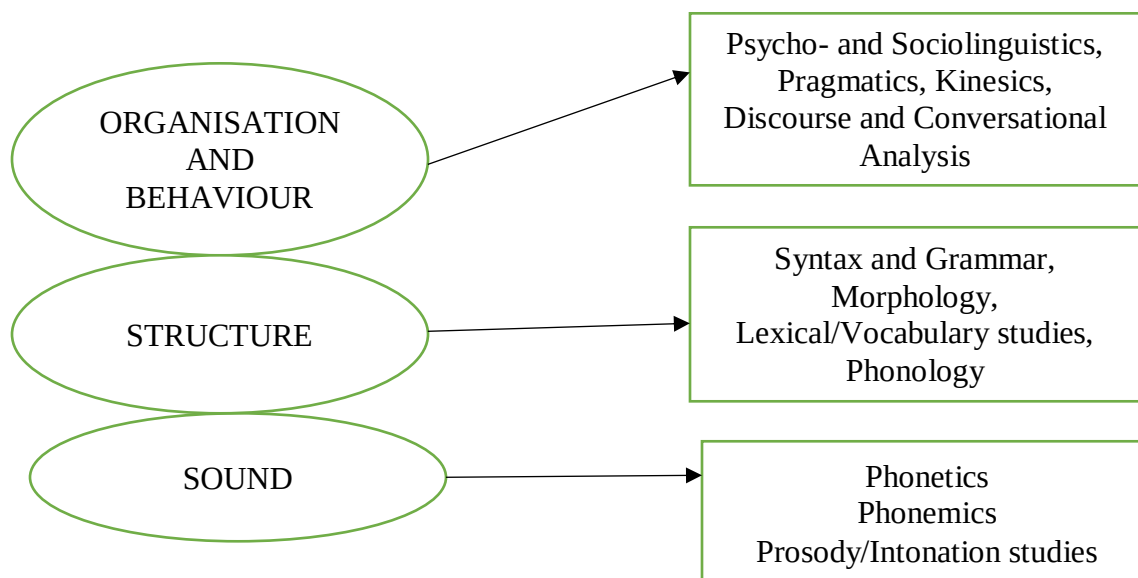
In other words, communicative competence includes knowledge of linguistic competence and a range of other sociolinguistic and conversational skills that enable the speaker to know how to say what to whom, when. (Nunan, 1999: 226).

Teaching the learners to communicate effectively in another language takes a long time. This is not something that can be achieved over a period of time. Moreover, it is one of the most challenging tasks for language teachers to help their learners to undertake learning a new language.

There are two important points that may help teachers in conducting speaking lesson. First, learners already know how to speak at least one language-their native language. This kind of language knowledge and learning experience is useful for them as they try to learn another one. Second, learners have learned how to use their cognitive skills to analyse unfamiliar ideas and experiences and integrate them into their existing knowledge. Teachers can help them use these cognitive abilities to build a road map through the uncharted territory of the new knowledge (Burkart, 1998: 4).

Another central difficulties inherent in the study of speaking is that it exceeds a number of areas and activities. It includes three distinct areas, namely: the global or discourse level, the structural level, and the level of speech production. The following chart indicates some of the relationships of those areas.

Levels and fields of research into speech and conversation (Hughes, 2002: 7)



According to Richards (2012: 3) there are several factors that contribute to poor speaking skills among the EFL learners: (a) curriculum lacks emphasis on speaking skills; (b) teachers are poor users of English; (c) classroom activities do not support oral proficiency; (d) lack of English exposure in and outside the classroom; (e) examination system does not emphasize oral skills.

2.2.6. Approach, Method and Technique of Teaching Speaking

Approach

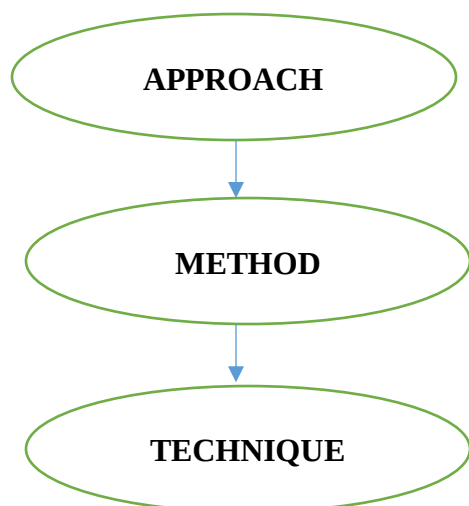
Edward Anthony (1963) defined three hierarchical elements of language teaching clearly, they are approach, method, and technique. An approach referred to a set of assumptions dealing with the nature of language, learning, and teaching. Method is an overall plan for systematic presentation of language based upon a selected approach. Techniques are the specific activities manifested in the classroom that are

consistent with a method and therefore in harmony with an approach as well (Brown, 1994: 48).

Richards and Rogers (1986: 15-16) followed Anthony, as saying that approach refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning that serves as the source of practices and principles in language teaching. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught. Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural. Within one approach, there can be many methods. A technique is implementational – that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach.

According to Anthony's model, approach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified; method is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the particular skills to be taught; and the order in which the content will be presented; technique is the level at which classroom procedures are described.

Elements of Language Teaching: Anthony's model



With regard to the term technique as it has been defined above, there are other commonly used terms as synonymous with. Some of them include task, activity, procedure, practice, behaviour, exercise, and strategy.

Task refers to a specialized form of technique or a series of techniques, closely allied with communicative curricula, and as such must minimally have communicative goals. An activity may refer to mainly anything that learners do in the classroom. It implies some sort of active performance on the part of learners. Procedure means the actual moment-to-moment techniques, practices, and behaviours that operate in teaching a language according to a particular method. Practice, behaviour, exercise, and strategy, refer to, a certain degree, a techniques as follows. Technique as a superordinate term to refer to various activities that either teachers or learners perform in the classroom. In other words, technique include all tasks and activities. They are almost always planned and deliberate. They are the product of choice made by the teacher (Brown, 1994: 136-137).

Approaches to teaching speaking

There are various approaches for teaching speaking. First, an approach that focuses directly on developing isolated speaking skills. It is called direct / controlled approach. Second, an approach in which its focus is on the production of speech during communicative activities. It is called indirect / transfer approach.

Direct and Indirect approaches

A direct / controlled approach is concerned with structural accuracy and emphasizes practice of language forms, such as pronunciation of the sounds in English. This approach also aims to provide learners with grammatical knowledge and discourse structures of the target language. An indirect or transfer approach, on the other hand, is concerned with fluency of speech. It engages learners in functional language use by getting them to talk with other students in class. To apply this approach, teachers usually

design lesson plan and activities that suit the learners to use spoken English. The assumption is that through the application of communicative activities which relate to real situation may enhance learners' speaking skills.

Approaches and activities for teaching speaking

	Direct (controlled)	Indirect (transfer)
Aim	Develop enabling skills.	Develop interaction strategies.
Focus	Accuracy. Language analysis.	Fluency. Language for communication.
Characteristics	Controlled language use. Skill getting. Pedagogic. Pre-communicative. Part-task practice.	“Authentic” / functional language use. Skill using. Real life. Communicative. Whole-task practice.
Activities	Drills. Pattern practice. Structure manipulation. Language awareness. Consciousness raising.	Discussions. Information gaps. Project work. Role-plays. Simulations. Talking circles.
Interaction	Teacher led.	Learner centered.

However, there are limitations in both of these approaches. Both of them do not support effectively all the process of speaking development. First, although the direct /controlled approach focuses on the development of language form or grammatical knowledge (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation), it does not take into consideration the fact that the accurate use of grammatical resources is often developed through face-to-face communication, especially where negotiation for meaning is necessary. Second, controlled use in speaking classes cannot support the development of learners' language complexity. Third, although the indirect / transfer approach gives much attention on the development of fluency through spontaneous talk, it neglects the focus on language elements and discourse structures. Fourth, these approaches do not help learners develop the discourse skills they need for participating in real-world interactions. Fifth, these two different approaches show a dichotomy in teaching speaking, in which they separate between authentic interactions and language form or language use. Sixth, both approaches do not directly enable learners to produce spoken discourse that is socially and interpersonally appropriate, and grammatically accurate.

Integrated Approach

Some experts have an alternative approach to teaching speaking. Littlewood (1992), for example, proposed combining direct practice of language items with indirect practice of communication skills. This approach focuses on a balance between language knowledge and language use. Littlewood's framework is based on a theory of "language as a structural system, but one whose primary function is to enable communication to take place. Pre-communicative task language work is used as a basis for subsequent communicative language practice and eventual free and authentic communication. The following table shows the type of activities that offer part skill (direct) practice activities and whole-task (indirect) practice or transfer practice activities:

Part-skill and whole-task practice

Learning activities		Characteristics
Part-skill practice	Pre-communication task. Language work.	Controlled, predictable.
Part-skill practice / whole-task practice	Communicative language practice. Structured communication task.	Variation in degree of control and predictability.
Whole-task practice	Authentic communication task.	Flexible, less predictable.

Littlewood notes that some language-learning do not fall neatly into either “part-skill” or “whole-task” practice. Simple communicative activities, for example, describing a picture for someone to reproduce, may require learners to exchange messages where the language and content are controlled and predictable.

Another approach that combined controlled and transfer activities was proposed by Bygate (1987). He adopted a mainly direct (transfer) approach, but enhanced it by integrating language accuracy, discourse skills, and small group interaction in the teaching of speaking. He, further stressed the importance of interaction management and meaning negotiation skills taught in tandem (together) with communicative oral-language practice.

Recent research, Thornbury (2005) advocated a general approach to skill development for the teaching of second language speaking. The approach consists of three stages: awareness raising, appropriation, and autonomy. First stage is awareness raising activities. These activities emphasize on helping learners uncover gaps in their own knowledge about speaking. Second stage is appropriation activities which aim at

developing “practice control,” where learners demonstrate “progressive control” or “self-regulation” of a skill. The activities that can be practiced in this stage is a mixture of activities listed in the direct and indirect approaches as outlined above. And the third stage requires learners to engage in activities that demonstrate a degree of autonomy in and outside the classroom. There is always merit, of course, in the integration of direct and indirect approaches. However, the fact is that teachers isolate both approaches in most classrooms (Goh and Burns, 2012: 134-137). Burkart (1998: 15), on the other hand, proposed a balanced activities approach to teaching speaking, taking into account language input, practice output, and communicative output.

The approaches to teaching speaking outlined above, can be simplified into categories as follows:

1. Approach: Direct..... controlled....> accuracy
2. Approach: Indirect..... transfer.....> fluency
3. Approach: Combined (integrated)... balance> accuracy - fluency

Discussion on the goal of teaching speaking whether to improve learners’ fluency or accuracy in second language learning was also raised by Murdibjono, 1998, cited in Widiati and Cahyono, 2006: 279. Fluency oriented or meaning-based instruction is of student-centred teaching approach which aims to train students to be able to speak no matter how incorrect his/her grammatical structures and pronunciation is. In contrast, accuracy oriented or form-based instruction focused on teaching students to be able to speak accurately; meaning grammatically correct and sound production (pronunciation) as well. It is usually conducted in teacher-centred approach.

Which of the two orientations need to be taken into account first? Scholars are of two views. First, fluency oriented views small grammatical or pronunciation errors are insignificant, especially in the early learning stages since too much emphasis on

correcting them might be more harmful than useful for the learners. Direct and too much correction may cause excessive monitor in the mind, hindering the natural acquisition of spoken skills. Second, accuracy oriented said that speech is considered as successful when the learner can make himself/herself understood and presented in the correct manner ranging from grammar to pronunciation. (Ebsworth, 1998 cited in Nakagawa, 2011: 2).

However, in the context of Communicative Language Teaching, both fluency and accuracy are important. While fluency may be an initial goal in language teaching, accuracy is achieved to some extent by allowing students to focus on the elements of phonology, grammar, and discourse in their spoken output (Brown, 1994: 254).

In line with the previous discussion, Richards stated that the goal of second and foreign language teaching is to educate students to possess communicative competence through the implementation of communicative syllabus and methodology (Richards, p. 20). Both fluency and accuracy are important goals to pursue in communicative language teaching.

Besides the three approaches to teaching speaking discussed above, it is also necessary to present another popular approach called the natural approach.

Natural Approach / Communicative Approach

The Natural Approach was primarily outlined by Tracy D. Terrell in 1977 who proposed for a new philosophy of language teaching. He, then, collaborated with Stephen D. Krashen and published a book called "*The Natural Approach*" in 1983. The approach was built on the theory of communication as the primary function of language (Richards and Rogers, 1986: 128-130). Language is viewed as a vehicle for communicating meanings and messages. The Natural Approach is similar to Communicative Approach or simply Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). The Communicative Approach in language teaching starts from a theory of language as communication. Hence, the goal of language teaching is to develop communicative

competence (Richards and Rogers, 1986: 65-67, 69). Like Asher, Krashen and Terrell argue that students must acquire the second language in much the same way that people acquire language in natural situations (therefore the term “natural approach” is referred to). Some argue that it is not really a method at all but is, in a more general sense, an approach (Richard-Amato, 2003: 170).

Characteristics of the Natural Approach / Communicative Approach

One of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative view (Littlewood, 1981: 1). Communicative approach serves the following purposes: (a) to make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) to develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication (Richards and Rogers, 1986: 66). In other words, Communicative approach in language teaching seeks to achieve and maintain a balance of accuracy and fluency. It is, therefore, this approach focuses on a balance between language forms and meanings (Littlewood, 1981: 16). It can be called as an integrated approach or a balanced approach to teaching speaking.

Howatt distinguishes between a “strong” and a “weak” version of Communicative Language Teaching. The weak version stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities into a wider program....The ‘strong’ version of communicative teaching, on the other hand, advances the claim that language is acquired through communication, so that it is not merely a question of achieving an existing but inert (not moving) knowledge of the language, but of stimulating the development of the language system itself. The former could be described as ‘learning to use’ English, while the latter entails ‘using English to learn it.

In order to get clear feature of the Communicative Approach, it is useful to consider Finochiaro's and Brumfit's (1983) major distinctions between the Audio-lingual Method and the Communicative Approach.

No	Audio-lingual Method	Communicative Language Teaching
1.	Attends to structure and form more than meaning.	Meaning is paramount.
2.	Demands memorization of structure-based dialogues.	Dialogues, if used, centre around communicative functions and are not normally memorized.
3.	Language items are not necessarily contextualized.	Contextualized is a basic premise.
4.	Language learning is learning structures, sounds, or words.	Language learning is learning to communicate.
5.	Mastery, or "over-learning" is sought.	Effective communication is sought.
6.	Drilling is a central technique.	Drilling may occur, but peripherally.
7.	Native-speaker-like pronunciation is sought.	Comprehensible pronunciation is sought.
8.	Grammatical explanation is avoided.	Any device which helps the learners is accepted – varying according to their age, interest, etc.
9	Communicative activities only come after a long process of rigid drills and exercises.	Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning.
10.	The use of the student's native language is forbidden.	Judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible.

11.	Translation is forbidden at early levels.	Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.
12.	Reading and writing are deferred (delay) till speech is mastered.	Reading and writing can start from the first day, if desired.
13.	The target linguistic system will be learnt through the overt teaching of the patterns of the system.	The target linguistic system will be learnt best through the process of struggling to communicate.
14.	Linguistic competence is the desired.	Communicative competence is the desired goal (i.e. the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately.
15.	Varieties of language are recognized but not emphasized.	Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methodology.
16.	The sequence of units is determined solely by principles of linguistic complexity.	Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, or meaning which maintains interest.
17.	The teacher controls the learners and prevent them from doing anything that conflicts with theory.	Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.
18.	“Language is habit” so errors must be prevented at all costs.	Language is created by the individual often through trial and error.
19.	Accuracy, in terms of formal correctness, is a primary goal.	Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.
20.	Students are expected to interact with the language system, embodied in machines or controlled materials.	Students are expected to interact with other people, either in the flesh, through pair or group.

21.	The teacher is expected to specify the language that students are to use.	The teacher cannot know exactly what language the students will use.
22.	Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in the structure of the language.	Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.

(Richards and Rogers, 1986: 67-68).

The advantages of communicative activities in language learning through Communicative Approach.

Littlewood (1981: 17-18) highlighted some benefits that communicative activities contribute.

1. They provide whole-task practice.

This is called practice in the total skill. In foreign language learning, whole-task practice is conducted through the provision of various kinds of communicative activity, structured in order to suit the learners' level of ability.

2. They improve motivation.

When classroom learning is related to learners' objective, it can help their participation in communication with others which lead to increase achieve success.

3. They allow natural learning.

Communicative activities (inside or outside the classroom) provide opportunities for the learners to use the target language through oral communication. This is an important part of the total learning process.

4. They can create a context which supports learning.

Communicative activity provides opportunities for positive personal relationships to develop among learners and between learners and teacher. It

further humanises the classroom and supports to create an environment which is conducive to learning for each individual learner.

5. They encouraged teachers to prepare learners for realistic and authentic communicative situations (Goh and Burns, 2012: 75).

Although the natural approach has gained many advocates in language teaching, it seems to have some limitations. First, the method is oriented to oral development with beginning to low-intermediate students. Another limitation is that it does not adequately deal with the formal teaching of grammar. Finally, the content and tasks are mainly related to everyday topics (foods, colours, interests, body parts) which do not support academic proficiency sooner (Richard-Amato, 2003: 193). However, the natural approach and its extensions are compatible with methods and activities (Total Physical Response and the Audio-Motor Unit, Chants, Music, Games, Role-Play, Storytelling, Affective Activities, etc.) which often produce extremely rich environments where concepts are reinforced in a variety of ways (Richard-Amato, 2003: 171).

The principles on which a new approach to language teaching should be based.

It is crucial to understand at least six principles prior to determine what approach is to be taken into account in the teaching of speaking.

1. The spoken language is primary and that this should be reflected in an oral-based methodology.
2. The findings of phonetics should be applied to teaching and teacher training.
3. Learners should hear the language first, before seeing it in written form.
4. Words should be presented in sentences, and sentences should be practiced in meaningful contexts and not be taught as isolated, disconnected elements.

5. The rules of grammar should be taught only after the students have practiced the grammar points in context – that is grammar should be taught inductively. It is practice oriented not theory oriented.
6. Translation should be avoided, although the mother tongue could be used in order to explain new words or to check the comprehension (Richards and Rogers, 1986: 8).

Method

In the context of language teaching, a method adopted in the classroom by a teacher plays important role for any teaching to succeed. A method, is even, more important than the subject matter. According to Richards (1987: 11) cited in Nunan (1998: 3): the goal of many language teachers is to find the right method: a method that improves the quality of teaching. Moreover, the choice of a method should be based on an approach that has been determined earlier by a teacher. It is, merely, because a method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. The goal of foreign language teaching, on the other hand, is to extend the range of communication situations in which the learner can perform with focus on meaning, without being hindered by the attention he must pay to linguistic form (Littlewood, 1981: 89).

Direct/Natural Method

Direct/Natural Method of language teaching was constructed on the belief of naturalistic principles of language learning. The method was initiated by L. Sauveur (1826-1907) who applied natural principles to language classes. He used intensive oral interaction in the target language, employing questions as a way presenting and eliciting language. And the method was formally called Natural Method when he opened a language school in Boston in the late 1860s.

Sauveur and other believers in the Natural Method argued that a foreign language could be taught without translation or the use of the learner's native tongue if meaning was conveyed directly through demonstration and action. Another advocate of this method, was F. Franke, a German scholar who wrote on the psychological principles of direct association between forms and meanings in the target language (1884) and provided a theoretical justification for a monolingual approach to teaching. According to Franke, a language could best be taught by using it actively in the classroom. Rather than using analytical procedures that focus on explanation grammar rules in classroom teaching, teachers must encourage direct and spontaneous use of the foreign language in the classroom. Learners would then be able to induce rules of grammar. The teacher replaced the textbook in the early stages of learning. Speaking began with systematic attention to pronunciation. Known words could be used to teach new vocabulary, using mime, demonstration, and pictures.

Principles and Procedures of Natural Method

1. Classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target language.
2. Only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught.
3. Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progression organized around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small, intensive class.
4. Grammar was taught inductively.
5. New teaching points were introduced orally.
6. Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects, and pictures; abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas.
7. Both speech and listening comprehension were taught.
8. Correct grammar and pronunciation were emphasized.

These principles are seen in the following guidelines for teaching oral language.

Never translate: demonstrate

Never explain: act
 Never make a speech: ask questions
 Never imitate mistakes: correct
 Never speak with single words: use sentences
 Never speak too much: make students speak much
 Never use the book: use your lesson plan
 Never jump around: follow your plan
 Never go too fast: keep the pace of the student
 Never speak too slowly: speak normally
 Never speak too quickly: speak naturally
 Never speak too loudly: speak naturally
 Never be impatient: take it easy

Although the natural method suggests the use of the target language exclusively in the classroom, translation may be used where students need or benefit from it. The use of translation in teaching a foreign or second language was recommended by the communicative approach (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 9-10, 67).

A Taxonomy of Techniques

Techniques are the specific activities manifested in the classroom that are consistent with a method and therefore in harmony with an approach as well (Brown, 1994: 48). A technique is implementational – that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective (Richards and Rogers, 1986: 15-16).

Brown (1994: 141-144) with reference to Crookes and Chaudron (1991) has drawn a comprehensive taxonomy of common techniques for language teaching. Crookes and Chaudron called the term: “activity”.

There are three broad categories of the techniques for language teaching: controlled, semi-controlled, and free techniques.

Controlled techniques

1. **Warm-up:** Mimes, dance, songs, jokes, play. This activity has the purpose of getting the students stimulated, relaxed, motivated, attentive, or otherwise engaged and ready for the classroom lesson. It does not necessarily involve use of the target language.
2. **Setting:** Focussing in on lesson topic. Either verbal or nonverbal evocation of the context that is relevant to the lesson point; by way of questioning or miming or picture presentation, possibly tape recording of situations and people, teacher directs attention to the upcoming topic.
3. **Organizational:** Managerial structuring of lesson or class activities. Include disciplinary action, organization of class furniture and seating, general procedures for class interaction and performance, structure and purpose of lesson, etc.
4. **Content explanation:** Explanation of lesson content: grammatical, phonological, lexical (vocabulary), sociolinguistic, pragmatic, or any other aspects of language.
5. **Role-play demonstration:** Use of selected students or teacher to illustrate the procedure (s) to be applied in the lesson segment to follow. Includes brief illustration of language or any other content to be incorporated.
6. **Dialogue/Narrative presentation:** Reading or listening passage presented for passive reception. No implication of student production or other identification of specific target forms or functions (students may asked to “understand”
7. **Dialogue/Narrative recitation:** Reciting a previously known or prepared text, either in unison or individually.
8. **Reading aloud:** Reading directly from a given text.

9. **Checking:** Teacher either circulating or guiding the correction of students' work, providing feedback as an activity rather than within another activity.
10. **Question-answer, display:** Activity involving prompting of student responses by means of display questions (i.e., teacher or questioner already knows the response or has a very limited set of expectations for the appropriate response). Distinguished from referential questions by means of the likelihood of the questioner's knowing the response and the speaker's being aware of that fact.
11. **Drill:** Typical language activity involving fixed patterns of teacher and student responding and prompting, usually with repetition, substitution, and other mechanical alterations. Typically with little meaning attached.
12. **Translation:** Student and teacher provision of L1 or L2 translations of given text.
13. **Dictation:** Student writing down orally presented text.
14. **Copying:** Student writing down presented text visually.
15. **Identification:** Student picking out and producing/labelling or otherwise identifying a specific target form, function, definition, or other lesson-related item.
16. **Recognition:** Students identifying forms, etc., as in Identification, but without producing language as response (i.e., chinking off items, drawing symbols, rearranging pictures).
17. **Review:** Teacher-led review of previous week/month or other period as a formal summary and type of test of student recall performance.
18. **Testing:** formal testing procedures to evaluate student progress.
19. **Meaningful drill:** Drill activity involving responses with meaningful choices, as in reference to different information. Distinguished from Information Exchange by the regulated sequence and general form of responses.

Semi-controlled Techniques

- 20. Brainstorming:** A special form of preparation for the lesson, like Setting, which involves free, undirected contributions by the student and teacher on a given topic, to generate multiple associations without linking them; no explicit analysis or interpretation by the teacher.
- 21. Story-telling:** (especially when student-generated): Not necessarily lesson-based, lengthy presentation of story or even by teacher or student (may overlap with Warm-up or Narrative recitation). May be used to maintain attention, motivation, or as lengthy practice.
- 22. Question-answer, referential:** Activity involving prompting of responses by means of referential questions (i.e., the questioner does not know beforehand the response information). Distinguished from Question-answer, Display.
- 23. Cued narrative/Dialogue:** Student production of narrative or dialogue following cues from miming, cue cards, pictures, or other stimuli related to narrative/dialogue (i.e., meta-language requesting functional acts).
- 24. Information transfer:** Application from one mode (e.g., visual) to another (e.g., writing) which involves some transformation of the information (e.g., student fills out diagram while listening to description). Distinguished from Identification in that the student is expected to transform and reinterpret the language or information.
- 25. Information exchange:** Task involving two-way communication as in information gap exercises, when one or both parties (or a larger group) must share information to achieve some goal. Distinguished from Question-answer, Referential in that sharing of information is critical for resolution of task.
- 26. Wrap-up:** Brief teacher or student produced summary of point and/or items that have been practiced or learned.

- 27. Narration/Exposition:** Presentation of a story or explanation derived from prior stimuli. Distinguished from Cued Narrative because of lack of immediate stimuli.
- 28. Preparation:** Student study, silent reading, pair planning and rehearsing, preparing for later activity. Usually a student-directed or –oriented project.

Free Techniques

- 29. Role-play:** Relatively free acting out specified roles and functions. Distinguished from Cued Dialogues by the fact that cueing is provided only minimally at the beginning, and not during the activity.
- 30. Games:** Various kinds of language game activity, if not like other previously defined activities (e.g., board and dice games making words).
- 31. Report:** Report of student-prepared exposition on books experiences, project work, without immediate stimulus, and elaborated on according to student interests. Akin to (similar with) Composition in writing mode.
- 32. Problem solving:** activity involving specified problem and limitations of means to resolve it, requires cooperative action on part of participants in small or large group.
- 33. Drama:** Planned dramatic rendition of play, skit, story, etc.
- 34. Simulation:** Activity involving complex interaction between groups and individuals based on simulation of real-life actions and experiences.
- 35. Interview:** A student is directed to get information from another student or students.
- 36. Discussion:** Debate or other form of group discussion of specified topic, with or without specified sides/positions prearranged.
- 37. Composition:** As in Report (verbal), written development of ideas, story or other exposition.

38. A propos: Conversation or other socially oriented interaction/speech by teacher, students, or even visitors, on general real-life topics. Typically authentic and genuine.

On the basis of the previous discussions, the researcher determined the approach used in this study was “Integrated Approach” / combined, balanced approach or communicative approach or natural approach. The selection of the integrated approach in this research was based on functional view and interactional view of language. While the method adopted was “Direct or Natural” method as it corresponds to the integrated approach, and the technique applied was “Free-Technique” since it is relevant with the natural method. Moreover, the application of free-technique was undertaken through Role-Play and Communication Games.

Role-Play

Role-Play is a teaching strategy that fits within the social family of models (Joyce and Weil, 2000: 59). The educational use of Role-Play has been increasing more and more worldwide, especially during the 1970s and 1980s, and is now getting more place in university curricula, business, and industrial training program.

According to the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 460), role-play also role-playing (in language teaching) is defined as drama-like classroom activities in which students take the ROLES of different participants in a situation and act out what might typically happen in that situation. For example, to practice how to express complaints and apologies in a foreign language, students might have to role-play a situation in which a customer in a shop returns a faulty article to a salesperson. Role-play activities do not include group discussion.

While, simulation refers to classroom activities which reproduce or simulate real situations and which often involve dramatization and group discussion. In simulation activities, learners are given roles in a situation, TASKs, or a problem to be solved, and

are given instructions to follow (for example, an employer – employee discussion over wage increases in a factory). The participants then make decisions and proposal. Consequences are “simulated” on the basis of decisions participants take. They later discuss their actions, feelings, and what happened. Moreover, simulation in COMPUTER ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING or CALL is software using large data bases is used to present information in a simulated environment where learner input changes outcomes, e.g., controlling variables in an ecosystem (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 487).

Why it is crucial to employ Role-Play as a teaching technique in language lesson?

Role Play offers several advantages for both teacher and student. First, it raises student interest to learning. Second, it enhances student participation in learning process. Third, it develops sense of tolerance: empathy and understanding. Fourth, emphasizes personal concerns, problems, behaviour, and active participation. Fifth, improves interpersonal skills, and enhances communication skills (Jarvis et.al, 2002: 1).

In the context of language teaching, Role-Play is an effective technique to enliven the teaching and learning atmosphere, arouse the interest of learners, and make the language acquisition impressive. Role-Play is very important in teaching English because it provides students opportunity to expose the target language in various social roles and contexts (Freeman, 2000: 134). In addition, it also gives students opportunity to develop creativity as they play another person’s role for a while. Stephen D. Hatting cited in Dorathy and Mahalakshmi (2011: 2) says the Role-Play would seem to be the ideal activity in language classroom that offers students to practice communication in the target language and hence develop their speaking skill. The use of Role-Play challenges learners to show instantaneously socio-pragmatic and pragma-linguistic knowledge in interaction. Role-Play, as Harmer (2001: 275) advocates is fun and motivating. It provides a much wider range of language opportunities for quieter students to express themselves. It helps students gain insight about how to handle real-

life problem and understand historical and current event (Tompkins and Hoskisson, 1991: 172). Moreover, it has been practiced for years by researchers in conversation classes.

Al-Senaidi (2014: 2) describes some advantages of Role-Play in language teaching. It can be very enjoyable classroom activities for learners, provides good opportunities for using language in real life situation spontaneously, and helps learners develop real life speaking skills. It further increases learners' motivation and participation in the learning process. Role-Play also train learners to be able to work together with different peers and hence develops communication strategies. In other words, Role-Play gives learners an opportunity to practice communicating in different social contexts and in different roles.

Rahimy and Safarpour, on the other hand, states different advantages of Role-Play as follows. It can engage an entire class, it can be fun, and it may result in better learning of language. When students involve in Role-Play activities they have great time to develop fluency in language and verbal communication skills, as well as the use of body language during face-to-face communication. Role-Play activities also may stimulate EFL learners to employ the target language, in which it can improve learners' fluency and pronunciation. They help EFL learners to understand the importance of cooperation and to have an interest in learning (Rahimy and Safarpour, 2012: 52). Role-Play allows learners to make mistake (s) in a nonthreatening environment (Dorathy and Mahalakshmi, 2011: 4) and encourage them dare to exercise language which is important in learning language. It can improve learners' willingness to communicate in class, and raise their interest and enthusiasm towards language itself (Dincer, et.al., 2012: 6).

Disadvantages of Role Play

Despite of its advantages for language teaching, Role Play has potential drawbacks as it is hard to maintain discipline during the class and insecurity of class members. Some may react negatively to participating in a situation which will be

discussed and possibly criticized by other members of the class. It is time consuming and demands more space and other resources as well. It is costly. Another problem that might arise is the relationship of the people in the group (Al-Seinadi, 2014: 3, Dorathy and Mahalakshmi 2011: 4).

Procedures

There are seven major steps to apply Role Play technique in language classroom.

1. Decide on the Teaching Materials

Decide which teaching materials will be used for role play activities. The teaching materials can be taken from text books or non-textbook teaching materials such as picture books, story books, readers, play-scripts, comic strips, movies, cartoons and pictures. The material is selected ahead of time by the teacher. The teacher can also create his or her own authentic teaching materials for role play activities. The teaching materials should be decided based on students' level and interests, teaching objectives and appropriateness for teaching.

2. Select Situations and Create Dialogs

Select a situation or situations to be role played. For every role play situation, dialogs should be provided (by the teaching materials or by the teacher) or created by the students themselves.

3. Teach the Dialogs for Role Plays

Teach the vocabulary, sentences, and dialogs necessary for the role play situations. Ensure the students know how to use the vocabulary, sentences and dialogs prior to doing the role play activities, otherwise, allow students to ask how to say the words they want to say.

4. Have Students Practice the Role Plays

Ask the students to practice in pairs or in small groups. After they have played their own roles a few times, have them exchange roles. In that way, students can play different roles and practice all of the lines in the role play. When students are confident enough to demonstrate or perform in front of the class, ask them to do so for their classmates.

5. Have Students Modify the Situations and Dialogs

Encourage the students to modify the situations and/or dialogs to create a variation of the original role play once they have finished and become familiar with an original role play situation.

6. Evaluate and Check Students' Comprehension

Evaluate the effectiveness of the role play activities and check if students have successfully comprehended the meanings of the vocabulary, sentences and dialogs through simple questions relating to role plays, and students to re-enact the role plays (Huang, 2008: 2-3).

7. Let the students choose their own character

This can maintain their interest to perform a role and consequently lead the Role Play to succeed.

The above procedures can be simplified into four stages:

1. Preparation and explanation of the activity by the teacher
2. Student preparation of the activity

3. The role-playing
4. The discussion or debriefing after the role-play activity
(Jarvis et.al., 2002: 2-3).

The Role of a Teacher

In Role-Play activities, a teacher is not a dominant actor. Rather he/she plays certain but critical roles as:

First, Teacher as a Facilitator. Students may need new language to be 'fed' in by the teacher. If rehearsal time is appropriate the feeding in of new language should take place at this stage. As students practice the role-play they might find that they are stuck for words and phrases. In the practice stage the teacher has a chance to 'feed-in' the appropriate language. This may need the teacher to act as a sort of 'walking dictionary', monitoring the class and offering assistance as and when necessary. Second role is as a Spectator. The teacher watches the role-play and offers comments and advice at the end. And finally, he/she plays as a Participant. It is sometimes appropriate to get involved and take part in the role-play yourself.

Error Correction

As the goal of foreign language learning is to achieve fluency and accuracy, whereas a mistake (s) is (are) inevitable among the learners. In this sense, error treatment becomes necessary as not to leave the students with errors fossilisation. However, the teacher must be aware that excessive correction will encourage learners to shift their focus from meanings to forms. For this reason, he may often withhold structural correction, or postpone it until after the activity (Littlewood, 1981: 91).

There are many ways to correct mistakes when using role-play. It is rarely appropriate for the teacher to jump in and correct every mistake. This could be

incredibly de-motivating. But, some students do like to be corrected straight after a role-play activity, while the language is still fresh in their minds. Sentences with errors can be written on the board for the group to correct together.

Self-correction – For this purpose, a teacher needs to record the role-plays either on audiocassette or on video. Then, let the students listen to their dialogues again and reflect on the language used. They may find it easy to spot their own mistakes.

Peer-correction - Fellow students may be able to correct some mistakes made by their peers. Students could be asked to listen out for both great bits of language they'd like to use themselves, and some mistakes they hear. Be careful to keep peer-correction a positive and profitable experience for all involved. Making a note of common mistakes yourself and dealing with them in future classes ensures that the students don't lose motivation by being corrected on the spot or straight after the role-play. Negotiate with students and ask them how they would like to be corrected (Dorathy and Mahalakshmi, 2011: 5-6).

The Principles on which Role-Play activities should be based on.

The activities should:

- be “appropriate for the learners’ age and social-cultural experience”
- give learners opportunities to use language they know
- start with simple dialogues before moving on to more advanced interactions
- be interesting, exciting and motivating
- create a context where learners pay more attention to the message than to the accuracy of their language

Moreover, in preparation for the role play, a teacher is necessary to take into account the following principles:

- Learners may need to be introduced to key vocabulary and expressions they will be able to use.
- Role cards or cue cards, can also be provided to learners to explain the roles they will be taking on.
- Learners should be given “enough time ... to read any necessary information and to formulate their ideas”.
- During role plays teachers should encourage learners and reassure them that no penalties will be imposed on them for hesitations or mistakes (Al-Senaidi, 2014: 3-4).

Communication Games

Games as a teaching strategy has got special attention from both researchers and practitioners in recent years to foster students to “use the language”.

According to the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 219), game (in language teaching) is defined as “an organized activity that usually has the following properties: a particular task or objective, a set of rules, competition between players, and communication between players by spoken or written language”. Games are often used as a fluency activity in communicative language teaching and humanistic methods. Game (in COMPUTER ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING or CALL), on the other hand, refers to rule-based competitive activities usually involving a time limit and/or visual display features in which the player must acquire and/or manipulate knowledge in order to succeed.

There are various types of games that can be employed in a contemporary EFL learning environment, like computer games or online games, but this paper focuses on games played in the classroom. A primary goal of using games in class is to help students learn English in a conducive and motivating environment.

Types of Language Games

It is difficult to classify games into categories because such categories often overlap. According to Jill Hadfield (1999: 4), there are two kinds of games: *competitive games*, in which players or teams race to be the first to reach the goal, and *cooperative games*, in which players or teams work together towards a common goal. She further categorises games into *linguistic games* and *communicative games*. The purpose of linguistic games is linguistic accuracy, for example vocabulary games, remembering the correct word, supplying the correct antonym. Communicative games, on the other hand, focus on successful exchange of information and ideas such as two people identifying the differences between their two pictures which are similar to one another but not exactly alike. Correct language usage, though still important, is secondary to achieving the communicative goal.

Jian Wang et.al., (20011: 129) further classified games into more detailed forms which are composed of both the elements defining linguistic and communicative games.

1. *Sorting, ordering or arranging games*. For example, students have a set of cards with months, and they have to arrange those cards in order.
2. *Information gap games*. In such games, one or more people have information that other people do not, and they have to exchange their information to complete a task.
3. *Guessing games*. These are a variation on information gap games. For instance, one student who has a flash card cannot show it to others but must instead mime it to others, and then other students have to guess the word from his or her performance. Examples of this game are “*Guess What I am*” or “*Guess Who I am*” which can be used to teach about animals, professions, or people in different age groups. Each student pantomimes a particular role, and the class guesses which role is being acted out. The student who guesses correctly is “it” and takes the next turn. A time limit can be set so not too much attention is devoted to any one person. “*Guess What I’m Doing*” teaches or reinforces

concepts associated with taking a shower, going fishing, doing homework, and so forth. *“Guess What I Have”* is even more focused on verbalization. The student gives verbal hints as to what object is being described, or the student asks questions about the object (as in “Twenty Questions”). The object may be hidden or in full view. It is important that the class not know the name of the object beforehand. Alternatives include *“Whose Name Is it?”* or *“What Am I?”*. In this game one person is “it,” and a sign, which the person cannot see, is placed on his or her back. On the sign has been written the name of a classmate or the name of a specific occupation. The person with sign asks *yes* or *no* questions of the class until the correct response is arrived at. (Do I wear a hat? Do I climb ladders?). The students take turns being “it.” (Richard-Amato, 2003: 239-240).

One of the best known examples of a guessing game is 20 Questions, in which one person thinks of a famous person, place, or thing. The other participants can ask 20 Yes/No questions to find clues in order to guess who or what the person is thinking of.

4. *Searching games.* These games are another version of two-way information games, with everyone seeking and giving information. For example, everyone is given a clue to find out who the criminal is. They have to ask and then reply to their partners to solve the problem.
5. *Matching games.* As the name implies, participants need to find a match for a word, picture, or card.
6. *Labelling games.* These are a form of matching game. The only difference is that the participants match labels and pictures.
7. *Exchanging games.* Many card games fall into this category. In these games, students barter cards, objectives, or ideas.
8. *Board games.* “Scrabble” is one of the most popular games in this category.
9. *Role playing games.* Such games involve students in playing roles that they

might not play in real life. They might also be employed to get students to practice set dialogues.

There are, of course, a number of language games that are popular and have been practicing in language classroom other than those mentioned above such as whisper circles, match and catch the riddle, crazy story, missing-headlines, find the difference, the secret code, musical chairs, board-advancing games, word-focus games, treasure hunts etc.

In this study the researcher deals primarily, with three varieties of gaming types: information gap, guessing games, whisper circles, and matching games. They are adopted to facilitate students' fluency, accuracy, motivation, confidence, and vocabulary acquisition.

Games are often associated with fun. The fact is that games are usually fun, but one should not discard their pedagogical value, especially in second language teaching. Like most other activities, games can lower anxiety, thus making acquisition more likely. In addition, they can be highly motivating, relevant, interesting, and comprehensible. Games can develop and reinforce concepts (e.g., colours, shapes, numbers, word definitions), add diversion to the regular classroom activities, and even break the ice, particularly in the case of true beginners. Moreover, they can introduce new ideas and provide practice with communication skills. Some games are quiet, and contemplative, but others are noisy and require much verbal or physical involvement. Some are meant for small groups, others for large groups (Richard-Amato, 2003: 233-240). It is, therefore, teachers should consider a game / games appropriately.

Choosing appropriate games

The principles on which a game / games should be selected include:

1. The level of a game. The game should fit the students' language level.
2. The goal and content of teaching. The game should be in line with the goal of

teaching and with the subject matter.

3. The students' characteristics: whether they are old or young, serious-minded or light-hearted, and highly-motivated to learn or not (Mubalsat, 2012: 5).
4. Its length and time. The teacher should allocate more or less time depending on the students' level, the number of people in a group, or the knowledge of the rules of a game etc. (Uberman, 1998: 3).
5. The rules of games should be very few and clearly explained (Richard-Amato, 2003: 233).
6. A game should involve friendly competition.
7. A game should keep all of the students involved and interested.
8. A game should encourage students to focus on the use of language rather than on the language itself.
9. A game should give students a chance to learn, practice, or review specific language material (Yin Yong Mei and Jang Yu-jung, 2000: 1).
10. Games should be regarded as supplementary activities. The whole syllabus should not be based on games only – even for young learners.
11. Once the game has begun, the teacher should not interrupt to correct mistakes in language use.
12. The teacher should not compel an individual to participate due to personal characteristic such as shyness. Forcing students to participate might result in negative effect (Aydan Ersoz, 2000: 1).

Advocates of the usage of games in language teaching confirm games are fun, challenging, and motivating. They provide opportunities for the learners to experiment, discover, and interact with their environment. Encourage shy students to take part in classroom activities. Minimize the stress during learning as they learn a language naturally, that is, as they learn their mother tongue (Yin Yong Mei and Jang Yu-jung, 2000: 1).

Games help students to make and sustain the effort of learning, provide language practice in the various skills – speaking, writing, listening and reading and create a meaningful context for language use (Kim, 1995: 1). Games also may lower affective filter, encourage creative and spontaneous use of language, promote communicative competence, foster whole class participation, and support healthy competition (Lengeling and Malarcher, 2014: 5). Games can lower anxiety, create conducive atmosphere to learning. They are good way of practicing language, and thus promote fluency (Uberman, 1998: 2-3), (Chen, I-Jung, 2005: 2-3). Games help students to make and sustain the effort of learning. They provide language practice in the various skills – speaking, writing, listening, and reading, encourage learners to interact and communicate. Lastly, they create a meaningful context for language use (Lee Su Kim, 1995: 35).

Error Treatment

As it has been discussed earlier, that in general sense, appropriate error correction is necessary to avoid fossilisation. There are three types of error treatment: teacher correction, self-correction, and peer-correction.

Teacher-correction includes various ways:

1. In a way that is not obvious to the students.

Example:

Anna : I have no brother.

Teacher : two sisters (raising intonation).

Anna : Because my mother she dead when I was three years old.

Teacher : She died when you were three?

Anna : Yes, she died when I was three years old.

2. Involve the student in a discrimination exercise.

Example:

Maria : I have thirty years.

Teacher : Which is correct: “I have thirty years” or “I am thirty years old”.
 Maria : “I am thirty years old”.

3. Involve classification: correct and incorrect on the board.

Example:

Correct	Incorrect
I slept late	I sleep late
I am thirty years old	I have thirty years old

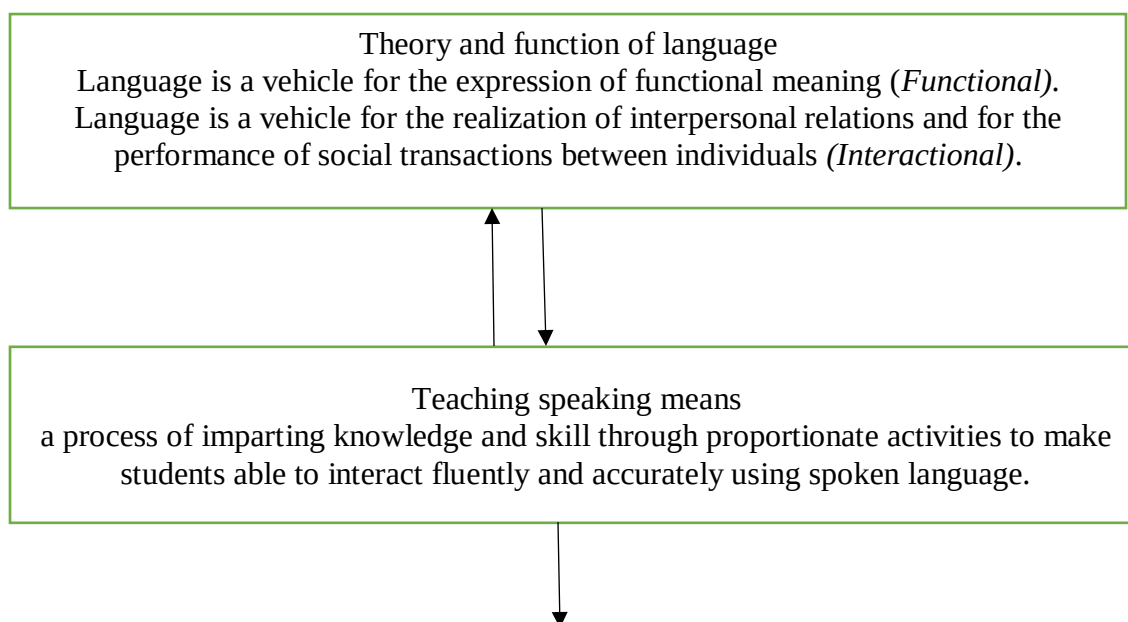
4. Do a mini-lesson or conversation to let the student practice the correct form (Gebhard, 1996: 189-190).

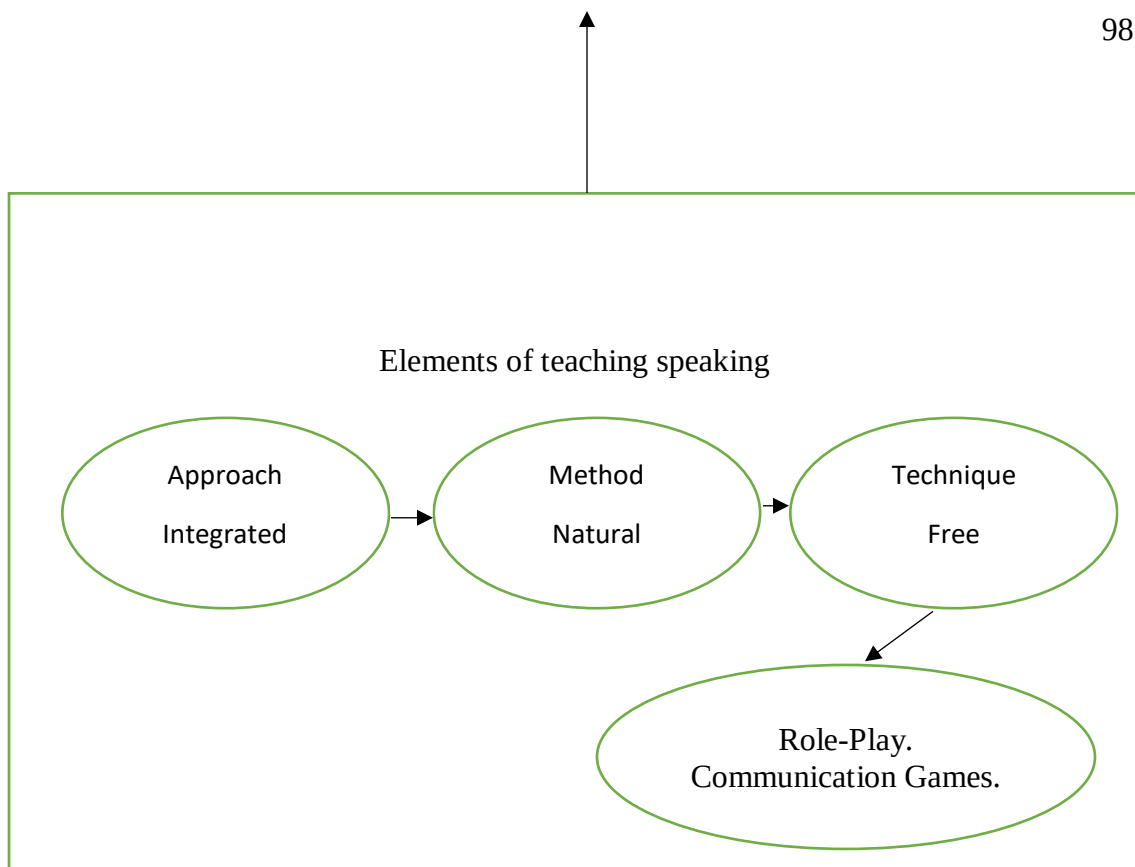
When to use games?

As games are of invaluable technique for learning to take place, they should be, therefore, at the heart of teaching foreign languages. They should be used at all stages of the lesson, provided that they are suitable and carefully chosen (Uberman, 1998: 3).

2.3. Frame of Thought

On the basis of the above discussion, the researcher constructed his research frame work as follows:





The approach used in this study was “Integrated Approach” / combined, balanced approach or communicative approach or natural approach. The selection of the integrated approach in this research was based on functional view and interactional view of language. While the method adopted was “Direct or Natural” method as it corresponds to the integrated approach, and the technique applied was “Free-Technique” since it is relevant with the natural method. Moreover, the application of free-technique was undertaken through Role-Play and Communication Games.

2.4. Research Hypothesis

H0 (null hypothesis): Matching teaching with learning styles does not affect speaking proficiency of the students at IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon.

CHAPTER III

This chapter deals with research method, research participants, research variables, data collection, data analysis, research site, and research time line.

3.1. Research Method

True experimental designs

There are several variants of the ‘true’ experimental design, such as:

- The pre-test-post-test control and experimental group design
- The two control groups and one experimental group pre-test-post-test design
- The post-test control and experimental group design
- The post-test two experimental groups design
- The pre-test-post-test two treatment design
- The matched pairs design
- The factorial design
- The parametric design
- Repeated measures design

A ‘true’ experiment includes several key features:

- One or more control groups
- One or more experimental groups
- Random allocation to control and experimental groups
- Pre-test of the groups to ensure parity
- Post-test of the groups to see the effects on the dependent variables
- One or more interventions to the experimental group (s)
- Isolation, control and manipulation of the independent variables
- Non-contamination between the control and experimental groups

If an experiment does not possess all of these features then it is a quasi-experiment: it may look *as if* it is an experiment ('quasi' means as if) but it is not a true experiment, only a variant on it.

The symbols and conventions used in the research designs as mentioned above refers to Campbell and Stanley (1963):

- *X* represents the exposure of a group to an experimental variable or event, the effects of which are to be measured.
- *O* refers to the process of observation or measurement.
- *Xs* and *Os* in a given row are applied to the same persons.
- Left to right order indicates temporal sequence.
- *Xs* and *Os* vertical to one another are simultaneous.
- *R* indicates random assignment to separate treatment groups.
- Parallel rows unseparated by dashes represent comparison groups equated by randomization, while those separated by a dashed line represents group not equated by random assignment.

Based on the previous discussion, this research was conducted through a *quasi-experiment*. It is an experimental model using *the post-test two experimental groups design*. Here participants are randomly assigned to each of two experimental groups. Experimental group 1 receives intervention 1 and experimental group 2 receives intervention 2. Only post-tests are conducted on the two groups.

The design is:

Experimental 1	<i>R1</i>	<i>X1</i>	<i>O1</i>
Experimental 2	<i>R2</i>	<i>X2</i>	<i>O2</i>

(Cohen et.al., 2007: 275-278).

Randomization was done through a lottery.

Meaning of the symbols:

Experimental 1

R1 indicates Class A and C.

X1 refers to Role-Play.

O1 refers to students' speaking ability.

Experimental 2

R2 indicates Class B and D.

X2 refers to Communication Games.

O2 refers to students' speaking ability.

Research Design

Experimental Group 1	R1 Class A & C	X1 Role-Play	O1 Speaking Ability
Experimental Group 2	R2 Class B & D	X2 Communication Games	O2 Speaking Ability

This design was intended to identify the interaction effect that may occur if the subject deduces the desired result from looking at the post-test.

3.2. Subjects

The subjects of this study are the students of semester three at the IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon during the academic year of 2015/2016. Whereas the selection of the subjects was based on the researcher's appointment to teach Speaking for English Proficiency Test during semester three of 2015/2016.

3.3. Research Variables

An independent variable is the input variable, whereas the dependent variable is the outcome – result (Cohen et.al., 2007: 272). In this study the *independent variable* is “matching teaching with learning styles” which is implemented through Role-Play and Communication Games techniques, and the *dependent variable* is students’ speaking ability.

3.4. Data Collection

The study combines both qualitative and quantitative methods in collecting research data which include test of spoken English, questionnaires on learning styles for both participants in experimental groups.

3.5. Instrument

This study uses two types of instruments which were administered before and after treatment, they are questionnaires and Test of Spoken English. The instruments which were used before treatment include: questionnaire to investigate students’ learning style, questionnaire on learner problem to speak English, and questionnaire on instructional strategies preferences among the students. Whereas, the instruments used after treatment consist of Test of Spoken English and questionnaire on students’ response on the implementation Role-Play and Communication Games Techniques.

1. Instrument for learning styles identification

In this study, an adapted version of Willing’s (1988: 106) questionnaire on “How do you learn best” is administered to identify students’ learning style preferences of both male and female. Moreover, it is to illustrate how the findings can help lecturers design learning tasks.

There are four types of learners identified by Willing (1988) through this questionnaire namely analytical learners, communicative learners, concrete learners and teacher-oriented learners. Nunan (1999: 57) explicitly defined the four learner types with reference to their preference over learning tasks:

Type1: Analytical learners

These learners like studying grammar, studying English books and reading newspapers, studying alone, finding their own mistakes and working on problems set by the teacher.

Type2: Communicative learners

These students like to learn by watching, listening to native speakers, talking to friends in English and watching television in English, using English out of class in shops, trains, etc., learning new words by hearing them, and learning by conversations.

Type3: Concrete learners

These learners tend to like games, pictures, films, video, using cassettes, talking in pairs and practicing English outside class.

Type4: Teacher-oriented learners

These learners prefer the teacher to explain everything, like to have their own text book, to write everything in a note book, to study grammar, learn by reading, and learn new words by seeing them.

The questionnaire is modified slightly and translated into Indonesian language to help the subjects understand the matter. It consisted of 30 questions originally then it is modified purposely by the researcher to 24 items. Willing's (1988: 106) questionnaire was selected because it is more comprehensive to identify learner types and the learning methods described in the questionnaire are applicable and relevant to language learning context. It is, therefore, of great practical usefulness to language teachers in particular.

Another reason was that it is reliable and valid since it was used by two other researchers such as Belinda Ho (1999) and Adam Rekrut (2001).

2. Speaking proficiency test instrument.

A test of spoken English is administered to investigate students' language proficiency that include such components as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and content. For this purpose, a weighting system is introduced.

Weighting is a procedure by which marks are awarded out of the same total for the different mark categories, and these marks are then multiplied by different factors to give them more, or less, influence in the total score. The weighting system in this study is:

Grammar	marked out of 10 then multiplied by 3
Vocabulary	marked out of 10 then multiplied by 3
Pronunciation	marked out of 10 then multiplied by 2
Fluency, Style	marked out of 10 then multiplied by 1
Content	marked out of 10 then multiplied by 1

In order to get a description of what that typical learner at each level can do, a rating scale for general spoken English is used in this study.

A rating scale for general spoken English

Level 1: Very limited personal conversation.

Knows formulaic greeting and some vocabulary.

Cannot construct correct simple sentences.

Level 2: Personal and limited social conversation.

Can answer simple questions about personal topics correctly in present and past tenses.

Has difficulty with question formation.

Vocabulary still very limited.

Level 3: Basic competence for social and travel uses.

Has basic command of all simple tenses and can operate question and negative forms.

Shows awareness of perfect forms but makes errors in using them.

Familiar with common concrete vocabulary: still searches for words.

Level 4: Elementary professional competence.

Makes effective use of all tenses, including past vs perfect and simple vs continuous distinctions; occasional errors in tense forms.

Fully active concrete vocabulary and larger passive vocabulary.

Level 5: General proficiency on all familiar and common topics; may be at a loss for words on other topics, but is able to paraphrase successfully.

Can produce correct complex sentences; very rare errors in structural forms, but makes errors of idiom or collocation.

Level 6: Makes fewer errors but is only slightly more fluent (Underhill, 1987: 98-100).

3.6. Data analysis

In order to answer the previous research questions on students' learning style, and which instructional activities suit students' learning styles diversity the questions on the questionnaire were categorized into four groups according to the learning style preferences of the four learner types identified by Willing(1988).The data is analysed by adding up the scores of the subjects obtained under each category of questions. Thus, each subject had four scores. The highest score among the four scores obtained indicated what type of learner a subject belonged to. In cases where the subjects obtained two or more tied scores, they were not categorized into any learner type. They were called the "mixed type" or "combined type".

Whereas to analyze the effectiveness of matching teaching with learning style to teach speaking, researcher uses paired t-test independent, ANOVA, analytic inductive methods for both qualitative and quantitative data.

3.7. Research Site

This research takes place at Institut Agama Islam Negeri “Syekh Nurjati Cirebon”. Specifically, it was done among the students of Department of English Language Teaching.

3.8. Research Timeline

No.	Activities	Month & Week															
		August				September				October				November			
		1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
I.	1. Administrative preparation	x	x	x													
	2. Applying for official Research permission			x													
	3. Designing Research Instrument			x													
II	1. Data Collection				x	x	x	x	x								
	2. Data Analysis							x	x								
	3. Progress Report								x								
III	1. Preparing for a rough draft									x							
	2. Research Seminar									x	x						
	3. Preparing for a final report										x	x	x				
IV	Submitting a final report													x	x	x	x

CHAPTER IV

This chapter focuses on two major discussions: results and discussion.

4.1. Results

In this section the research findings are presented including Learner Types, Typical Learner Problem to Speak English in and outside the classroom, Instructional Strategies and Students' Preferences, Test of Spoken English, and Students' Response on the use of Role-Play and Communication Games.

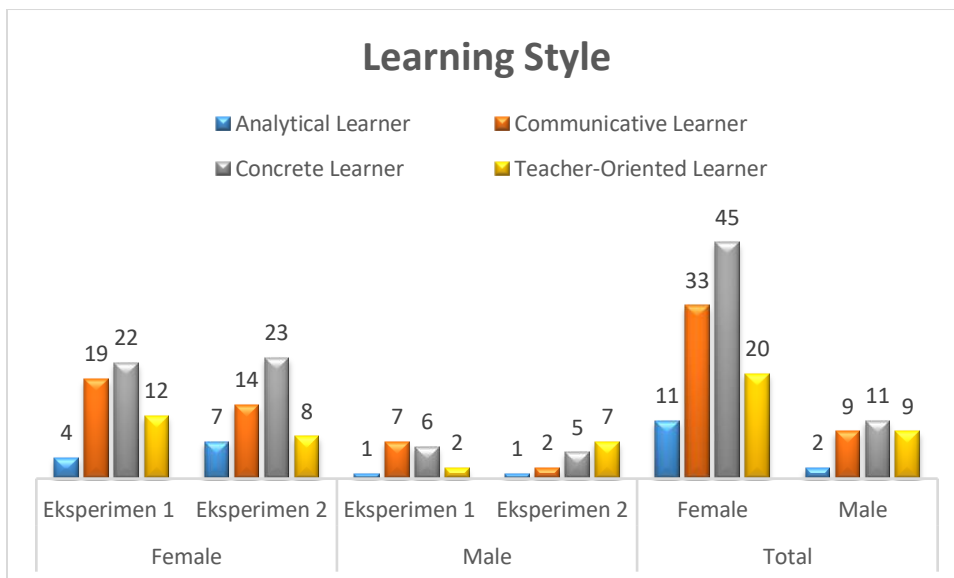
4.1.1. Learner Types

On the basis of an adapted version of Willing's (1988: 106) questionnaire on "How do you learn best" developed by Nunan (1999: 57), the research participants exhibit learning styles differences as seen in the following table.

Table 1: Learning Styles

	Female		Male		Total	
	Ex 1	Ex 2	Ex 1	Ex 2	Female	Male
Analytical Learner	4	7	1	1	11	2
Communicative Learner	19	14	7	2	33	9
Concrete Learner	22	23	6	5	45	11
Teacher-Oriented Learner	12	8	2	7	20	9
Total	57	52	16	15	109	31

	Female		Male	
	Ex 1	Ex 2	Ex 1	Ex 2
Analytical Learner	7%	13%	6%	7%
Communicative Learner	33%	27%	44%	13%
Concrete Learner	39%	44%	38%	33%
Teacher-Oriented Learner	21%	15%	13%	47%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%



The above table shows how male and female students in the two experimental groups prefer to learn. There are four (7%) female learners in the experimental group 1 belongs to “analytical type. Whereas, seven (13%) female learners in the experimental group 2 belongs to “analytical type. While nineteen (33%) female learners in the

experimental group 1 are categorised as “communicative type”. Fourteen (27%) female learners in the experimental group 2, on the other hand, are “communicative type”. Twenty two (39%) female learners in the experimental group 1 are called “concrete type”. And, twenty three (44%) female learners in the experimental group 2 are “concrete type”. Twelve (21%) female learners in the experimental group 1 belongs to “Teacher Oriented Learner”. Whereas, eight (15%) female learners in the experimental group 2 belongs to “Teacher Oriented Learner”.

Unlike female learners, male students in both experimental group 1 and 2, show different learning styles. Only 1 male student in both experimental group 1 and 2 considered as “analytical learner”. Whereas, seven (44%) male students in the experimental group 1 belong to “communicative type”. And, only two students in the experimental group 2 are classified as “communicative type”. “Concrete learner” in the experimental group 1 consists of 6 (38%) male students. While, five (33%) male students in the experimental group 2, are “concrete learner”. And, “teacher-oriented” learner includes two (13%) male students in the experimental group 1. Seven (47%) male students in the experimental group 2, on the other hand, belong to “Concrete learner”.

In short, the findings tell, that there are 11 female and 2 male “analytical type”, 33 female and 9 male students are “communicative type”, 45 female and 11 male students are “Concrete learner”, and 20 female and 9 male students are “teacher-oriented” learner. Both female and male students in the two experimental groups are dominantly “concrete learner” and “communicative type” respectively.

This results, support previous findings in this context, in which most of female students in Senior High School are “communicative type”, and male students are “teacher-oriented” learner (Kamiluddin, 2013: 59).

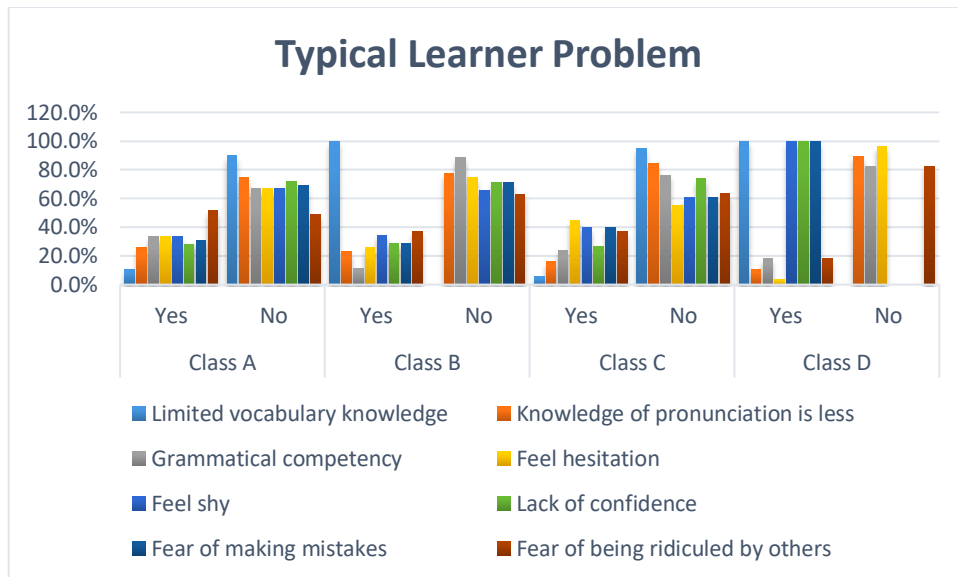
4.1.2. Typical Learner Problem to Speak English in and outside the classroom

According to the questionnaire on typical learner problem to speak English in and outside the classroom that consists of vocabulary knowledge, knowledge of pronunciation, grammatical competency, confidence, and dare to exercise language, the participants in this research show different problem (s) as shown in the following table.

Table 2a: Typical Learner Problem to Speak English in and outside the classroom among the students in Class A, B, C, and D

Typical Learner problem	Class A		Class B		Class C		Class D	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Limited vocabulary knowledge	10.3 %	89.7 %	100.0 %	0.0%	5.3%	94.7 %	100.0 %	0.0%
Knowledge of pronunciation is less	25.6 %	74.4 %	22.9 %	77.1 %	15.8 %	84.2 %	10.7 %	89.3 %
Grammatical competency	33.3 %	66.7 %	11.4 %	88.6 %	23.7 %	76.3 %	17.9 %	82.1 %
Feel hesitation	33.3 %	66.7 %	25.7 %	74.3 %	44.7 %	55.3 %	3.6%	96.4 %
Feel shy	33.3 %	66.7 %	34.2 %	65.7 %	39.5 %	60.5 %	100.0 %	0.0%
Lack of confidence	28.2 %	71.8 %	28.6 %	71.4 %	26.3 %	73.7 %	100.0 %	0.0%
Fear of making mistakes	30.8 %	69.2 %	28.6 %	71.4 %	39.5 %	60.5 %	100.0 %	0.0%
Fear of being ridiculed by others	51.3 %	48.7 %	37.1 %	62.9 %	36.8 %	63.2 %	17.9 %	82.1 %

Typical Learner problem	Class A		Class B		Class C		Class D	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Limited vocabulary knowledge	10.3%	89.7%	100.0%	0.0%	5.3%	94.7%	100.0%	0.0%
Knowledge of pronunciation is less	25.6%	74.4%	22.9%	77.1%	15.8%	84.2%	10.7%	89.3%
Grammatical competency	33.3%	66.7%	11.4%	88.6%	23.7%	76.3%	17.9%	82.1%
Feel hesitation	33.3%	66.7%	25.7%	74.3%	44.7%	55.3%	3.6%	96.4%
Feel shy	33.3%	66.7%	34.2%	65.7%	39.5%	60.5%	100.0%	0.0%
Lack of confidence	28.2%	71.8%	28.6%	71.4%	26.3%	73.7%	100.0%	0.0%
Fear of making mistakes	30.8%	69.2%	28.6%	71.4%	39.5%	60.5%	100.0%	0.0%
Fear of being ridiculed by others	51.3%	48.7%	37.1%	62.9%	36.8%	63.2%	17.9%	82.1%



There are two major problems that class A students experience when they are performing spoken language. First, 33% of them face grammatical problem, and 51.3% students fear of being ridiculed by others. By contrast, class B students face 100% hinderance of vocabulary knowledge when they speak English with their peers. Another primary factor is that 48.7% of them fear of being ridiculed by others. Similarly, the highest percentage (100%) of class D students have the problem of vocabulary knowledge. Whereas, 39% of class C students hesitate to use the target language and most of (39.5%) them feel shy to speak English in the classroom. It seems, that class C students do not face linguistic problems.

Table 2b: Typical Learner Problem to Speak English in and outside the classroom among the students in the Experimental Groups 1 and 2.

Typical Learner problem	Experiment 1		Experiment 2	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Limited vocabulary knowledge	7.8%	92.2%	100.0%	0.0%
Knowledge of pronunciation is less	20.7%	79.3%	16.8%	83.2%
Grammatical competency	28.5%	71.5%	14.7%	85.4%
Feel hesitation	39.0%	61.0%	14.7%	85.4%
Feel shy	36.4%	63.6%	67.1%	32.9%
Lack of confidence	27.3%	72.8%	64.3%	35.7%
Fear of making mistakes	35.2%	64.9%	64.3%	35.7%
Fear of being ridiculed by others	44.1%	56.0%	27.5%	72.5%
Total	238.9%	561.2%	369.3%	430.7%

Contrasting the data in the two experimental groups shown in the table 2 b, the findings reveal that 100% students in the experimental group 2 face vocabulary knowledge, while students in the experimental group 1, by contrast, only 7.8% have similar problem. However, most of (44.1%) students in the experimental group 1 fear of being ridiculed by others. Most of (67.1%) students in the experimental group 2, on the other hand, feel shy to speak English in and outside the classroom. It can be drawn from this data that, most of the students feel insecure, that is, fear of being ridiculed by others while learning a foreign language, and they feel shy to speak English in and outside the classroom.

4.1.3. Instructional Strategies and Students' Preferences

The following data on Instructional Strategies and Students' Preferences were collected through questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered to investigate the students' preferences on instructional strategies that, a teacher, likely to employ in the classroom including: Role-Play, Communication Games, Group Discussion, Conversation, Morning Talk, Morning Report, Debate, Group Presentation.

Table 3a:

Instructional Strategies	Class A			
	1	2	3	4
Role-Play	2%	12%	46%	41%
Communication Games	0%	9%	30%	61%
Group Discussion	2%	16%	54%	29%
Conversation (in pairs)	0%	13%	36%	51%
Morning Talk (Speech)	10%	51%	25%	14%
Morning Report	4%	41%	46%	9%
Debate	3%	45%	22%	30%
Group Presentation	3%	21%	54%	23%

Table 3b:

Instructional Strategies	Class B			
	1	2	3	4
Role-Play	1%	15%	39%	45%
Communication Games	1%	2%	29%	68%
Group Discussion	2%	23%	50%	25%
Conversation (in pairs)	0%	7%	67%	26%

Morning Talk (Speech)	2%	34%	55%	9%
Morning Report	4%	53%	38%	5%
Debate	9%	53%	16%	21%
Group Presentation	5%	35%	46%	14%

Table 3c:

Instructional Strategies	Class C			
	1	2	3	4
Role-Play	3%	26%	41%	29%
Communication Games	0%	12%	47%	41%
Group Discussion	0%	24%	56%	21%
Conversation (in pairs)	0%	15%	23%	32%
Morning Talk (Speech)	15%	41%	35%	9%
Morning Report	9%	56%	32%	3%
Debate	15%	68%	12%	6%
Group Presentation	3%	50%	44%	3%

Table 3d:

Instructional Strategies	Class D			
	1	2	3	4
Role-Play	7%	25%	38%	32%
Communication Games	11%	14%	33%	40%
Group Discussion	4%	28%	43%	25%
Conversation (in pairs)	0%	29%	46%	25%
Morning Talk (Speech)	0%	57%	36%	7%
Morning Report	7%	71%	14%	7%

Debate	46%	36%	14%	4%
Group Presentation	4%	57%	29%	11%

Table 3 a, b, c, and d show different preferences with regard to instructional strategies that the students like a teacher to employ during classroom activities. Specifically, both class A (61% of students) and B (68% students) prefer Communication Games. Whereas, class C (56% students) prefer Group Discussion, and class D (46%) prefer Conversation in pairs.

Table 3e: A comparison of students' preferences on instructional strategies used by teacher in the classroom activities.

Instructional Strategies	Experimental Group 1		Experimental Group 2	
	like	dislike	like	dislike
Role-Play	39%	11%	39%	12%
Communication Games	45%	5%	43%	7%
Group Discussion	40%	11%	36%	14%
Conversation (in pairs)	36%	7%	41%	9%
Morning Talk (Speech)	21%	29%	27%	23%
Morning Report	23%	28%	16%	34%
Debate	18%	33%	14%	36%
Group Presentation	31%	19%	25%	25%

Contrasting the data in the two experimental groups shown in the table 3e, the findings reveal that students in both experimental group 1 (45%) and group 2 (43%)

prefer Communication Games as a teaching strategy used in the classroom. Role-Play, on the other side, was the second preference among the students.

4.1.4. Students' Response on the use of Role-Play and Communication Games in teaching Speaking.

Upon completion of the treatment, the students in the experimental groups 1 and 2 were asked whether the use of Role-Play and Communication Games has improved their vocabulary knowledge, knowledge of pronunciation, grammatical competence, self-confidence, decreased shyness, hesitation, fear of making mistakes, and fear of being ridiculed by others.

Table 4 a: Role-Play Method

Class	item 1	item 2	item 3	item 4	item 5	item 6	item 7	item 8	median
A	2.6	2.6	2.2	2.8	2.5	2.1	2.5	2.3	2.5
C	2.2	2.2	1.8	2.4	2.0	2.1	1.9	2.1	2.1

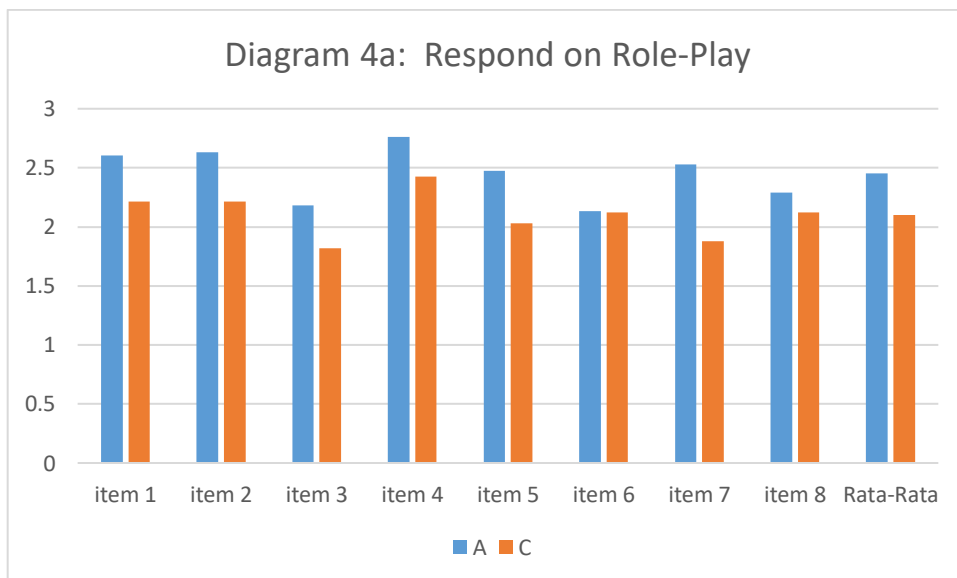
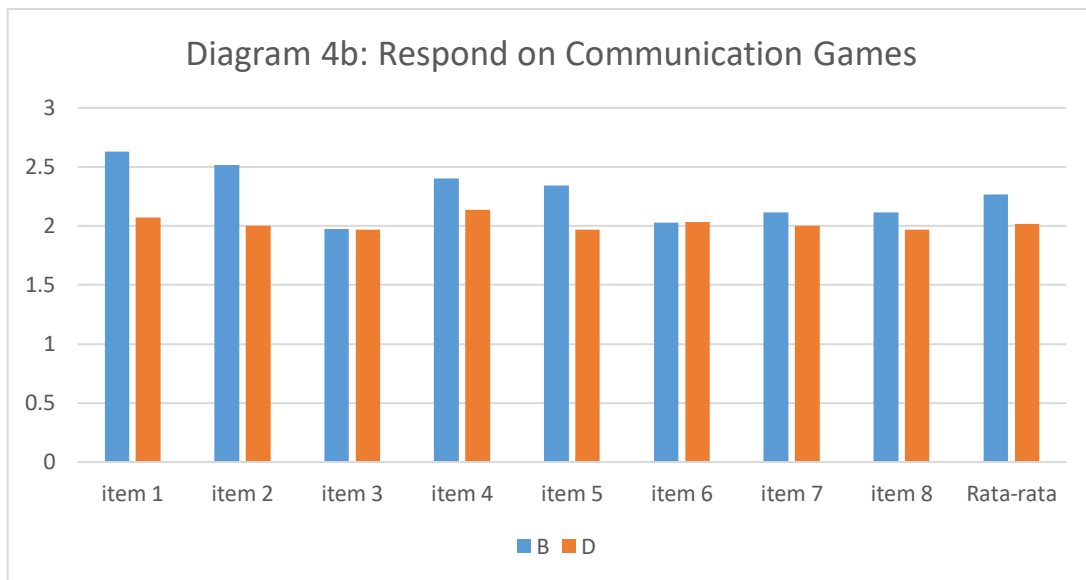
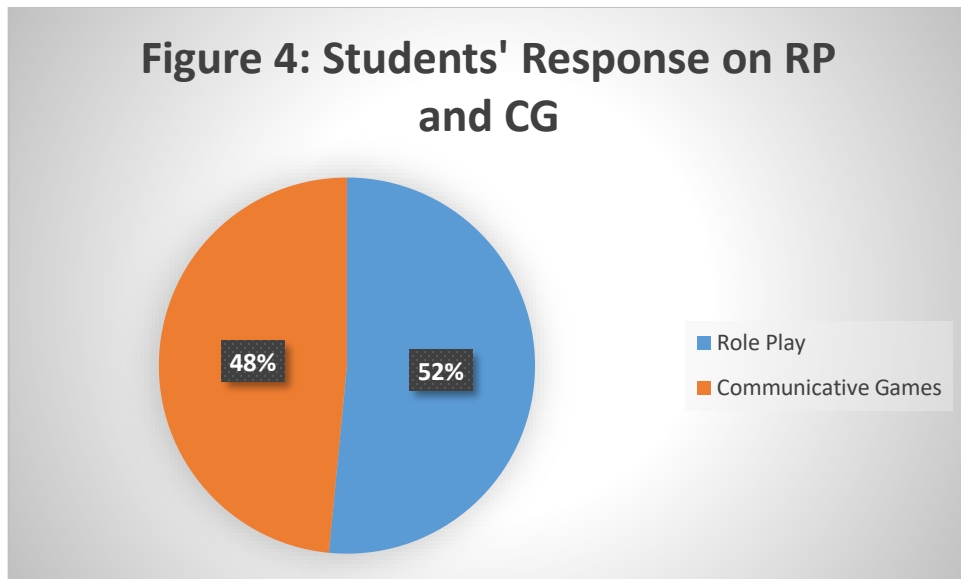


Table 4b: Communication Games

Class	item 1	item 2	item 3	item 4	item 5	item 6	item 7	item 8	median
B	2.6	2.5	2.0	2.4	2.3	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.3
D	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0





According to the tables 4 a, b, and figure 4 that 52% of the students in the experimental group 1 responded positively on the use of Role-Play. Role-Play has contributed significantly to enhance the students' vocabulary knowledge, knowledge of pronunciation, grammatical competence, self-confidence, and decreased shyness, hesitation, fear of making mistakes, and fear of being ridiculed by others. Whereas, 48% of the students in the experimental group 2 responded positively on the use Communication Games. Communication Games have contributed significantly to enhance the students' vocabulary knowledge, knowledge of pronunciation, grammatical competence, self-confidence, and decreased shyness, hesitation, fear of making mistakes, and fear of being ridiculed by others. However, it is believed that Role-Play contributed more than Communication Games.

4.1.5. Test of Spoken English

Comparison of Speaking Skills among various learning styles in the Experimental Group 1 (RP) and the Experimental Group 1 (CG)

Table 4a:

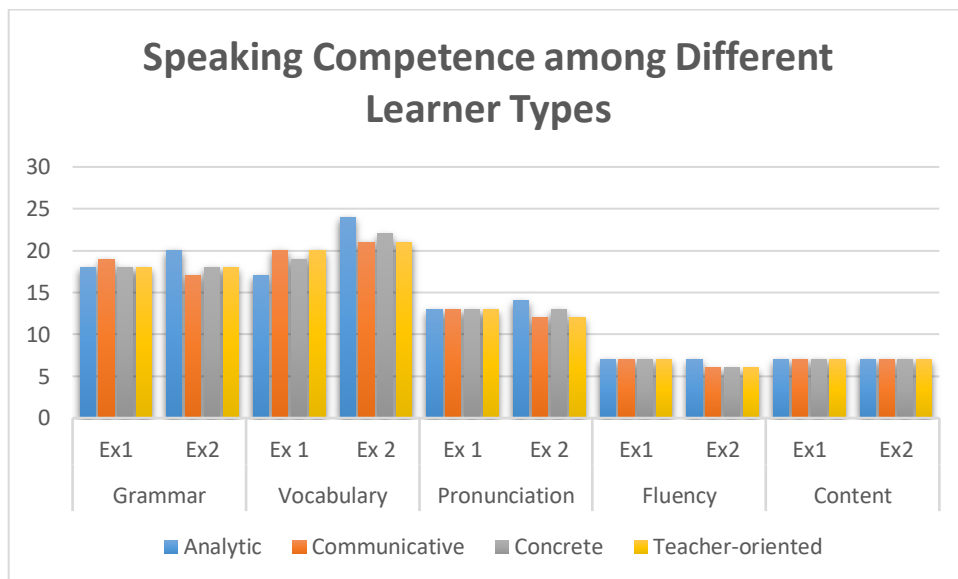
	Grammar		Vocabulary		Pronunciation		Fluency		Content	
	Ex1	Ex2	Ex 1	Ex 2	Ex 1	Ex 2	Ex1	Ex2	Ex1	Ex2
Analytic	18	20	17	24	13	14	7	7	7	7
Communicative	19	17	20	21	13	12	7	6	7	7
Concrete	18	18	19	22	13	13	7	6	7	7
Teacher-oriented	18	18	20	21	13	12	7	6	7	7

Ex 1 = was taught through Role- Play

Ex 2 = was taught through Communication Games

- “Analytical learners” in the experimental group 2 achieved better grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation (linguistic knowledge) than other learner types (Communicative, Concrete, and Teacher-Oriented). This confirms, that analytical learners are characterised as those who like to study grammar, and hence enhanced them to get better linguistic knowledge (grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation) than other learner types (Communicative, Concrete, and Teacher-Oriented). Moreover, “analytical learners” in the experimental group 2 are ahead of their peers: Communicative, Concrete, and Teacher-Oriented learners in terms of fluency (linguistic skill) competence.
- All the four learner types (Analytical learners, Communicative learners, Concrete learners, and Teacher-oriented learners in the experimental group 2 obtained better achievement in vocabulary competence than their peers in the experimental group 1.

- All the four learner types (Analytical learners, Communicative learners, Concrete learners, and Teacher-oriented learners in the experimental group 1, on the other side, secured better achievement in fluency competence than their peers in the experimental group 2.
- Thus, Communication Games helped the learners achieved better speaking skills, especially it can improve students' vocabulary knowledge.
- Role-Play, on the other hand, boosts students' fluency of all learner types.



Learning Styles vs Speaking Competence

Does learning style affect and / or correlate with speaking skills among the students participating in the research?

Table 4b: Speaking competence among various learner types in the experimental group 1.

ANOVA

Experimental Group 1		Sum of Squares	Dr	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Grammar	Between Groups	1,207	3	,402	,061	,980
	Within Groups	448,293	68	6,593		
	Total	449,500	71			
Vocabulary	Between Groups	31,543	3	10,514	,959	,417
	Within Groups	745,735	68	10,967		
	Total	777,278	71			
Pronunciation	Between Groups	1,634	3	,545	,241	,867
	Within Groups	153,685	68	2,260		
	Total	155,319	71			
Fluency	Between Groups	,777	3	,259	,463	,709
	Within Groups	38,098	68	,560		
	Total	38,875	71			
Content	Between Groups	,053	3	,018	,032	,992
	Within Groups	37,892	68	,557		
	Total	37,944	71			

Theoretically, it is said that an effect exists when sig is less than 0,05.

Table 4b reveals the learning styles (analytical type, communicative type, concrete type, and teacher oriented type) do not affect the students' speaking skills of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and content among the participants in the experimental group 1.

Table 4c: Speaking competence among various learner types in the experimental group 2

ANOVA

Experimental Group 2		Sum of Squares	Dr	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Grammar	Between Groups	36,956	3	12,319	1,135	,342
	Within Groups	661,905	61	10,851		
	Total	698,862	64			
Vocabulary	Between Groups	49,189	3	16,396	,591	,623
	Within Groups	1692,258	61	27,742		
	Total	1741,446	64			
Pronunciation	Between Groups	18,099	3	6,033	1,772	,162
	Within Groups	207,685	61	3,405		
	Total	225,785	64			
Fluency	Between Groups	3,214	3	1,071	,985	,406
	Within Groups	66,386	61	1,088		
	Total	69,600	64			
Content	Between Groups	2,019	3	,673	,703	,554
	Within Groups	58,381	61	,957		
	Total	60,400	64			

Theoretically, it is said that an effect exists when sig is less than 0,05.

Table 4b reveals the learning styles (analytical type, communicative type, concrete type, and teacher oriented type) do not affect the students' speaking skills of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and content among the participants in the experimental group 2.

To simply understand the effect of learning styles on the students' speaking skill, the following table 4d reveals:

Table 4d: Learning Styles vs Speaking Competence

	Experiment Group 1				
	Grammar	Vocabulary	Pronunciation	Fluency	Content
Learner Type	X	X	X	X	X
	Experiment Group 2				
	Grammar	Vocabulary	Pronunciation	Fluency	Content
Learner Type	X	X	X	X	X

Remarks

√ : There is an effect of learning styles (analytical type, communicative type, concrete type, and teacher oriented type) on the students' speaking skills of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and content among the participants in the experimental group 1 or 2.

X : There is no effect of learning styles (analytical type, communicative type, concrete type, and teacher oriented type) on the students' speaking skills of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and content among the participants in the experimental group 1 or 2.

Based on the previous analysis, it is evident that learning styles do not affect the students' speaking skills of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and content.

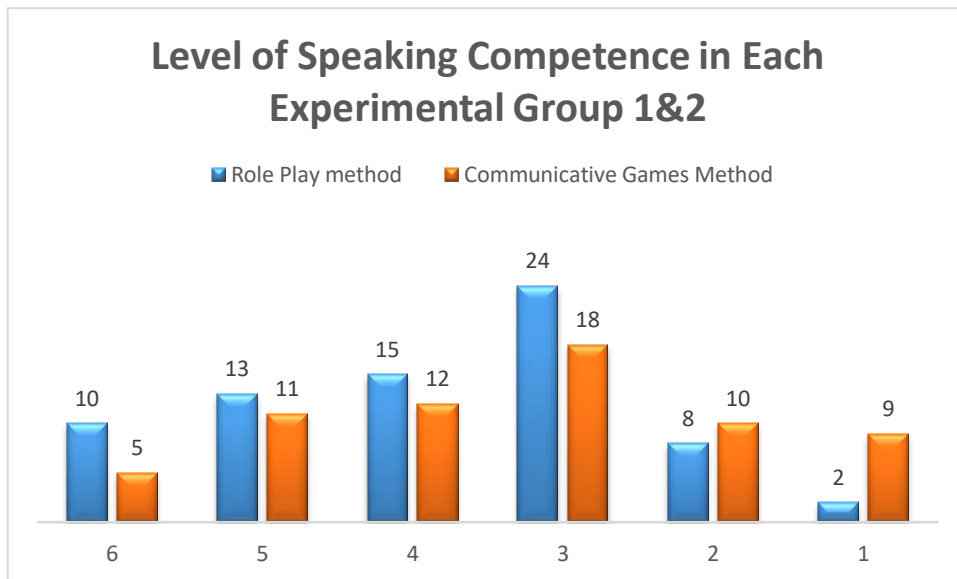
Table 4e: Speaking Competence of the students in the experimental group 1 and 2 and the Instructional Strategies: Role-Play & Communication Games

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Speaking Competence	Equal variances assumed	4,054	,046	,653	135	,515	1,05427	1,61393	-2,13759	4,24613
	Equal variances not assumed			,642	112,459	,522	1,05427	1,64338	-2,20174	4,31028

Table 4e indicates significant value of t-test is 0,653. As the significant value is less than 0,05 or $0,653 < 0,05$, it can be concluded that the instructional strategies: Role-Play and Communication Games do not affect the students speaking skills.

Table 4e: Level of Speaking Skills to which the students in the experimental group 1 and 2 are compared

*Level	Ex 1 Role Play method (total number of students)	Ex 2 Communicative Games Method (total number of students)
6*	10	5
5*	13	11
4*	15	12
3*	24	18
2*	8	10
1*	2	9



* Rating scale for general spoken English

*Level

Level 1: Very limited personal conversation.

Knows formulaic greeting and some vocabulary.

Cannot construct correct simple sentences.

Level 2: Personal and limited social conversation.

Can answer simple questions about personal topics correctly in present and past tenses.

Has difficulty with question formation.

Vocabulary still very limited.

Level 3: Basic competence for social and travel uses.

Has basic command of all simple tenses and can operate question and negative forms.

Shows awareness of perfect forms but makes errors in using them.

Familiar with common concrete vocabulary: still searches for words.

Level 4: Elementary professional competence.

Makes effective use of all tenses, including past vs perfect and simple vs continuous distinctions; occasional errors in tense forms.

Fully active concrete vocabulary and larger passive vocabulary.

Level 5: General proficiency on all familiar and common topics; may be at a loss for words on other topics, but is able to paraphrase successfully.

Can produce correct complex sentences; very rare errors in structural forms, but makes errors of idiom or collocation.

Level 6: Makes fewer errors but is only slightly more fluent.

(Underhill, 1987: 98-100).

- With regard to the level of speaking skill upon completion of the treatment, it is obvious that there is the difference between the level of speaking skills among the students in the experimental group 1 and 2.
- There are ten students (13.69%) in the experimental group 1 who are placed in level 6 which mean they make fewer errors but is only slightly more fluent. By contrast, there are nine (13.84) students in the experimental group placed in

level 1 which means they cannot construct correct simple sentences, they can perform very limited personal conversation, and know formulaic greeting and some vocabulary.

In other words, Role-Play Method is more effective than Communication Games in developing the students' speaking skills.

4.2. Discussions

Having analyzed the data from different angles, this study reveals that some factors such as sex affect learning style. Boys and girls learn differently. Boys and girls have preferences for different ways of knowing (E.C. Wragg, 2004: 78, Pasiak, 2006: 62).

The Myers-Briggs research (Lawrence, 1979/1982/1993) cited in Guild and Garger (1998: 139) revealed that women tend to be on the feeling end of the thinking/feeling continuum while men are more likely to be close to the thinking end, with a 60% to 40% differentiation. Women are generally to behave with more feeling types of characteristics and thus are reinforced for those behaviors. Boys are more kinesthetic than girls. However, the current research does not offer substantial evidence that style is innately different for each sex (Guild and Garger, 1998: 139).

Girls prefer learning tasks that related to real situations, gave time for thinking and discussion, open-ended, and project-based type, whereas males prefer memorizing abstract facts and rules (E.C. Wragg, 2004: 78). Female students use social learning strategies significantly than boys (Lee Kyung Ok, 1998: 10). The most popular class activities that male students prefer include films and video; conversations; having own textbook; reading. Females like conversations; having own textbook; games; films and video (Rusdi in Cahyono and Widiarti, 2004: 184). Boys' class activities preference differs from that of girls.

Studies suggest forming single sex education. It can be in separate school or both sexes are separated where they are taught (Koen, 2005: 183). Pasiak (2006: 62) on other hand states it is not the matter of separation among boys and girls, rather the issue of understanding students thinking and learning style.

The previous studies specifically pointed out that girls are better than boys (Sunderland, 2004) because girls have more effective social interaction skills and strategies developed since an early age (Hall, 2011: 133, Lee Kyung Ok, 1998: 10). Susan Bentham, 2006: 89 supports that girls do better at English for boys perceived English as a feminine subject; girls were exposed to exploration of personal experience and feelings in stories and poetry on the one hand, boys prefer reading non-fiction works on the other.

Another reason of why girls are ahead of boys in foreign language studies is that girls show positive attitude to (enjoy) learning foreign language; boys prefer science subject, girls are more careful and planned approach to learning foreign language than boys, girls like social interaction (oral skill), boys prefer learning foreign language by speaking it, girls prefer listening, but they benefit more from language input (Graham, 1997: 100-101).

From sex perspective, males like to be teacher oriented whereas female prefer communicative style.

Surprisingly, this findings report that the research participants exhibit similar learning style: both female and male students are concrete learners. Concrete types tend to like games, pictures, films, video, using cassettes, talking in pairs, practicing English outside class.

The reason for students' preferences may be related to their past experiences in learning English at least starting from Junior School. Education system in Indonesia is characterized by examination-oriented in which most students, especially those who in the final year are trained through intensive drills on past or sample examination papers.

Another reason was as it was believed that teachers' teaching style can be categorized as expert type who preferred teaching methods such as didactic lectures, technology-based presentation, teacher-centered questioning and discussion. A teacher who is categorized as expert type possesses knowledge and expertise that students need. The expert type strives to maintain a status as an expert among students by demonstrating detailed knowledge and by challenging them to enhance their competence. He/she is concerned with transformation information to students and insuring them that they are well-prepared (Grasha, 1996: 154).

Moreover, research supports that teachers teach the way they learned (Stitt-Gohdes 2001: 136 cited in Brown 2003: 1). Similarly, according to Dunn and Dunn (1979: 241), and Witkin: 1973; Gregorc: 1979 cited in Raven et al. (1993: 40), that "teachers teach the way they learned". The way most of Indonesian teachers teach was greatly influenced by their way of learning. Even the way they teach is the way they learn.

Since a number of teachers have experienced academic success in learning environments that were teacher-centered and relied heavily on lecture and textbook, therefore, their preferred teaching style would be to repeat what worked with them. Those teachers are categorized as field-independent type, that is who are more content-oriented and prefer to use more formal teaching methods, favoring less student participation in learning to take place and more structured class activities. This style of teaching especially suits field-dependent students who prefer to be told what they should learn and given the resources to acquire the specified body of knowledge or skills (Brown, 2003: 1). In this study, field-dependent learner is called teacher-oriented learner.

With regard to the current interesting findings which say that learning styles (analytical type, communicative type, concrete type, and teacher oriented type) do not affect the students' speaking skills of grammar, vocabulary,

pronunciation, fluency, and content among the participants in the experimental groups 1 and 2. This suggests that, Learning styles is value neutral (Reid 1995, p. xiii). It means that there is no better, best, good, or poor style. Most researchers discuss the potential positives and negatives of various patterns of style. For example, Witkin and Goodenough observe that

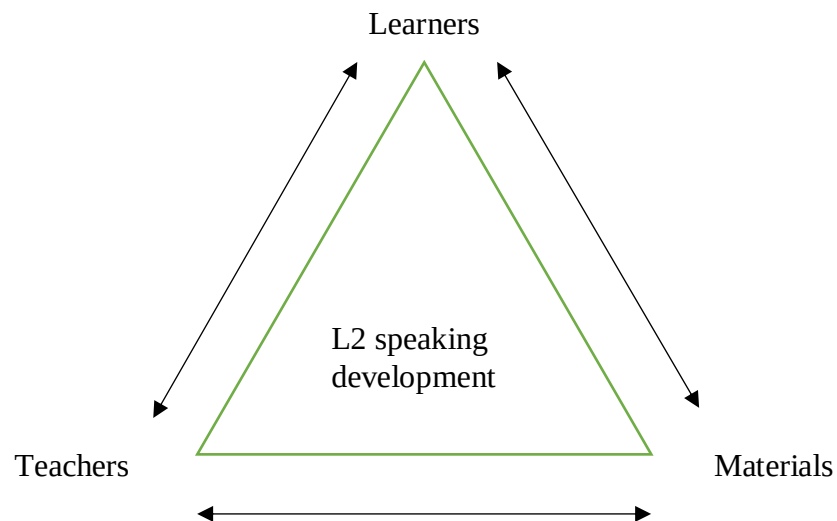
... the field dependence-independence dimension is bipolar with regard to level, in the sense that it does not have clear “high” and “low” ends. Its bipolarity makes the dimension values neutral, in the sense that each people has qualities that are adaptive in particular circumstances.... We thus see that field dependence and field independence are not inherently “good” or “bad.” (1981: 59) cited in Guild and Garger (1998: 139).

Therefore, a learning style might be effective for a certain instructional activities but less effective for others. Moreover, learners should develop knowledge of styles, in order to be aware of their own preferences and abilities, and use them in different instructional activities (Uzuntiryaki, 2007: 25).

And that the instructional strategies: Role-Play and Communication Games do not affect the students speaking skills. This, empirically supports the four factors that can have a significant impact on the success of language teaching programs. First, institutional factors include the school’s organization culture and its approach to the maintenance of educational quality. Second, teacher factors include the skills and qualifications of teachers and the level of professional support provided. Third, teaching factors include the philosophy of teaching reflected in the program and how good teaching is supported and maintained. Learning factors include learners’ views of the program as well as learning styles and motivations and how these are addressed within the program (Ricaards, 2001: 373-412).

Goh and Burns (2012: 6) state the interrelationships between the three key factors in successful second language speaking development. Learners are positioned at the apex of the triangle to indicate that their learning needs, goals, and outcomes are the most important considerations. However, they can only achieve their objectives if they are supported by well-informed teachers and effective materials.

Three key success factors in second language speaking development



Relevant with the above assertion is that “the most important elements in teaching-learning transactions are the learners” (Bernard, 1972: 45). Teaching is a triadic relationship made up of three critical and constant elements: teacher, student, and subject matter. Teaching demands more than a focus on the student. Teaching requires us to look at our subject matter when we decide on what actions to perform for and with the student. The determining factor for the teacher in the teaching triad is not the “whom” but the “what” which is the subject matter. This means that teaching is controlled by the subject matter (Clarizio, 1987: 183).

Appropriate selection of a technique or a method is crucial as to boost learning.

That is a method which works in the classroom

Another important finding is that “analytical learners” in the experimental group 2 achieved better grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation (linguistic knowledge) than other learner types (Communicative, Concrete, and Teacher-Oriented). This confirms, that analytical learners are characterised as those who like to study grammar, and hence enhanced them to get better linguistic knowledge (grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation) than other learner types (Communicative, Concrete, and Teacher-Oriented). Moreover, “analytical learners” in the experimental group 2 are ahead of their peers: Communicative, Concrete, and Teacher-Oriented learners in terms of fluency (linguistic skill) competence.

In other words, learning styles do not affect the students’ speaking skills of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and content.

CHAPTER V

This chapter consists of conclusion and recommendations.

5.1. Conclusion

This study concludes that as a theory confirms individuals learn in different ways. This difference occur among male and female leraners. Moreover, learning styles is value neutral. It means that there is no better, best, good, or poor style.

Therefore, a learning style might be effective for a certain instructional activities but less effective for others. Moreover, learners should develop knowledge of styles, in order to be aware of their own preferences and abilities, and use them in different instructional activities.

Surprisingly, in accordance with the questionnaire on learner problem, it was found that most the students in the experimental groups 1 and 2 feel insecure in the classroom, that fear of being ridiculed by others and feel shy to speak in the target language. It was suspected, they might face such problems as linguistic knowledge: grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

In addition, as the results of this research has shown that most of male and female leraners belong to concrete type, and that learning styles do not affect speaking skills, as well as both instructional strategies: Role-Play and Communication Games do not affect speaking skills.

5.2. Recommendations

Based on the previous discussion, the researcher has come to offer the following recommendations for the betterment of teaching speaking and for further research:

- It is strongly recommended to conduct a further research on applying multi techniques in the classroom in order to accommodate homogenities of the students.

Moreover, what is most important is to keep the proportion of the tasks that fit different learner types from the beginning of course. The proportion of the tasks can be adjusted

according to the learning style preferences of the students as identified through the questionnaire.

It is probably beyond the abilities of most teachers both in terms of time allocation as well as teaching facilities and to a certain extent due to pedagogical knowledge to design instructional activities that accommodate learning styles' diversities. However, they can cater to variation in the nature of their students' learning styles by adopting a flexible teaching approach involving a variety of learning activities.

It is vital to adopt the philosophy accommodating students' diversity. For that purpose teachers should:

- include learning tasks that suit all types of learners in a course
- design learning tasks with an equitable range of activities so that all learners can be accommodated (Kinsella (1996:30 as cited in Ho, 1999: 62) .
- The students, on the other hand, need to be aware of the significance of an ability to apply different learning styles. In other words, they need to cope with different situations to learning. Since the more capable a person to adapt and adopt various styles, the more he/she might be successful in learning.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Questionnaire on Learning Styles.

Dimohon kesediaan anda mengisi “questionnaire” terlampir untuk mengidentifikasi “*gaya belajar*”. Instrument ini akan dipergunakan sebagai data penelitian penulis tentang:

*The Effect of Matching Teaching with Learning Styles on the Student's Speaking Skill
at “IAIN” Syekh Nurjati Cirebon)*

Jika ingin mengetahui tipologi belajar yang dominan pada diri anda, dapat menanyakannya langsung setelah mengisi questionnaire ini atau via e-mail ke kamilvirgo@gmail.com atau via SMS ke 08156177655

Penulis mengucapkan terima kasih atas partisipasi anda.

Cirebon, 27 Agustus 2015

Peneliti

Drs. H. Udin Kamiluddin, M.Sc

No. : _____ (Jangan diisi)

Nama : _____

Jenis kelamin : Laki-laki/Perempuan

Kelas&Peminatan : _____

Bahasa Ibu : _____

Waktu/Jam Pelajaran ke : Pkl. _____ / _____

Total Skor Tertinggi : _____ Tipologi: _____

Total Skor Terendah : _____ Tipologi: _____

I. BAGAIMANA **CARA BELAJAR BAHASA INGGRIS** YANG ANDA SUKAI?

Lingkarilah skor pada bagian kanan pernyataan di bawah ini. Bobot skor yang anda lingkari menunjukkan tingkat kesukaan anda saat belajar.

1 = Tidak suka. 2 = Kurang suka. 3 = Suka. 4 = Sangat suka

Tipologi I	Pernyataan	Skor			
1	Saya suka belajar grammar.	1	2	3	4
2	Di rumah, saya suka belajar menggunakan buku bahasa Inggris.	1	2	3	4
3	Saya suka belajar bahasa Inggris sendiri.	1	2	3	4
4	Saya menyukai guru yang memberi kesempatan menemukan kesalahan secara mandiri.	1	2	3	4
5	Saya menyukai guru yang memberi masalah yang harus diselesaikan.	1	2	3	4
6	Di rumah, saya suka menambah pengetahuan dengan membaca surat kabar.	1	2	3	4
	Jumlah				

Tipologi II	Pernyataan	Skor			
1	Saya suka belajar dengan memperhatikan dan menyimak percakapan penutur asli.	1	2	3	4
2	Saya suka belajar melalui percakapan dalam bahasa Inggris dengan teman-teman.	1	2	3	4
3	Di rumah, jika boleh memilih, saya suka belajar dengan melihat TV dan/atau video berbahasa Inggris.	1	2	3	4
4	Saya suka belajar dengan menggunakan bahasa Inggris di luar kelas.	1	2	3	4
5	Saya suka belajar kosa kata baru bahasa Inggris dengan mendengarkannya.	1	2	3	4
6	Saya suka belajar melalui percakapan.	1	2	3	4
	Jumlah				
Tipologi III	Pernyataan	Skor			
1	Di kelas, saya suka belajar melalui permainan.	1	2	3	4
2	Di kelas, saya suka belajar dengan melihat gambar, film, dan tayangan video.	1	2	3	4
3	Saya suka belajar bahasa Inggris dengan percakapan secara berpasangan.	1	2	3	4
4	Di rumah, saya suka belajar dengan mendengarkan kaset.	1	2	3	4
5	Di kelas, saya suka belajar dengan mendengarkan dan menggunakan kaset.	1	2	3	4

6	Saya suka menggunakan bahasa Inggris bersama teman sekelas di luar kelas.	1	2	3	4
	Jumlah				
Tipologi IV	Pernyataan	Skor			
1	Saya suka jika guru menjelaskan segalanya kepada siswa.	1	2	3	4
2	Saya suka menulis setiap pelajaran dalam buku catatan.	1	2	3	4
3	Saya suka memiliki buku pelajaran sendiri ketika belajar.	1	2	3	4
4	Di kelas, saya suka belajar dengan membaca.	1	2	3	4
5	Saya suka belajar grammar.	1	2	3	4
6	Saya suka belajar kosa kata baru dengan melihat tulisannya.	1	2	3	4
	Jumlah				

Macam-macam tipologi siswa menurut David Nunan dalam *Second Language Teaching & Learning*

(1999:57), Massachusetts: Heinle and Heinle.

1. Analytical learner (siswa analitis)

Ciri-cirinya:

- (1) Suka belajar grammar
- (2) Suka mempelajari buku berbahasa Inggris
- (3) Suka membaca surat kabar
- (4) Suka belajar sendiri
- (5) Suka menemukan kesalahan pada jawabannya

(6) Suka menyelesaikan masalah yang diberikan oleh guru

2. Communicative learner (siswa komunikatif)

Ciri-cirinya

(1) Suka belajar dengan melihat suatu tayangan

(2) Suka belajar dengan mendengarkan penutur asli

(3) Suka bercakap-cakap dengan temannya dalam bahasa Inggris

(4) Suka menonton acara TV berbahasa Inggris

(5) Suka menggunakan bahasa Inggris di luar kelas, seperti di toko, kereta api dan lain-lain

(6) Suka belajar kosa kata baru dengan cara mendengarkan bunyinya

(7) Suka belajar melalui percakapan

3. Concrete learner (siswa yang konkrit)

Ciri-cirinya

(1) Suka belajar melalui permainan

(2) Suka belajar dengan menggunakan gambar

(3) Suka belajar dengan menonton film

(4) Suka belajar dengan melihat video

(5) Suka belajar dengan menggunakan kaset

(6) Suka bercakap-cakap secara berpasangan

(7) Suka mempraktekkan bahasa Inggris di luar kelas

4. Teacher-oriented learner (siswa yang tergantung kepada guru)

Ciri-cirinya

(1) Suka terhadap guru yang menjelaskan segalanya kepada siswa

(2) Suka memiliki buku teksnya sendiri

(3) Suka mencatat setiap pelajarannya pada buku

(4) Suka belajar grammar

(5) Suka belajar dengan membaca

(6) Suka belajar kosa kata baru dengan cara melihatnya

Appendix 2: Questionnaire on Learner Problem to Speak English.

Name : Signature :

Semester & Class : Date :

Complete this questionnaire, please!

Cross the optional answer in the right column

Your data are very useful for the betterment of teaching and learning speaking in this semester (2015/2016) and the future.

1. Do you face difficulties to speak English in and or outside class due to the following factors?

1	Limited vocabulary knowledge	Yes	No
2	Knowledge of pronunciation is less	Yes	No
3	Grammatical competency	Yes	No
4	Feel hesitation	Yes	No
5	Feel shy	Yes	No
6	Lack of confidence	Yes	No
7	Fear of making mistakes	Yes	No
8	Fear of being ridiculed by others	Yes	No

Appendix 3: Questionnaire on Students' Instructional Strategies Preferences.

1. Which of the following speaking class activities do you prefer during the semester?

1	Role-Play	4	3	2	1
2	Communication Games	4	3	2	1
3	Group Discussion	4	3	2	1
4	Conversation (in pairs)	4	3	2	1
5	Morning Talk (Speech)	4	3	2	1
6	Morning Report	4	3	2	1

7	Debate	4	3	2	1
8	Group Presentation	4	3	2	1

Notes

4: you like it very much

3: you like it

2: you like it a little bit

1: you do not like it

Appendix 4: Questionnaire on Students' Response on the use of Role-Play and Communication Games

Name : Signature :

Semester & Class : Date :

Complete this questionnaire, please!

Circle the number 3 (very much), 2 (a little), or 1 (very little) in the right column.

Your data are very useful for the betterment of teaching and learning speaking in the future in general and for my research in particular.

2. Has **Role-Play** method helped you improve

1	vocabulary knowledge	3	2	1
2	knowledge of pronunciation	3	2	1
3	grammatical competency	3	2	1
4	self-confidence	3	2	1

2. Has **Role-Play** method helped you decrease

1	shyness	3	2	1
2	hesitation	3	2	1
3	fear of making mistakes	3	2	1

4	fear of being ridiculed by others	3	2	1
---	-----------------------------------	---	---	---

Name : Signature :

Semester & Class: Date :

Circle the number 3 (very much), 2 (a little), or 1 (very little) in the right column.

1. Has **Communication Games** method helped you improve

1	vocabulary knowledge	3	2	1
2	knowledge of pronunciation	3	2	1
3	grammatical competency	3	2	1
4	self-confidence	3	2	1

2. Has **Communication Games** method helped you decrease

1	shyness	3	2	1
2	hesitation	3	2	1
3	fear of making mistakes	3	2	1
4	fear of being ridiculed by others	3	2	1

Appendix 5: Weighting System and Rating Scale on Test of Spoken English

Weighting system:

Grammar	marked out of 10 then multiplied by 3
Vocabulary	marked out of 10 then multiplied by 3
Pronunciation	marked out of 10 then multiplied by 2
Fluency, Style	marked out of 10 then multiplied by 1
Content	marked out of 10 then multiplied by 1

Rating scale for general spoken English

Level 1: Very limited personal conversation.

Knows formulaic greeting and some vocabulary.

Cannot construct correct simple sentences.

Level 2: Personal and limited social conversation.

Can answer simple questions about personal topics correctly in present and past tenses.

Has difficulty with question formation.

Vocabulary still very limited.

Level 3: Basic competence for social and travel uses.

Has basic command of all simple tenses and can operate question and negative forms.

Shows awareness of perfect forms but makes errors in using them.

Familiar with common concrete vocabulary: still searches for words.

Level 4: Elementary professional competence.

Makes effective use of all tenses, including past vs perfect and simple vs continuous distinctions; occasional errors in tense forms.

Fully active concrete vocabulary and larger passive vocabulary.

Level 5: General proficiency on all familiar and common topics; may be at a

loss for words on other topics, but is able to paraphrase successfully.

Can produce correct complex sentences; very rare errors in structural forms, but makes errors of idiom or collocation.

Level 6: Makes fewer errors but is only slightly more fluent.

(Underhill, 1987: 98-100).

Appendix 6: Students' Learning Styles.

Class: PBI A

Semester 3

No	Name of the student	Learner type	Minimum type
1	Afifah	IV. Teacher-oriented	II. Communicative
2	Alfian Subrata	II. Communicative	IV. Teacher-oriented
3	Azhar Sausani Fatin	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
4	Badiuzzaman	III. Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented
5	Deni Dzulfaqori Nasrullah	II. Communicative III. Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented
6	Desi Nurazimi	III. Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented
7	Desi Rostika	II. Communicative	III. Concrete
8	Diah Tilass	II. Communicative IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
9	Dunaiyah	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
10	Dzurrotyn Nimah Aliyah	II. Communicative	I. Analytic III. Concrete
11	Eryani Suhandari	III. Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented
12	Faisal Ibnu Affan	III. Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented
13	Febriyano Ramadhan	II. Communicative	I. Analytic IV. Teacher-oriented
14	Fidia Astuti	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
15	Fifta Haifa	III. Concrete	I. Analytic

16	Ghina Mahya Amalia	II. Communicative III. Concrete	I. Analytic
17	Hayatunnisa	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
18	Heni Pujiastuti	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
19	Hidayatul Hikmah	IV. Teacher-oriented	II. Communicative
20	Ikhwanudin	II. Communicative	I. Analytic IV. Teacher-oriented
21	Ina Uminawati	II. Communicative	IV. Teacher- oriented
22	Indri Novita	III. Concrete	II. Communicative
23	Kiky Maria Fransiska	I. Analytic	III. Concrete
24	Laeli Khiyaroh	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
25	Malikah	II. Communicative III. Concrete	I. Analytic
26	Manisah	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
27	Meglin	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
28	Misyfa Bayani Tasya	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
29	Muhammad Guruh Nuary	II. Communicative	III. Concrete
30	Nur'anani	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
31	Pretty Anisatun Asaksiyah	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
32	Siti Aisyah	III. Concrete	I. Analytic II. Communicative
33	Siti Fajriyah Mahmudah	II. Communicative	I. Analytic IV. Teacher-oriented
34	Siti Kholilah	I. Analytic	III. Concrete
35	Siti Komariah	IV. Teacher-oriented	III. Concrete
36	Sukanta	II. Communicative	I. Analytic

37	Tareq Khoirun	II. Communicative III. Concrete	I. Analytic
38	Vianty Wulandari	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
39	Zannatun Aliyah	III. Concrete	I. Analytic

Class: PBI B

Semester 3

No	Name of the student	Learner type	Minimum type
1	Ade Lidiya Ningsih	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic II. Communicative
2	Adinda Indah Mawarni	I. Analytic II. Communicative	III. Concrete
3	Agus Triyono		
4	Ari Fahrurroji	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
5	Bagus Prasetyo	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
6	Elis Mikdariah	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
7	Fadliyah	II. Communicative	IV. Teacher- oriented
8	Galih Rakasiwi	III. Concrete	IV. Teacher- oriented
9	Hayatun Nufus		
10	Iah Mafichah	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
11	Ibrahim Guntur Nuary	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
12	Icha Sholichah	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
13	Idhatyn Masshabrina	III. Concrete	I. Analytic IV. Teacher-oriented
14	Imas	IV. Teacher-oriented	II. Communicative

15	Kitfi Yanti	III. Concrete	I. Analytic IV. Teacher-oriented
16	Laelatul Latifah	II. Communicative IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
17	Lailatus Salamah	III. Concrete IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
18	Laily Aprilia	I. Analytic	III. Concrete
19	Linda Eka Lestari	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
20	Lydiana Saputri	III. Concrete	II. Communicative
21	Mahathir Akbar	IV. Teacher-oriented	III. Concrete
22	Millati Azka	III. Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented
23	Nia Meliana	III. Concrete IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
24	Novita Ershandi	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
25	Nur Faizah	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
26	Putri Amalia	II. Communicative IV. Teacher-oriented	1. Analytic III. Concrete
27	Putri Sugiarti	I. Analytic II. Communicative	IV. Teacher-oriented
28	Royanti	II. Communicative III. Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented
29	Sisca Nursholihat	III. Concrete	I. Analytic IV. Teacher-oriented
30	Siti Ayu Sholehah	III. Concrete	I. II. IV
31	Suci Mufaoka	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
32	Suelis	III. Concrete	I. Analytic

33	Taniya	I. Analytic	II. Communicative
34	Uswatun Khasanah	II. Communicative III. Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented
35	Yunani Evrianta	II. Communicative	I. Analytic

Class: PBI C

Semester 3

No	Name of the student	Learner type	Minimum type
1	Akhmad Muzakki	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
2	Amelia Tiffani Ramadhanti	III. Concrete	I. Analytic IV. Teacher-oriented
3	Aulia Al-Farisa	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
4	Ayu Humairoh Hakim	III. Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented
5	Bela Rosana	II. Communicative	IV. Teacher-oriented
6	Dede Sri Masriah	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
7	Dedi Supriyadi	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
8	Dini Avida Ulfi	III. Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented
9	Dody Syuhada	II. Communicative	I. Analytic IV. Teacher-oriented
10	E. Arief Mochamad Irfan	I. Analytic IV. Teacher-oriented	III. Concrete
11	Eka Dara Yulianti	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
12	Ely Ernawati	III. Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented

13	Eny Nur aeni	II. Communicative III. Concrete	I. Analytic
14	Fadillah	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
15	Farchati	IV. Teacher-oriented	II. Communicative
16	Gina Syifa Siti Nurrahmah	IV. Teacher-oriented	II. Communicative
17	Hilda Fasokha	I. Analytic II. Communicative	IV. Teacher- oriented
18	Indriani Minotti	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
19	Intan Hikmatul Latifah	III. Concrete IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
20	Irawati	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
21	Muhammad Faishal Hamami	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
22	Nadiyah Faizah	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
23	Nur Fathiyyah	II. Communicative III. Concrete	I. Analytic
24	Qurrota A'yun	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
25	Rifda Hana	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
26	Ropiyati	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
27	Saeful Anwar	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
28	Syifa Nurbaity Hasanah	I. Analytic	IV. Teacher- oriented
29	Syipa-urrahmah	II. Communicative III. Concrete	IV. Teacher- oriented
30	Ulfah	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
31	Uun Ruheni	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
32	Wiwit Nuraenah	II. Communicative	I. Analytic

33	Yuni Septia	IV. Teacher-oriented	II. Communicative
34	Yusuf Supriyatna		
35	Akhmad Muzakki	III. Concrete	I. Analytic

Class: PBI D

Semester 3

No	Name of the student	Learner type	Minimum type
1	Agus Sudrajat		
2	Aliyah Hikmah Khumairo	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
3	Alya Anis Ilahi	II. Communicative III. Concrete	I. Analytic
4	Anan Sonjaya		
5	Anifa Nurzana	I. Analytic IV. Teacher- oriented	III. Concrete
6	Anis Lidiya	I. Analytic	II. Communicative III. Concrete
7	Anni Rachmayani	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
8	Eka Putri Agustin	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
9	Futihatus Sholihah	III. Concrete	II. Communicative
10	Holisoh Nuril Hotimah	II. Communicative IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
11	Imam Hanafi		
12	Imro'atun Khoeriyah	I. Analytic	IV. Teacher- oriented
13	Imron Asofi	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
14	Intan Monalisa	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
15	Jaenudin	IV. Teacher-oriented	III. Concrete
16	Khusnul Khotimah	IV. Teacher-oriented	III. Concrete

17	Latifah	III. Concrete	II. Communicative
18	Lusi Apriantini	II. Communicative III. Concrete	I. Analytic
19	Mohammad Haris A.	III. Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented
20	Mohammad Rizky Maulana	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
21	Muhammad Ibnu Hidayah		
22	Mu'minina Sabila	III. Concrete	I. Analytic IV. Teacher-oriented
23	Mutiawati	II. Communicative	III. Concrete
24	Nining Suryaningsih		
25	Nur Hikmah	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
26	Nur Jannah	II. Communicative	IV. Teacher-oriented
27	Rahmat Al-Bayan	I. Analytic III. Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented
28	Rina Silvia	II. Communicative	III. Concrete
29	Siti Khodijah	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
30	Sri Nurani	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
31	Ulfah	II. Communicative	IV. Teacher-oriented
32	Ulfie Murni Zahrotul Qulaebi	III. Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented
33	Windy Wulandari	III. Concrete	I. Analytic

1. Analytical Learner 2. Communicative Learner 3. Concrete Learner 4. Teacher-Oriented Learner

Appendix 7: Learners' Problem to Speak English.in and outside the Classroom

Class: PBI A

Semester 3

No.	Name of the Student	Learner Problems							
		1*	2*	3*	4*	5*	6*	7*	8*
1	Afifah	√	×	×	√	√	√	√	×
2	Alfian Subrata	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
3	Azhar Sausani Fatin	√	×	×	√	×	√	√	×
4	Badiuzzaman	√	√	√	×	×	×	×	×
5	Deni Dzulfaqori Nasrullah	×	×	×	√	×	√	×	×
6	Desi Nurazimi	√	√	√	×	√	√	√	×
7	Desi Rostika	√	√	×	√	√	√	√	×
8	Diah Tilass	√	√	√	×	√	√	√	√
9	Dunaiyah	√	√	√	√	√	×	×	√
10	Dzurrotyn Nimah Aliyah	√	√	√	√	×	√	×	×
11	Eryani Suhandari	√	√	√	×	×	×	√	×
12	Faisal Ibnu Affan	√	×	×	√	×	×	√	×
13	Febriyano Ramadhan	√	√	√	×	×	×	×	×
14	Fidia Astuti	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
15	Fifta Haifa	√	√	√	×	×	×	√	×
16	Ghina Mahya Amalia	√	√	×	√	√	√	√	×
17	Hayatunnisa	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
18	Heni Pujiastuti	√	×	√	√	√	×	×	√
19	Hidayatul Hikmah	√	√	√	×	√	√	√	√

20	Ikhwanudin	√	×	×	√	√	√	√	×
21	Ina Uminawati	√	√	√	×	√	√	√	×
22	Indri Novita	√	×	√	√	√	√	√	√
23	Kiky Maria Fransiska	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
24	Laeli Khiyaroh	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
25	Malikah	√	√	×	√	×	√	√	×
26	Manisah	√	√	×	√	√	×	√	√
27	Meglin	√	√	√	×	√	√	√	√
28	Misyfa Bayani Tasya	×	×	√	√	√	√	√	√
29	Muhammad Guruh Nuary	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
30	Nur'anani	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
31	Pretty Anisatun Asaksiyah	√	√	×	√	√	√	√	√
32	Siti Aisyah	√	√	√	×	√	√	√	√
33	Siti Fajriyah Mahmudah	√	×	√	√	√	√	√	√
34	Siti Kholilah	√	√	√	√	×	×	×	×
35	Siti Komariah	√	√	×	√	√	√	×	×
36	Sukanta	√	√	√	×	×	×	×	×
37	Tareq Khoirun	√	√	√	×	√	√	×	√
38	Vianty Wulandari	×	√	×	√	×	√	√	×
39	Zannatun Aliyah	√	√	√	√	√	√	×	√

Class: PBI B

Semester 3

No.	Name of the Student	Learner Problems							
		1*	2*	3*	4*	5*	6*	7*	8*

1	Ade Lidiya Ningsih	√	√	√	√	×	√	√	√
2	Adinda Indah Mawarni	√	√	√	×	×	×	√	×
3	Agus Triyono	√	√	√	√	×	√	√	√
4	Ari Fahrurroji	√	×	√	×	√	×	×	×
5	Bagus Prasetyo	√	√	√	×	×	×	×	×
6	Elis Mikdariah	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
7	Fadliyah	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
8	Galih Rakasiwi	√	√	√	√	×	×	√	√
9	Hayatun Nufus	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
10	Iah Mafichah	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
11	Ibrahim Guntur Nuary	√	√	√	×	×	√	×	√
12	Icha Sholichah	√	√	×	√	√	√	√	√
13	Idhatyn Masshabrina	√	×	√	√	√	×	×	×
14	Imas	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
15	Kitfi Yanti	√	√	√	×	×	√	√	√
16	Laelatul Latifah	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
17	Lailatus Salamah	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
18	Laily Aprilia	√	×	√	√	√	√	√	×
19	Linda Eka Lestari	√	√	√	√	√	√	×	×
20	Lydiana Saputri	√	×	√	√	√	√	√	×
21	Mahathir Akbar	√	√	√	×	√	×	×	×
22	Millati Azka	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
23	Nia Meliana	√	√	×	√	√	√	√	√
24	Novita Ershandi	√	√	√	×	×	√	√	√
25	Nur Faizah	√	×	×	√	×	×	√	×

26	Putri Amalia	√	×	√	√	√	√	√	√
27	Putri Sugiarti	√	√	√	√	√	√	×	×
28	Royanti	√	×		×	√	×	√	√
29	Sisca Nursholihat	√	√	√	√	×	√	×	√
30	Siti Ayu Sholehah	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
31	Suci Mufaoka	√	√	√	×	√	×	√	√
32	Suelis	√	√	√	√	√	√	×	√
33	Taniya	√	×	√	√	√	√	√	×
34	Uswatun Khasanah	√	√	√	√	×	√	√	×
35	Yunani Evrianta	√	√	√	√	×	×	×	×

Class: PBI C

Semester 3

No.	Name of the Student	Learner Problems							
		1*	2*	3*	4*	5*	6*	7*	8*
1	Akhmad Muzakki	√	√	×	√	√	×	√	√
2	Amelia Tiffani Ramadhanti	√	√	√	×	×	×	×	×
3	Aulia Al Farisa	√	×	√	×	×	√	√	×
4	Ayu Humairoh Hakim	√	√	√	×	×	×	√	×
5	Bela Rosana	√	×	√	×	√	√	×	√
6	Dede Sri Masriah	√	√	×	√	√	√	×	×
7	Dedi Supriyadi	√	√	√	√	×	×	×	×
8	Dini Avida Ulfi	√	√	√	×	√	×	×	×
9	Dody syuhada	√	×	×	×	×	√	×	√
10	E. Arief Mochamad Irfan	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√

11	Eka Dara Yulianti	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
12	Ely Ernawati	√	√	×	√	×	√	√	√
13	Eny Nur Aeni	√	√	√	×	√	√	×	√
14	Fadillah	×	√	×	√	√	√	×	√
15	Farchati	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
16	Gina Syifa Siti Nurrahmah	√	√	√	×	√	√	√	√
17	Hilda Fasokha	√	×	√	√	×	√	√	×
18	Indriani Minotti	√	√	√	×	×	√	√	×
19	Intan Hikmatul Latifah	√	×	×	×	×	√	×	√
20	Irawati	√	√	√	√	×	×	×	×
21	Muhammad Faishal Hamami	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
22	Nadiyah Faizah	√	√	√	×	√	√	√	√
23	Nur Fathiyyah	√	×	√	√	√	√	√	√
24	Qurrota A'yun	√	√	√	√	×	×		×
25	Rifda Hana	√	√	√	×	√	√	√	√
26	Ropiyati	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
27	Saeful Anwar	√	√	×	×	×	×	×	√
28	Syifa Nurbaity Hasanah	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
29	Syipaurrehmah	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
30	Ulfah	√	√	√	×	√	√	√	×
31	Uun Ruheni	√	√	×	√	×	×	√	√
32	Wiwit Nuraenah	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
33	Yuni Septia	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√

34	Yusuf Supriyatna								
35	Zesy Alvisa	√	√	√	×	√	√	√	×

Class: PBI D

Semester 3

No.	Name of the Student	Learner Problems							
		1*	2*	3*	4*	5*	6*	7*	8*
1	Agus Sudrajat								
2	Aliyah Hikmah Khumairo	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
3	Alya Anis Ilahi	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	×
4	Anan Sonjaya								
5	Anifa Nurzana	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
6	Anis Lidiya	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	×
7	Anni Rachmayani	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
8	Eka Putri Agustin	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
9	Futihatus Sholihah	√	×	×	√	√	√	√	√
10	Holisoh Nuril Khotimah	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
11	Imam Hanafi								
12	Imro'atun Khoeriyah	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
13	Imron Asofi	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
14	Intan Monalisa	√	×	×	×	√	√	√	×
15	Jaenudin	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
16	Khusnul Khotimah	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
17	Latifah	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
18	Lusi Apriantini	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
19	Moh. Haris A	√	√	×	√	√	√	√	√

20	Moh. Rizky Maulana	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
21	Muhammad Ibnu Hidayah								
22	Mu'minina Sabila	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
23	Mutiawati	√	×	×	√	√	√	√	√
24	Nining Suryaningsih								
25	Nurhikmah	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
26	Nurjannah	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
27	Rahmat Al bayan	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
28	Rina Silvia	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
29	Siti Khodijah	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	×
30	Sri Nurani	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
31	Ulfah	√	√	×	√	√	√	√	×
32	Ulfie Murni Zahrotul Qulaebi	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
33	Windy Wulandari	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√

*

1	Limited vocabulary knowledge
2	Knowledge of pronunciation is less
3	Grammatical competency
4	Feel hesitation
5	Feel shy
6	Lack of confidence
7	Fear of making mistakes
8	Fear of being ridiculed by others

Appendix 8: Instructional Strategies and Student's Preferences

Class: PBI A

Semester 3

No .	Name of the Student	Instructional Strategies and Student's Preferences							
		1RP *	2CG* 	3GD *	4Conv *	5MT *	6MR *	7Db *	8GP *
1	Afifah	3	4	4	3	4	3	2	2
2	Alfian Subrata	3	4	3	4	2	3	1	4
3	Azhar Sausani Fatin	4	4	3	3	1	2	2	3
4	Badiuzzaman	3	4	3	3	2	2	3	4
5	Deni Dzulfaqori Nasrullah	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	4
6	Desi Nurazimi	2	3	2	4	3	3	2	3
7	Desi Rostika	4	2	1	4	2	2	2	3
8	Diah Tilass	2	3	3	3	2	2	2	3
9	Dunaiyah	3	2	2	4	4	3	2	2
10	Dzurrotyn Nimah Aliyah	4	3	2	4	2	3	2	2
11	Eryani Suhandari	3	4	2	2	2	3	2	3
12	Faisal Ibnu Affan	4	4	3	2	2	2	2	2
13	Febriyano Ramadhan	2	4	3	3	2	2	3	3
14	Fidia Astuti	3	3	4	3	2	2	2	2
15	Fifta Haifa	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	2
16	Ghina Mahya Amalia	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	2
17	Hayatunnisa	1	4	2	2	2	2	1	2
18	Heni Pujiastuti	1	2	3	2	2	3	4	2
19	Hidayatul Hikmah	2	2	3	2	2	2	3	3
20	Ikhwanudin	3	3	3	2	2	3	2	3

21	Ina Uminawati	3	4	2	3	1	1	2	3
22	Indri Novita	3	3	3	4	2	3	3	2
23	Kiky Maria Fransiska	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	3
24	Laeli Khiyaroh	4	4	2	3	3	2	2	3
25	Malikah	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4
26	Manisah	4	3	1	4	1	1	2	1
27	Meglin	3	4	2	4	2	2	2	3
28	Misyfa Bayani Tasya	2	3	3	3	2	2	2	2
29	Muhammad Guruh Nuary	2	2	3	3	2	3	3	3
30	Nur'anani	4	3	3	2	1	2	1	3
31	Pretty Anisatun Asaksiyah	3	4	3	4	1	2	2	4
32	Siti Aisyah	2	4	3	3	2	2	3	3
33	Siti Fajriyah Mahmudah	4	4	3	3	2	2	2	3
34	Siti Kholilah	4	3	3	2	2	2	2	3
35	Siti Komariah	3	3	3	3	3	3		3
36	Sukanta	3	2	4	4	1	1	4	1
37	Tareq Khoirun	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
38	Vianty Wulandari	3	4	4	4	1	1	3	3
39	Zannatun Aliyah	4	4	3	4	1	4	4	1

Class: PBI B

Semester 3

No.	Name of the Student	Instructional Strategies and Student's Preferences							
		1RP	2CG	3GD*	4Conv	5MT	6MR	7Db	8GP
		*	*		*	*	*	*	*

1	Ade Lidiya Ningsih	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	4
2	Adinda Indah Mawarni	4	4	3	3	1	2	3	1
3	Agus Triyono	4	4	2	2	2	1	1	2
4	Ari Fahrurroji	4	4	3	4	3	2	1	2
5	Bagus Prasetyo	4	4	2	3	2	2	1	3
6	Elis Mikdariah	1	4	3	3	2	2	3	2
7	Fadliyah	3	4	2	3	3	2	2	3
8	Galih Rakasiwi	4	4	1	3	2	1	1	1
9	Hayatun Nufus	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	3
10	Iah Mafichah	3	3	4	3	3	3	4	3
11	Ibrahim Guntur Nuary	4	4	4	3	3	2	2	4
12	Icha Sholichah	4	3	3	4	2	2	2	2
13	Idhatyn Masshabrina	4	4	3	3	2	1	1	2
14	Imas	3	3	2	3	2	3	2	2
15	Kitfi Yanti	4	3	3	3	2	2	3	2
16	Laelatul Latifah	3	4	3	3	3	2	2	3
17	Lailatus Salamah	3	4	4	3	3	2	2	3
18	Laily Aprilia	3	4	2	3	2	3	1	2
19	Linda Eka Lestari	3	4	1	2	2	2	2	2
20	Lydiana Saputri	2	4	3	4	3	3	2	2
21	Mahathir Akbar	2	3	3	3	2	3	2	3
22	Millati Azka	4	2	2	3	3	2	2	3
23	Nia Meliana	3	4	3	4	2	2	1	2
24	Novita Ershandi	2	3	4	3	3	2	2	2
25	Nur Faizah	4	4	2	3	4	4	2	2
26	Putri Amalia	4	3	2	2	1	2	2	3

27	Putri Sugiarti	2	1	3	3	3	3	2	1
28	Royanti	2	4	3	4	2	3	4	3
29	Sisca Nursholihat	2	3	3	3	3	2	2	2
30	Siti Ayu Sholehah	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	2
31	Suci Mufaoka	3	4	4	3	2	2	2	3
32	Suelis	2	3	2	2	3	3	2	1
33	Taniya	2	4	3	4	4	3	4	3
34	Uswatun Khasanah	3	4	2	4	3	2	2	3
35	Yunani Evrianta	3	4	4	3	3	2	4	4

Class: PBI C

Semester 3

No.	Name of the Student	Instructional Strategies and Student's Preferences							
		1RP	2CG	3GD*	4Conv	5MT	6MR	7Db	8GP
		*	*		*	*	*	*	*
1	Akhmad Muzakki	3	3	3	3	2	2	3	3
2	Amelia Tiffani Ramadhanti	4	4	4	3	2	3	2	3
3	Aulia Al-Farisa	4	2	3	3	1	2	2	3
4	Ayu Humairoh Hakim	3	4	2	3	4	3	2	3
5	Bela Rosana	4	4	4	3	3	3	2	2
6	Dede Sri Masriah	2	4	4	2	2	2	2	2
7	Dedi Supriyadi	4	3	2	4	3	3	4	3
8	Dini Avida Ulfi	4	4	3	4	3	3	2	3
9	Dody Syuhada	4	3	3	4	3	2	2	3
10	E. Arief Mochamad Irfan	4	3	3	3	2	2	2	1
11	Eka Dara Yulianti	3	2	4	4	4	2	1	2

12	Ely Ernawati	3	4	3	3	3	2	2	3
13	Eny Nur Aeni	4	2	3	3	3	2	2	2
14	Fadillah	2	3	4	4	1	2	1	2
15	Farchati	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	3
16	Gina Syifa Siti Nurrahmah	2	3	3	2	2	2	2	3
17	Hilda Fasokha	3	4	4	4	2	2	4	2
18	Indriani Minotti	2	3	3	4	2	2	3	3
19	Intan Hikmatul Latifah	3	4	4	4	2	3	3	2
20	Irawati	4	4	2	2	1	1	1	2
21	Muhammad Faishal Hamami	3	4	3	3	3	3	2	3
22	Nadiah Faizah	2	3	3	3	2	3	2	2
23	Nur Fathiyyah	1	3	3	2	1	1	2	3
24	Qurrota A'yun	4	3	2	4	4	4	2	2
25	Rifda Hana	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	2
26	Ropiyati	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	2
27	Saeful Anwar	3	4	3	3	2	2	2	3
28	Syifa Nurbaity Hasanah	3	3	3	4	3	2	2	2
29	Syipa-urrahmah	2	4	3	3	2	2	2	2
30	Ulfah	3	4	2	3	3	2	2	2
31	Uun Ruheni	2	4	3	4	2	1	1	4
32	Wiwit Nuraenah	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
33	Yuni Septia	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	2
34	Yusuf Supriyatna								

35	Zesy Alvisa	2	3	2	3	1	2	1	2
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Class: PBI D

Semester 3

No.	Name of the Student	Instructional Strategies and Student's Preferences							
		1RP *	2CG *	3GD*	4Conv *	5MT *	6MR *	7Db *	8GP *
1	Agus Sudrajat								
2	Aliyah Hikmah Khumairo	2	3	3	2	2	1	1	2
3	Alya Anis Ilahi	4	2	2	3	2	2	2	2
4	Anan Sonjaya								
5	Anifa Nurzana	4	1	3	2	2	1	1	2
6	Anis Lidiya	3	4	4	3	2	4	1	3
7	Anni Rachmayani	4	3	2	4	4	4	1	2
8	Eka Putri Agustin	3	4	2	3	3	3	2	2
9	Futihatus Sholihah	2	1	4	2	2	2	1	4
10	Holisoh Nuril Hotimah	3	4	3	4	3	3	1	2
11	Imam Hanafi								
12	Imro'atun Khoeriyah	3	2	4	4	3	2	3	4
13	Imron Asofi	1	1	2	2	3	2	3	2
14	Intan Monalisa	4	4	3	2	2	2	2	2
15	Jaenudin	2	3	3	3	3	2	1	3
16	Khusnul Khotimah	2	2	3	4	2	2	2	1
17	Latifah	4	4	3	3	2	2	2	2
18	Lusi Apriantini	4	3	2	4	3	3	2	2
19	Mohammad Haris A.	2	4	2	4	4	2	1	3

20	Mohammad Rizky Maulana	2	3	3	3	2	2	1	2
21	Muhammad Ibnu Hidayah								
22	Mu'minina Sabila	4		4	3	2	2	2	2
23	Mutiawati	3	2	4	2	2	2	2	3
24	Nining Suryaningsih								
25	Nur Hikmah	4	3	3	3	2	2	1	3
26	Nur Jannah	1	4	4	3	2	2	3	2
27	Rahmat Al- Bayan	2	3	4	2	2	3	4	3
28	Rina Silvia	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	2
29	Siti Khodijah	3	3	3	2	3	2	3	4
30	Sri Nurani	3	4	1	3	3	2	1	2
31	Ulfah	3	4	2	4	3	2	1	3
32	Ulfie Murni Zahrotul Qulaebi	4	4	2	3	3	2	2	3
33	Windy Wulandari	3	4	3	3	2	2	1	2

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1*	Role-Play	4	3	2	1
2*	Communication Games	4	3	2	1
3*	Group Discussion	4	3	2	1
4*	Conversation (in pairs)	4	3	2	1
5*	Morning Talk (Speech)	4	3	2	1
6*	Morning Report	4	3	2	1
7*	Debate	4	3	2	1
8*	Group Presentation	4	3	2	1

4: you like it very much

3: you like it

2: you like it a little bit

1: you do not like it

Appendix 9: Students' Response on the use of Role-Play and Communication Games

Students' Response on the use of **Role-Play Method** to teach Speaking for English

Proficiency Test

Class: PBI A

Semester 3

No.	Name of the Student	Students' Response							
		1*	2*	3*	4*	5*	6*	7*	8*
1	Afifah	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2
2	Alfian Subrata								
3	Azhar Sausani Fatin	3	2	2	3	3	2	3	3
4	Badiuzzaman	3	3	2	3	2	1	3	3
5	Deni Dzulfaqori Nasrullah	3	3	3	3	2	3	2	3
6	Desi Nurazimi	3	2	2	3	2	2	3	2
7	Desi Rostika	2	3	3	2	3	2	2	3
8	Diah Tilass	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	1
9	Dunaiyah	3	3	2	3	2	2	2	1
10	Dzurrotyn Nimah Aliyah	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	2
11	Eryani Suhandari	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3
12	Faisal Ibnu Affan	3	2	1	3	3	2	2	1
13	Febriyano Ramadhan	2	2	2	3	1	1	2	2
14	Fidia Astuti	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	3

15	Fifta Haifa	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	2
16	Ghina Mahya Amalia	3	3	3	3	2	2	3	3
17	Hayatunnisa	3	2	2	3	2	2	2	2
18	Heni Pujiastuti	2	3	1	3	2	2	3	3
19	Hidayatul Hikmah	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2
20	Ikhwanudin	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3
21	Ina Uminawati	3	3	2	2	2	2	3	2
22	Indri Novita	2	3	2	3	3	2	3	2
23	Kiky Maria Fransiska	3	3	2	3	2	2	2	2
24	Laeli Khiyaroh	2	1	2	2	2	2	3	2
25	Malikah	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	2
26	Manisah	3	3	2	3	3	2	3	2
27	Meglin	3	2	2	3	3	2	3	2
28	Misyfa Bayani Tasya	3	3	2	2	2	2	3	2
29	Muhammad Guruh Nuary	2	3	2	3	2	2	3	2
30	Nur'anani	2	3	2	2	2	2	3	2
31	Pretty Anisatun Asaksiyah	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
32	Siti Aisyah	3	3	2	2	3	2	3	2
33	Siti Fajriyah Mahmudah	3	3	3	2	2	2	3	2
34	Siti Kholilah	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	2
35	Siti Komariah	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	2
36	Sukanta	2	2	3	3	2	2	3	3
37	Tareq Khoirun	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	3
38	Vianty Wulandari	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3

39	Zannatun Aliyah	2	3	2	3	3	3	2	3
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Class: PBI C

Semester 3

No.	Name of the Student	Students' Response							
		1*	2*	3*	4*	5*	6*	7*	8*
1	Akhmad Muzakki	3	3	2	3	1	2	2	2
2	Amelia Tiffani Ramadhanti	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	2
3	Aulia Al Farisa	3	2	2	3	3	3	2	2
4	Ayu Humairoh Hakim	3	2	1	3	2	2	1	2
5	Bela Rosana	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
6	Dede Sri Masriah	3	2	3	2	2	2	2	2
7	Dedi Supriyadi	3	2	2	3	1	1	2	2
8	Dini Avida Ulfi	2	3	2	3	3	2	2	3
9	Dody Syuhada	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
10	E. Arief Mochamad Irfan	2	2	1	2	2	3	2	3
11	Eka Dara Yulianti	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3
12	Ely Ernawati	2	2	1	2	1	2	2	2
13	Eny Nur Aeni	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	2
14	Fadillah	2	2	1	2	2	2	1	2
15	Farchati	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
16	Gina Syifa Siti Nurrahmah	1	1	1	2	3	3	2	2
17	Hilda Fasokha	2	3	2	3	1	2	1	2
18	Indriani Minotti	2	3	2	2	2	1	2	3

19	Intan Hikmatul Latifah	2	3	2	3	3	2	2	3
20	Irawati	2	2	2	3	1	2	1	1
21	Muhammad Faishal Hamami	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
22	Nadiah Faizah	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
23	Nur Fathiyyah	2	1	1	2	3	2	2	2
24	Qurrota A'yun	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	3
25	Rifda Hana	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
26	Ropiyati	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
27	Saeful Anwar	2	2	1	3	1	2	2	2
28	Syifa Nurbaity Hasanah	2	3	2	2	2	1	2	2
29	Syipaurrahmah	2	1	1	2	1	2	2	2
30	Ulfah	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2
31	Uun Ruheni	2	3	2	3	1	2	2	1
32	Wiwit Nuraenah	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
33	Yuni Septia	3	2	3	2	2	2	1	2
34	Yusuf Supriyatna	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2
35	Zesy Alvisa	2	2	2	3	2	2	1	2

***Role-Play Method** has improved student's

1*	vocabulary knowledge	3 (very much)	2 (a little)	1 (very little)
2*	knowledge of pronunciation	3 (very much)	2 (a little)	1 (very little)

3*	grammatical competency	3 (very much)	2 (a little)	1 (very little)
4*	self-confidence	3 (very much)	2 (a little)	1 (very little)

Role-Play Method has decreased student's

5*	shyness	3 (very much)	2 (a little)	1 (very little)
6*	hesitation	3 (very much)	2 (a little)	1 (very little)
7*	fear of making mistakes	3 (very much)	2 (a little)	1 (very little)
8*	fear of being ridiculed by others	3 (very much)	2 (a little)	1 (very little)

Students' Response on the use of **Communication Games** to teach Speaking for
English Proficiency Test

Class: PBI B

Semester 3

No.	Name of the Student	Students' Response							
		1*	2*	3*	4*	5*	6*	7*	8*
1	Ade Lidiya Ningsih	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
2	Adinda Indah Mawarni	3	3	2	3	3	2	3	2
3	Agus Triyono	2	3	2	3	2	2	2	2
4	Ari Fahrurroji	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	2
5	Bagus Prasetyo	3	2	2	3	3	3	3	3
6	Elis Mikdariah	3	3	2	2	3	2	2	2
7	Fadliyah	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2
8	Galih Rakasiwi	3	3	3	3	1	2	2	2
9	Hayatun Nufus	2	2	1	1	3	2	2	2

10	Iah Mafichah	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	2
11	Ibrahim Guntur Nuary	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
12	Icha Sholichah	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2
13	Idhatyn Masshabrina	3	2	2	2	2	1	2	2
14	Imas	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
15	Kitfi Yanti	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	2
16	Laelatul Latifah	2	2	1	2	2	1	2	2
17	Lailatus Salamah	2	2	1	2	2	1	2	2
18	Laily Aprilia	2	3	2	2	3	3	2	3
19	Linda Eka Lestari	3	2	2	3	2	2	2	3
20	Lydiana Saputri	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2
21	Mahathir Akbar	2	3	2	2	1	2	1	1
22	Millati Azka	3	3	2	2	2	3	2	3
23	Nia Meliana	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2
24	Novita Ershandi	3	2	2	3	3	2	2	2
25	Nur Faizah	3	2	2	2	2	2	3	2
26	Putri Amalia	3	3	2	2	3	2	2	2
27	Putri Sugiarti	2	3	2	3	2	2	1	2
28	Royanti	3	3	2	2	3	2	2	2
29	Sisca Nursholihat	3	3	2	3	3	2	3	2
30	Siti Ayu Sholehah	3	3	2	3	3	2	3	3
31	Suci Mufaoka	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	1
32	Suelis	3	2	2	3	2	2	2	2
33	Taniya	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2
34	Uswatun Khasanah	3	2	2	2	2	1	2	2
35	Yunani Evrianta	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2

Class: PBI D

Semester 3

No.	Name of the Student	Students' Response							
		1*	2*	3*	4*	5*	6*	7*	8*
1	Agus Sudrajat	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
2	Aliyah Hikmah Khumairo	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
3	Alya Anis Ilahi	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2
4	Anan Sonjaya	2	2	2	3	1	2	2	2
5	Anifa Nurzana	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2
6	Anis Lidiya	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
7	Anni Rachmayani	2	3	2	2	2	2	1	1
8	Eka Putri Agustin	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
9	Futihatus Sholihah	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
10	Holisoh Nuril Khotimah	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	1
11	Imam Hanafi	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
12	Imro'atun Khoeriyah	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	3
13	Imron Asofi	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	2
14	Intan Monalisa	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
15	Jaenudin	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2
16	Khusnul Khotimah	3	1	2	3	2	2	2	1
17	Latifah	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
18	Lusi Apriantini	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
19	Moh. Haris A	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
20	Moh. Rizky Maulana	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2

21	Muhammad Ibnu Hidayah	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
22	Mu'minina Sabila	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
23	Mutiawati	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
24	Nining Suryaningsih	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
25	Nurhikmah	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
26	Nurjannah	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
27	Rahmat Al bayan	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
28	Rina Silvia	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3
29	Siti Khodijah	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
30	Sri Nurani	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
31	Ulfah	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
32	Ulfie Murni Zahrotul Qulaebi	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
33	Windy Wulandari	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2

Communication Games Method has improved student's

1	vocabulary knowledge	3 (very much)	2 (a little)	1 (very little)
2	knowledge of pronunciation	3 (very much)	2 (a little)	1 (very little)
3	grammatical competency	3 (very much)	2 (a little)	1 (very little)
4	self-confidence	3 (very much)	2 (a little)	1 (very little)

Communication Games Method has decreased student's

5	shyness	3 (very much)	2 (a little)	1 (very little)
6	hesitation	3 (very much)	2 (a little)	1 (very little)
7	fear of making mistakes	3 (very much)	2 (a little)	1 (very little)
8	fear of being ridiculed by others	3 (very much)	2 (a little)	1 (very little)

Appendix 10: Mark sheet of Test of Spoken English

TEST OF SPOKEN ENGLISH
PBI A, B, C, D SEMESTER 3 2015/2016

Experimental Group 1 (Role-Play method class)

N o.	Name	S e x	Student's Learning Style	Lear ner Prob lem	Gram mar	Vocab ulary	Pronunc iation	Flue ncy	Cont ent	Sc ore
48	Dody syuhada	M	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
23	Kiky Maria Fransiska	F	Analytic	8	18	18	13	7	7	62
34	Siti Kholilah	F	Analytic	4	18	15	12	7	8	60
56	Hilda Fasokha	F	Analytic	5	20	21	15	8	7	70
67	Syifa Nurbaity Hasanah	F	Analytic	8	18	18	12	6	7	61
49	E. Arief Mochamad Irfan	M	Analytic	8	17	15	11	6	6	55
2	Alfian Subrata	F	Communi cative	0	24	24	16	8	9	81
7	Desi Rostika	F	Communi cative	6	18	21	14	7	7	67
8	Diah Tilass	F	Communi cative	7	20	18	14	7	7	66
10	Dzurrotyn Nimah Aliyah	F	Communi cative	5	21	24	14	8	8	75
16	GhinaMahyaAma lia	F	Communi cative	6	21	24	14	7	7	73
18	Heni Pujiastuti	F	Communi cative	5	15	18	12	7	7	59

N o.	Name	S e x	Student's Learning Style	Learner Problem	Grammar	Vocabulary	Pronunciation	Fluency	Content	Score
21	Ina Uminawati	F	Communicative	6	20	21	12	8	7	68
25	Malikah	F	Communicative	5	18	18	11	7	7	60
28	MisyfaBayaniTasya	F	Communicative	6	18	17	14	7	7	63
31	Pretty Anisatun Asaksiyah	F	Communicative	7	21	21	14	6	7	69
33	Siti Fajriyah Mahmudah	F	Communicative	7	15	15	10	5	6	51
38	Vianty Wulandari	F	Communicative	4	20	21	14	7	7	69
44	Bela Rosana	F	Communicative	5	20	21	14	7	7	68
50	Eka Dara Yulianti	F	Communicative	8	21	20	15	7	7	70
52	Eny Nur Aeni	F	Communicative	6	15	15	10	6	6	52
59	Irawati	F	Communicative	4	15	18	11	7	6	57
62	Nur Fathiyyah	F	Communicative	7	15	20	12	7	7	61
65	Ropiyati	F	Communicative	8	15	18	13	7	7	60
68	Syipaurrehman	F	Communicative	8	15	18	11	7	6	57
71	Wiwit Nuraenah	F	Communicative	8	15	18	10	7	6	56
5	Deni Dzulfaqori Nasrullah	M	Communicative	2	21	21	15	8	8	73
13	Febriyano Ramadhan	M	Communicative	3	24	24	15	8	7	78
20	Ikhwanudin	M	Communicative	5	21	20	14	7	8	69
29	Muhammad Guruh Nuary	M	Communicative	8	20	20	14	7	7	67
36	Sukanta	M	Communicative	3	18	20	13	7	7	65
37	Tareq Khoirun	M	Communicative	6	20	15	13	7	7	61
6	Desi Nurazimi	F	Concrete	6	18	20	13	7	7	65
11	Eryani Suhandari	F	Concrete	4	18	21	14	7	7	67
14	Fidia Astuti	F	Concrete	8	21	24	14	8	8	74

N o.	Name	S e x	Student's Learning Style	Lear ner Prob lem	Gram mar	Vocab ulary	Pronunc iation	Flue ncy	Cont ent	Sc ore
1 5	Fifta Haifa	F	Concrete	4	18	15	12	7	7	59
1 7	Hayatunnisa	F	Concrete	8	21	24	14	8	8	75
2 2	Indri Novita	F	Concrete	7	18	17	13	7	7	62
2 4	LaeliKhiyaroh	F	Concrete	8	18	18	11	6	7	60
2 6	Manisah	F	Concrete	6	20	21	14	7	7	69
2 7	Meglin	F	Concrete	7	20	21	14	7	8	69
3 0	Nur'anani	F	Concrete	8	18	21	12	7	7	65
3 2	Siti Aisyah	F	Concrete	7	21	24	14	7	8	74
3 9	Zannatun Aliyah	F	Concrete	7	21	23	14	7	8	72
4 1	Amelia Tiffani Ramadhanti	F	Concrete	3	18	21	14	8	7	68
4 3	Ayu Humairoh Hakim	F	Concrete	4	15	18	12	6	6	57
4 7	Dini Avida Ulfi	F	Concrete	4	18	20	12	7	7	63
5 1	Ely Ernawati	F	Concrete	6	20	21	13	7	7	68
5 7	IndrianiMinotti	F	Concrete	5	15	12	12	5	6	50
5 8	Intan Hikmatul Latifah	F	Concrete	3	15	15	11	6	6	53
6 1	Nadiyah Faizah	F	Concrete	7	15	20	12	7	7	61
6 3	Qurrota A'yun	F	Concrete	4	18	15	12	7	6	58
6 4	Rifda Hana	F	Concrete	7	17	12	12	7	7	54
6 9	Ulfah	F	Concrete	6	15	12	11	5	6	49
4 6	Badiuzzaman	M	Concrete	3	20	15	12	7	7	61
1 2	Faisal Ibnu Affan	M	Concrete	3	24	24	14	7	8	77
4 0	Akhmad Muzakki	M	Concrete	6	20	15	14	7	7	63
4 6	Dedi Supriyadi	M	Concrete	4	18	17	11	6	7	58

N o.	Name	S e x	Student's Learning Style	Lear ner Prob lem	Gram mar	Vocab ulary	Pronunc iation	Flue ncy	Cont ent	Sc ore
60	Muhammad Faishal Hamami	M	Concrete	8						0
66	Saeful Anwar	M	Concrete	3	20	21	14	8	7	69
1	Afifah	F	Teacher-oriented	5	23	24	14	8	9	77
3	Azhar Sausani Fatin	F	Teacher-oriented	4	24	24	16	8	9	81
9	Dunaiyah	F	Teacher-oriented	6	18	21	13	7	6	65
19	Hidayatul Hikmah	F	Teacher-oriented	7	21	24	14	8	8	75
35	Siti Komariah	F	Teacher-oriented	5	18	21	14	7	7	66
42	Aulia Al Farisa	F	Teacher-oriented	4	18	21	13	7	7	66
45	Dede Sri Masriah	F	Teacher-oriented	5	17	18	12	7	7	60
53	Fadillah	F	Teacher-oriented	5	21	21	13	8	7	70
54	Farchati	F	Teacher-oriented	8	15	15	10	7	6	53
55	Gina Syifa Siti Nurrahmah	F	Teacher-oriented	7	17	17	10	7	7	57
70	Uun Ruheni	F	Teacher-oriented	5	20	21	14	7	7	69
72	Yuni Septia	F	Teacher-oriented	8	15	18	12	6	6	57
74	Zesy Alvisa	F	Teacher-oriented	6	17	21	12	7	7	64
73	Yusuf Supriyatna	M	Teacher-oriented	0	17	12	11	5	6	51

Experimental Group 2 (Communication Games method class)

N o.	Name	S e x	Student's Learning Style	Lear ner Prob lem	Gram mar	Vocab ulay	Pronunc iation	Flue ncy	Cont ent	Sc ore
2	Adinda Indah Mawarni	F	Analytic	4	20	24	15	7	7	73

N o.	Name	S e x	Student's Learning Style	Lear ner Prob lem	Gram mar	Vocab ulay	Pronunc iation	Flue ncy	Cont ent	Sc ore
18	Laily Aprilia	F	Analytic	6	26	27	15	8	8	83
27	Putri Sugiarti	F	Analytic	6	18	24	14	7	7	70
33	Taniya	F	Analytic	6	26	27	16	8	8	84
5	Anifa Nurzana	F	Analytic	8	18	24	13	7	7	68
6	Anis Lidiya	F	Analytic	7	15	24	11	6	7	63
12	Imro'atun Khoeriyah	F	Analytic	8	18	21	13	7	7	66
27	Rahmat Al bayan	M	Analytic	8	18	21	13	7	7	66
6	Elis Mikdariah	F	Communi cative	8	20	26	13	7	8	72
7	Fadliyah	F	Communi cative	8	21	26	14	7	8	75
16	Laelatul Latifah	F	Communi cative	8	18	26	13	7	7	71
26	Putri Amalia	F	Communi cative	7	21	24	13	7	7	72
28	Royanti	F	Communi cative	4	18	24	14	7	7	70
34	Uswatun Khasanah	F	Communi cative	6	21	26	15	8	8	77
35	Yunani Evrianta	F	Communi cative	4	15	24	12	7	7	65
3	Alya AnisIlahi	F	Communi cative	7	20	27	14	8	8	76
10	Holisoh Nuril Khotimah	F	Communi cative	8	15	24	14	7	7	67
18	Lusi Apriantini	F	Communi cative	8	14	14	11	6	6	50
23	Mutiawati	F	Communi cative	7	15	12	8	5	5	45
26	Nurjannah	F	Communi cative	8	18	23	12	6	6	65
28	Rina Silvia	F	Communi cative	8	20	18	12	7	7	63
31	Ulfah	F	Communi cative	6	12	9	7	3	4	35
5	Bagus Prasetyo	M	Communi cative	3	15	21	12	6	7	61
1	Agus Sudrajat	M	Communi cative	0	15	15	12	6	6	54

N o.	Name	S e x	Student's Learning Style	Lear ner Prob lem	Gram mar	Vocab ulay	Pronunc iation	Flue ncy	Cont ent	Sc ore
1 0	Iah Mafichah	F	Concrete	8	17	24	13	7	7	67
1 2	Icha Sholichah	F	Concrete	7	20	24	13	7	7	70
1 3	Iddhatyn Masshabrina	F	Concrete	4	18	23	13	7	7	67
1 5	Kitfi Yanti	F	Concrete	6	17	24	12	7	7	66
1 7	Lailatus Salamah	F	Concrete	8	18	26	13	7	7	70
1 9	Linda Eka Lestari	F	Concrete	6	18	24	13	7	8	69
2 0	Lydiana Saputri	F	Concrete	6	20	27	14	8	8	76
2 2	Millati Azka	F	Concrete	8	21	24	15	8	7	75
2 3	Nia Meliana	F	Concrete	7	21	26	15	8	8	77
2 4	Novita Ershandi	F	Concrete	6	15	24	12	6	7	64
2 5	Nur Faizah	F	Concrete	3	24	27	14	8	8	80
2 9	Sisca Nursholihat	F	Concrete	6	15	24	12	6	7	64
3 0	Siti Ayu Sholehah	F	Concrete	8	21	26	12	6	7	72
3 2	Suelis	F	Concrete	7	21	24	14	7	7	73
8	Eka Putri Agustin	F	Concrete	8	15	20	12	6	7	59
9	Futihatus Sholihah	F	Concrete	6	12	12	12	5	4	45
1 4	Intan Monalisa	F	Concrete	5	20	26	15	7	7	74
1 7	Latifah	F	Concrete	8	20	23	13	6	7	68
2 2	Mu'minina Sabila	F	Concrete	8	14	18	11	6	5	54
2 9	Siti Khodijah	F	Concrete	7	12	9	7	3	4	35
3 0	Sri Nur'aini	F	Concrete	8	21	27	14	7	7	76
3 2	Ulfie Murni Zahrotul Qulaebi	F	Concrete	8						0

N o.	Name	S e x	Student's Learning Style	Lear ner Prob lem	Gram mar	Vocab ulay	Pronunc iation	Flue ncy	Cont ent	Sc ore
33	Windy Wulandari	F	Concrete	8	15	21	12	6	6	60
4	Ari Fahrurroji	M	Concrete	3	21	24	14	7	7	73
8	Galih Rakasiwi	M	Concrete	6	17	23	14	7	7	67
11	Ibrahim Guntur Nuary	M	Concrete	5	21	24	13	7	7	72
4	Anan Sonjaya	M	Concrete	0	15	18	10	7	6	56
19	Moh. Haris A	M	Concrete	7	15	3	12	6	7	43
1	Ade Lidiya Ningsih	F	Teacher-oriented	7	21	26	14	7	7	75
9	Hayatun Nufus	F	Teacher-oriented	8	18	21	12	6	7	64
14	Imas	F	Teacher-oriented	8	21	23	12	6	7	68
31	Suci Mufaoka	F	Teacher-oriented	6	18	27	14	8	8	74
2	Aliyah Hikmah Khumairo	F	Teacher-oriented	8	12	21	10	5	6	54
7	Anni Rachmayani	F	Teacher-oriented	8	21	27	15	8	8	78
16	Khusnul Khotimah	F	Teacher-oriented	8	18	21	12	6	6	63
25	Nurhikmah	F	Teacher-oriented	8						0
3	AgusTriyono	M	Teacher-oriented	7	21	21	12	6	7	67
21	Mahathir Akbar	M	Teacher-oriented	4	21	21	13	7	7	69
11	Imam Hanafi	M	Teacher-oriented	0	18	26	13	7	7	71
13	Imron Asofi	M	Teacher-oriented	8	15	14	10	6	6	50
15	Jaenudin	M	Teacher-oriented	8	12	14	10	5	5	45
20	Moh. Rizky Maulana	M	Teacher-oriented	8	12	12	8	5	5	42
21	Muhammad Ibnu Hidayah	M	Teacher-oriented	0	18	24	13	7	7	69
24	Nining Suryaningsih	F		0						0

Appendix: 11 Lesson Plan

Lesson Plan 1

Speaking English Proficiency

Department of English Education Semester 3 Class: PBI A, B, C, D

Faculty of Education IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon

Academic Year : 2015/2016

Day / Date / Time : 100 minutes (2 Credit hours)

Topic : Post Office

Teaching Method : Role-Play

Target Language

Grammar

Question forms (*Could I....? How many do you want?*)

Example: *Could I buy a postcard, please?*

Functions

Making enquiries (*Do you sell....? Is it possible to....?*)

Vocabulary

Shopping (*cashier, clerk, electricity bill, envelopes, express mail, form, letter bag, parcel, postcard, postal order, postman, post office, queue, registered post, registered letter, stamps, stamp pad, scales, seals, telephone bill, water bill,*)

A. Brainstorm

What things can you do at a post office? Write a list. (e.g. post a letter).

Name five things or more you can do at a post office.

What things can you find at a post office?

What things can you buy at a post office?

Define a post office?

B. Match the customer question to the correct reply.

CUSTOMER QUESTION	REPLY
1. Could I send two postcards to Italy, please? 2. Could I send this parcel to China, please? 3. Could I send this registered post, please? 4. Do you sell international telephone cards? 5. I need to send money by post. What's the best way? 6. Do you sell envelopes? I need A4 size. 7. I need to pay this bill. Can I do it here? 8. Is it possible to exchange money here	a. Yes. Just fill in this form... that's £4.90, please. Is there anything valuable inside? b. Yes. They're 55p each. How many do you need? c. A postal order. You can buy one here. Is it international? d. Yes. The stamps are 58p each. That's £1.16 please. e. Yes. But you're in the wrong queue. The bureau de change is over there. f. Of course. Just put it on the scales, please... do you want to send it airmail? g. Yes. They cost from £5 to £30. Is it for mobile phone, or a payphone? h. Er... No. you need to take it to the bank. There's one on Baker Street, round the corner

C. Target Language

Target Language

Post office cashier

Next please. Can I help you?

Where do you want to send it?

That's ... (£). They cost... (£).

Here you are. Here's your change.

Customer

Could I send... (what) (Where)?

Do you sell... (Noun)?

I need to... (verb)

Is it possible to... (Verb)?

Sorry. Could you repeat that?

Here you are.

D. Role-Play Cards

Post Office – Customer A	Post Office – Customer C
You need... - To send three postcards to your country - To pay a gas bill	You need... - To send to parcels to your country (one big, one small) - To pay a telephone bill - To change £50 into euros

- To change \$100 into pounds sterling - To find out how much a parcel costs to send to your country (don't send it yet!)	- To buy 10 stamps for letters (not internationals)
Post Office – Customer B You need... - To buy an international phone card (£10) - To buy an envelope - To send £50 to your country by post - To send your passport registered post	Post Office – Customer D You need... - To phone your country, but you don't have a mobile phone - To buy 10 postcards - To send an expensive present by registered post (it cost you £300) - To send a letter to your parents

E. Role Play

- Half the students are post office cashiers. Listen to the customers and try to help them.
- Half the students are customers.
- The teacher will toss you a coin to decide a role to play.
- Find out who was the most difficult customer? and who was the most polite cashier

Lesson Plan 2

Speaking English Proficiency

Department of English Education

Semester 3

Class: PBI A & C

Faculty of Education IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon

Academic Year : 2015/2016

Day / Date / Time : 100 minutes (2 Credit hours)

Topic : Visiting Doctor

Teaching Method : Role-Play

.....

 Target Language
Grammar

Should + verb

Example: *You should get some rest.*

Have got

Example: *I've got a sore throat.**Functions*

Describing how you feel.

Example: *I feel hot, and I can't sleep the whole night.***Vocabulary**

Health (*illness, flu, hay fever, a runny nose, stress, symptom, surgery, clinic, a sore throat, diarrhea, a swollen ankle, crutch, prescription medicine, hospital, food poisoning, a broken arm, a sprained ankle, sneezing, a ladder, aching bones, appetite, sleeping pill*).

Parts of the Body (*head, Adam's apple, neck, throat, wrist, elbow, armpit, arm, chest, chest, shoulder blade, nape, shoulder, palm, hand, finger, thumb, forefinger, middle*

finger, ring finger, little finger, nail, body, waist, navel, hip, stomach, rib, leg, thigh, knee, calf, shin, heel, ankle, toe, sole).

A. Brainstorm

Ask the students:

- What do you do when you are ill? See a doctor (often called GP in the UK), go to hospital, make an appointment with a doctor etc.
- Where does a doctor work? Surgery, clinic.
- Who helps a doctor?
- Have you ever seen a dentist?
- When did you see a dentist?

B. Look at the table below. It describes seven common reasons for going to the doctor. Complete the table using the information from the boxes.

Symptoms:

diarrhoea (UK) diarrhea (US)
a sore throat
can't sleep (insomnia)
red eyes
can't move my hand
a swollen ankle

Advice:

prescription medicine
go to hospital
don't eat anything
take vitamin c
use crutches
take paracetamol (UK)/
acetaminophen (US)

Illness/Complaint	Cause	Symptoms	Advice
a cold	a virus, usually caught through contact or sneezing	a runny nose, a)_____, a cough	keep warm, get some rest, b)_____ —
the 'flu	a virus, usually caught through contact or sneezing	as for a cold, also a high temperature, aching bones and head	go to bed, c)_____ — for the temperature and the aches
food poisoning	eating food that isn't fresh	stomach ache, vomiting, d)_____ —	e)_____ for 24 hours, get some rest, drink water
stress	too many problems, especially at work	f)_____ , worrying too much, loss of appetite	take sleeping pills, take a long holiday, change your job!
a broken arm	a serious fall, (e.g. off a ladder)	a very strong pain in my arm, g)_____	h)_____, set arm in plaster
a sprained ankle	an unexpected fall,	i)_____ , can't walk	bandage the ankle j)_____, get plenty of rest

	(e.g. when playing football)		
hay fever	an allergy to flowers and plants in summer	a runny nose, k) _____ –	i) _____, stay away from parks and gardens

- Do you agree with all this advice?
- Which of these complaints have you had over the last year?
- Do you have any other advice for these complaints?
- Did you go to the doctor?

C. Target Language**Student A-Patient**

It started... (a week ago).

I feel... (tired, hot, etc.).

I had an accident when ...

It hurts here.

I've got... (a sore throat, a swollen ankle)

I can't... walk/sleep

Is it serious?

What should I do?

Target Language**Student B- Doctor**

What seems to be the problem?

Does it hurt here?

Is the pain getting worse?

Do you have... (a cough, a temperature, a swollen ankle)?

Can you... (move your hand, go near parks and flower)?

Are you allergic to anything?

I think you have...

You should / shouldn't...

Try (not) to.... (verb)

D. Role-Play Cards

Student A – Patient

You are a patient at your local doctor's surgery. Choose one of the illnesses from the chart and tell the doctor the answers to these questions:

- How, when and where did it start?
- What symptoms have you got?
- Have you taken any medicine or done anything else to help?

Student B will try to provide the correct diagnosis. At the end tell student B if s/he was correct about the illness.

Student B – Doctor

You are the doctor. Listen to student A, who will describe her/his symptoms.

- Ask questions using the target language expressions.
- Tell the patient what you think the illness is.
- Give the patient some advice

Try to remember without looking at the chart. At the end, student A will tell you if your diagnosis was correct.

E. Role-Play

- Form a group of five.
- Let the students decide to play a role of patient or doctor.
- Reverse the role.

Lesson Plan 3

Speaking English Proficiency

Department of English Education Semester 3 Class: PBI A & C

Faculty of Education IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon

Academic Year : 2015/2016

Day / Date / Time : 100 minutes (2 Credit hours)

Topic : Checking into a Hotel

Teaching Method : Role-Play

.....

Target Language

Grammar

Question forms

Does that include breakfast?

Functions

Making enquiries

Is the bathroom en suite?

Vocabulary

Hotels: double room (a room in a hotel for two people); en suite (a bathroom which is directly connected to a bedroom)

Lesson Steps in Sequence

A. Brainstorm

Where do you stay when you are on holiday?

What words are associated with hotel?

Think of three questions you need to ask when you check into a hotel.

For examples:

1. Do you have a double room for tonight?
2. How much is it?
3. Does that include breakfast?
4. Do you accept credit card?
5. ..
6. ..
7. ..

B. Vocabulary & Target Language

Vocabulary

Single room (a room in a hotel for one person); double room (a room in a hotel for two people); twin beds (two identical single beds); en suite (a bathroom which is directly connected to a bedroom or a bedroom which is connected to a bathroom); guesthouse (a small cheap hotel); bed and breakfast or B & B (a room to sleep in for the night and a morning meal); clerk (a hotel employee who welcomes the guest on arrival); a check-in desk/information/reception desk; doorman (US), porter (UK) (a person whose job is to stand by the door of a hotel or public building and allow people to go in or out, and to open their car doors, etc.) four-star (describes a restaurant or hotel of a very high standard); inn (US), pub (UK) (a small hotel, usually in the countryside); motel (a hotel by the side of a road, usually with spaces for cars next to each room); receptionist (a person who works in a place such as hotel, office or hospital, who welcomes and helps visitors and answers the telephone; extra costs.

Target Language

Checking into a hotel

Read the dialogue and complete the questions with *do, does, is, or are*

Guest	Hotel owner
Hello. 1. you speak English?	A little, yes.
2. you have a double room for tonight?	Let me see... Yes, we do.
Good. How much 3. it?	\$40.
\$40 per person or per room.	Per person.
4. that include breakfast?	No. Breakfast is \$10 extra, per person.
OK. 5. ...the bathroom en suite?	Sorry. What 6. ...'en suite' mean?
It means that it has a private bathroom.	Ah, yes! That's another \$10, per person.
Right. 7.... it possible to see the room?	Yes, come with me. Where 8. you from?
From England.	Really? 9. you on holiday
Yes. With my husband. He's in the car.	Ah, I see. Here is the room.
OK. This is fine. Shall I pay now?	Yes, please. That's \$130, please.
Er.... Isn't it \$120?	Yes, and \$10 for the car park.
Right. 10. you accept credit cards.	No. Only cash.

OK. Here you are. What time's breakfast?	From 8 to 9. My wife gets up early.
Oh! 11. ... it possible to have it at 10?	Yes. For an extra \$5.
Another \$5! Per person?	Per person.
Oh, all right! Here you are.	And here is your key. Goodnight.

C. Role-Play

Procedure

- Put students into A/B pairs
- Hand out a script dialogue
- Give them a few minutes to read the dialogue.
- Demonstrate a model
- Let the students begin when they are ready

D. Hand out the Role-Play Cards

Practice similar conversations, using the information below.

Situation 1

- 4 guests - mum, dad, and 2 children – need 2 rooms for tonight; both en suite.
- They need dinner tonight and breakfast at 7 am tomorrow as they are leaving early.

Situation 2

- 1 guest needs a single room for 3 nights.

- S/he doesn't like getting up early and doesn't want to pay over \$ 50 per night.

Situation 3

Be yourself! You are on holiday with your family or friends.

Lesson Plan 1

Speaking English Proficiency

Department of English Education

Semester 3

Class: PBI B and D

Faculty of Education IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon

Academic Year : 2015/2016

Day / Date / Time : 100 minutes (2 Credit hours)

Topic : Post Office

Teaching Method : Communication Games

Lecturer : Udin Kamiluddin

Target Language

Grammar

Question forms (*Could I....? How many do you want?*)

Example: *Could I buy a postcard, please?*

Functions

Making enquiries (*Do you sell....? Is it possible to....?*)

Vocabulary

Shopping (*cashier, clerk, electricity bill, envelopes, express mail, form, letter bag, parcel, postcard, postal order, postman, post office, queue, registered post, registered letter, stamps, stamp pad, scales, seals, telephone bill, water bill,*)

F. Brainstorm

What things can you do at a post office? Write a list. (e.g. post a letter).

Name five things or more you can do at a post office.

What things can you find at a post office?

What things can you buy at a post office?

Define a post office?

G. Match the customer question to the correct reply.

CUSTOMER QUESTION	REPLY
9. Could I send two postcards to Italy, please? 10. Could I send this parcel to China, please? 11. Could I send this registered post, please? 12. Do you sell international telephone cards? 13. I need to send money by post. What's the best way? 14. Do you sell envelopes? I need A4 size. 15. I need to pay this bill. Can I do it here? 16. Is it possible to exchange money here	i. Yes. Just fill in this form... that's £4.90, please. Is there anything valuable inside? j. Yes. They're 55p each. How many do you need? k. A postal order. You can buy one here. Is it international? l. Yes. The stamps are 58p each. That's £1.16 please. m. Yes. But you're in the wrong queue. The bureau de change is over there. n. Of course. Just put it on the scales, please... do you want to send it airmail?

	o. Yes. They cost from £5 to £30. Is it for mobile phone, or a payphone? p. Er... No. you need to take it to the bank. There's one on Baker Street, round the corner
--	--

H. Target Language

Target Language Post office cashier Next please. Can I help you? Where do you want to send it? That's ... (£). They cost... (£). Here you are. Here's your change. Customer Could I send... (what) (Where)? Do you sell... (Noun)? I need to... (verb) Is it possible to... (Verb)? Sorry. Could you repeat that? Here you are.
--

I. Index Cards

Is it parts of speech? a profession?	Is it available in/ can I purchase, buy it from an office?
---	--

fruit? vegetable? an office? a store?	a market? in the airport? in school? at university? in a hospital?
Does he/she work in a restaurant? in an office? in the airplane? at home? in school?	Does it grow in summer, winter, autumn, spring? Does it grow in tropical countries? Does it need much water? Does it have trunk, tusk? Does it live in a jungle?

J. Communication Games (half of the total students)

What is it? Twenty Questions, Guessing Game

- Form group of four
- Three of them ask yes, no questions in exchange
- One of them answers using yes, or no
- When the questioners are sure about the word that their partner means, they may decide to say
- The winner is whose guess is correct

Whisper Game (half of the total students)

- Four students stand in line
- Show a sentence they have learnt to the student standing in the first line
- He/she whispers the sentence to the next student
- The last student say the sentence loudly

- The winner team is the one that says the sentence correctly.

Whisper Circle (all students)

- Give a word and ask a student to spell it, for example **cashier**
- A second student should say a word beginning with the last letter of the word given, a student will say **radio**
- The game continues until someone pronounces or spells a word incorrectly or comes up with a word that has been said already
- The last one in the game is the winner.

Practice

Communication Games

The students are to guess the following words they have learnt:

cashier, clerk, electricity bill, envelopes, express mail, form, letter bag, parcel, postcard, postal order, postman, post office, queue, registered post, registered letter, stamps, stamp pad, scales, seals, telephone bill, water bill

Whisper Game

The students are to whisper the following sentences they have learnt:

1. Could I send two postcards to Italy, please? Yes. The stamps are 58p each. That's £1.16 please.
2. Could I send this parcel to China, please? Of course. Just put it on the scales, please... do you want to send it airmail?
3. Could I send this registered post, please? Yes. Just fill in this form... that's £4.90, please. Is there anything valuable inside?
4. Do you sell international telephone cards? Yes. They cost from £5 to £30. Is it for mobile phone, or a payphone?
5. I need to send money by post. What's the best way? A postal order. You can buy one here. Is it international?

6. Do you sell envelopes? I need A4 size. Yes. They're 55p each. How many do you need?
7. I need to pay this bill. Can I do it here? Er... No. you need to take it to the bank. There's one on Baker Street, round the corner
8. Is it possible to exchange money here? Yes. But you're in the wrong queue. The bureau de change is over there.

Whisper Circle

- The students are to pronounce and spell the following words they have learnt and come up with a word beginning with the last letter of the word given:

cashier, clerk, electricity bill, envelopes, express mail, form, letter bag, parcel, postcard, postal order, postman, post office, queue, registered post, registered letter, stamps, stamp pad, scales, seals, telephone bill, water bill.

Lesson Plan 2

Speaking English Proficiency

Department of English Education

Semester 3

Class: PBI B & D

Faculty of Education IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon

Academic Year : 2015/2016

Day / Date / Time : 100 minutes (2 Credit hours)

Topic : Visiting Doctor

Teaching Method : Communication Games

.....

Target Language

Grammar

Should + verb

Example: *You should get some rest.*

Have got

Example: *I've got a sore throat.*

Functions

Describing how you feel.

Example: *I feel hot, and I can't sleep the whole night.*

Vocabulary

Health (illness, flu, hay fever, a runny nose, stress, symptom, surgery, clinic, a sore throat, diarrhea, a swollen ankle, crutch, prescription medicine, hospital, food poisoning, a broken arm, a sprained ankle, sneezing, a ladder, aching bones, appetite, sleeping pill).

Parts of the Body (head, Adam's apple, neck, throat, wrist, elbow, armpit, arm, chest, shoulder blade (a large flat triangular bone on each side of your back below your shoulder, which helps to increase the range of movement of your arm), nape (the back of the neck), shoulder, palm, hand, finger, thumb, forefinger, middle finger, ring finger, little finger, nail, body, waist, navel (the small round part in the middle of the stomach which is left after the **umbilical cord** has been cut after birth), hip (the area below the waist and above the legs at either side of the body), stomach, rib (a bone that curves round from your back to your chest), leg, thigh, knee, calf (the thick curved part at the back of the human leg between the knee and the foot), shin (the front part of your leg between your knee and your foot), heel, ankle, toe, sole).

F. Brainstorm

Ask the students:

- What do you do when you are ill? See a doctor (often called GP in the UK), go to hospital, make an appointment with a doctor etc.
- Where does a doctor work? Surgery, clinic.

- Who helps a doctor?
- Have you ever seen a dentist?
- When did you see a dentist?

G. Look at the table below. It describes seven common reasons for going to the doctor. Complete the table using the information from the boxes.

Symptoms:
 diarrhoea (UK) diarrhea (US)
 a sore throat
 can't sleep (insomnia)
 red eyes
 can't move my hand
 a swollen ankle

Advice:
 prescription medicine
 go to hospital
 don't eat anything
 take vitamin c
 use crutches
 take paracetamol (UK)/
 acetaminophen (US)

Symptom: any feeling of illness or physical or mental change which is caused by a particular disease; effect caused by a particular disease.

Illness/Complaint	Cause	Symptoms	Advice
a cold	a virus, usually caught through contact or sneezing	a runny nose, a) _____, a cough	keep warm, get some rest, b) _____ —

the 'flu	a virus, usually caught through contact or sneezing	as for a cold, also a high temperature, aching bones and head	go to bed, c)_____ – for the temperature and the aches
food poisoning	eating food that isn't fresh	stomach ache, vomiting, d)_____ —	e)_____ for 24 hours, get some rest, drink water
stress	too many problems, especially at work	f)_____ , worrying too much, loss of appetite	take sleeping pills, take a long holiday, change your job!
a broken arm	a serious fall, (e.g. off a ladder)	a very strong pain in my arm, g)_____	h)_____, set arm in plaster
a sprained ankle	an unexpecte d fall, (e.g. when playing football)	i)_____ , can't walk	bandage the ankle j)_____, get plenty of rest
hay fever	an allergy to flowers and plants in summer	a runny nose, k)_____ —	i)_____, stay away from parks and gardens

- Do you agree with all this advice?
- Which of these complaints have you had over the last year?
- Do you have any other advice for these complaints?
- Did you go to the doctor?

H. Target Language

Student A-Patient

It started... (a week ago).

I feel... (tired, hot, etc.).

I had an accident when...

It hurts here.

I've got... (a sore throat, a swollen ankle)

I can't... walk/sleep

Is it serious?

What should I do?

Target Language

Student B- Doctor

What seems to be the problem?

Does it hurt here?

Is the pain getting worse?

Do you have... (a cough, a temperature, a swollen ankle)?

Can you... (move your hand, go near parks and flower)?

Are you allergic to anything?

I think you have...

You should / shouldn't...

Try (not) to.... (verb)

I. Communication Games

Whisper Game

- Four students stand in line

- Show a word or a sentence they have learnt to the student standing in the first line
- He/she whispers the word or sentence to the next student
- The last student say the word or sentence loudly
- The winner team is the one that says the word or sentence correctly.

Whisper Game

The students are to whisper the following sentences they have learnt:

It started a month ago.

It started a year ago.

I feel exhausted (extremely tired).

I had an accident when I was 17 years old.

It hurts here.

I've got a sore throat.

I've got a swollen ankle.

I can't walk/sleep

Is it serious?

I should see an ophthalmologist.

Whisper Circle

- Give a word and ask a student to spell it, for example **diarrhea/diarrhoea**
- A second student should say a word beginning with the last letter of the word given, the student will say **arm**.
- The game continues until someone pronounces or spells a word incorrectly or comes up with a word that has been said already
- The last one in the game is the winner.

Definition Game & Fill in the Gap

A place where a doctor works: h o s p i t a l

A place where a mother cooks: k i t c h e n

A person who helps a doctor: n u r s e

a large flat triangular bone on each side of your back below your shoulder, which helps to increase the range of movement of your arm: (13 letters: 2 words)

the back of the neck: (4 letters)

*the small round part in the middle of the stomach which is left after the **umbilical cord** has been cut after birth: (5 letters)*

the area below the waist and above the legs at either side of the body: (3 letters)

a bone that curves round from your back to your chest: (3 letters)

the thick curved part at the back of the human leg between the knee and the foot: (4 letters), the front part of your leg between your knee and your foot: (4 letters)

Lesson Plan 3

Speaking English Proficiency

Department of English Education Semester 3 Class: PBI B & D

Faculty of Education IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon

Academic Year : 2015/2016

Day / Date / Time : 100 minutes (2 Credit hours)

Topic : Checking into a Hotel

Teaching Method : Communication Games

.....

Target Language

Grammar

Question forms

Does that include breakfast?

Functions

Making enquiries

Is the bathroom en suite?

Vocabulary

Hotels: double room (a room in a hotel for two people); en suite (a bathroom which is directly connected to a bedroom)

Lesson Steps in Sequence

E. Brainstorm

Where do you stay when you are on holiday?

What words are associated with hotel?

Think of three questions you need to ask when you check into a hotel.

For examples:

8. Do you have a double room for tonight?

9. How much is it?

10. Does that include breakfast?

11. Do you accept credit card?

12. ..

13. ..

14. ..

F. Vocabulary & Target Language

Vocabulary

Single room (a room in a hotel for one person); double room (a room in a hotel for two people); twin beds (two identical single beds); en suite (a bathroom which is directly connected to a bedroom or a bedroom which is connected to a bathroom); guesthouse (a small cheap hotel); bed and breakfast or B & B (a room to sleep in for the night and a morning meal); clerk (a hotel employee who welcomes the guest on arrival); a check-in desk/information/reception desk; doorman (US), porter (UK) (a person

whose job is to stand by the door of a hotel or public building and allow people to go in or out, and to open their car doors, etc.) four-star (describes a restaurant or hotel of a very high standard); inn (US), pub (UK) (a small hotel, usually in the countryside); motel (a hotel by the side of a road, usually with spaces for cars next to each room); receptionist (a person who works in a place such as hotel, office or hospital, who welcomes and helps visitors and answers the telephone; extra costs.

Target Language

Checking into a hotel

Read the dialogue and complete the questions with *do, does, is, or are*

Guest	Hotel owner
Hello. 1. you speak English?	A little, yes.
2. you have a double room for tonight?	Let me see... Yes, we do.
Good. How much 3. it?	\$40.
\$40 per person or per room.	Per person.
4. that include breakfast?	No. Breakfast is \$10 extra, per person.
OK. 5. ...the bathroom en suite?	Sorry. What 6. ...'en suite' mean?
It means that it has a private bathroom.	Ah, yes! That's another \$10, per person.
Right. 7.... it possible to see the room?	Yes, come with me. Where 8. you from?
From England.	Really? 9. you on holiday

Yes. With my husband. He's in the car.	Ah, I see. Here is the room.
OK. This is fine. Shall I pay now?	Yes, please. That's \$130, please.
Er.... Isn't it \$120?	Yes, and \$10 for the car park.
Right. 10. you accept credit cards.	No. Only cash.
OK. Here you are. What time's breakfast?	From 8 to 9. My wife gets up early.
Oh! 11. ... it possible to have it at 10?	Yes. For an extra \$5.
Another \$5! Per person?	Per person.
Oh, all right! Here you are.	And here is your key. Goodnight.

G. Communication Games

• The miming game

Procedure

- Put students into A/B pairs
- Give them a sentence that includes grammar and/or vocabulary already practiced, and underline the words that should be guessed
- One of the students in the group has to mime the sentence/word and the other has to guess
- Demonstrate a model
- Let the students begin when they are ready.
- **The conversation performance contest**

Procedure

- Put students into A/B pairs
- The pairs perform the conversation

Appendix 12: Test of Spoken English

MODELS OF QUESTION (PBI A & C)

(Examiner's hand-paper)

A

- Question and Answer
 1. What is the date today? What day of the week is it?
 2. Tell me three things you did yesterday.
 3. What things can you do at a post office?
 4. Name five things or more you can do at a post office.
 5. What things can you find at a post office?
 6. What things can you buy at a post office?
 7. Define a post office?
- Vocabulary and Spelling

Students are required to tell and describe pictures with them.
- Role-Play

Play the role of **a customer** using the following scenario:

Customer A

➤ You need...

1. To send three postcards to your country
2. To pay a gas bill
3. To change \$100 into pounds sterling
4. To find out how much a parcel costs to send to your country.

Customer B

➤ You need...

1. To buy an international phone card (£10)
2. To buy an envelope
3. To send £50 to your country by post
4. To send your passport registered post

Customer C

➤ **You need...**

1. To send to parcels to your country (one big, one small)
2. To pay a telephone bill
3. To change £50 into euros
4. To buy 10 stamps for letters (not internationals)

Customer D

➤ **You need...**

1. To phone your country, but you don't have a mobile phone
2. To buy 10 postcards
3. To send an expensive present by registered post (it cost you £300)
4. To send a letter to your parents

Play the role of a **cashier** replying to the customer's questions.

B

1. Why do you learn English?
 2. Do you speak English outside the classroom? Where/when?
 3. What is most important in learning a language?
 4. What do you do when you are ill?
 5. Who helps a doctor?
 6. Have you ever seen a dentist; an ophthalmologist; an internist; a GP?
 7. When did you see a dentist?
- Vocabulary and Spelling

Students are required to tell and describe pictures with them.

- Role-Play

- Play the role of a **patient** using the following scenario:

You are a patient at your local doctor's surgery. Decide an illness that you are getting and tell the doctor the answers to these questions:

- How, when and where did it start?
- What symptoms have you got?
- Have you taken any medicine or done anything else to help?

- Play the role of a **doctor** who should diagnose a patient using the following guide:

- Ask questions using the appropriate expressions that you have learnt
- Tell the patient what you think the illness is.
- Give the patient some advice.

MODELS OF QUESTION (PBI B & D)

(Examiner's hand-paper)

A

Question and Answer

8. What is the date today? What day of the week is it?
9. Tell me three things you did yesterday.
10. What things can you do at a post office?
11. Name five things or more you can do at a post office.
12. What things can you find at a post office?
13. What things can you buy at a post office?
14. Define a post office?

- Vocabulary and Spelling

Students are required to tell and describe pictures with them.

- Communication Games

➤ **Miming & Twenty-Questions**

Guess the following words through “**miming (gesture)** or **yes-no questions**”

Clues for yes-no questions

Is it parts of speech? a profession? fruit? vegetable? an office? a store?	Is it available in/ can I purchase, buy it from an office? a market? in the airport? in school? at university? in a hospital?
Does he/she work in a restaurant? in an office? in the airplane? at home? in school?	Does it grow in summer, winter, autumn, spring? Does it grow in tropical countries? Does it need much water? Does it have trunk, tusk? Does it leave in a jungle?

The words to be guessed

post office, postman, cashier, envelopes, letter bag, parcel, postcard, queue, stamps, stamp pad, scales, seals

➤ **Whisper Sentence**

Student A whispers the given sentence to student B. The student B says the sentence clearly.

Whisper the following sentences

9. Could I send two postcards to Italy, please?
10. Could I send this parcel to China, please?
11. Could I send this registered post, please?
12. Do you sell international telephone cards?
13. I need to send money by post. What's the best way?
14. Is it possible to exchange money here?

➤ **Chain Spelling**

Pronounce and spell the following words and come up with a word beginning with the last letter of the word given:

Electricity bill, express mail, form, postal order, registered post, registered letter, telephone bill, water bill.

B

8. Why do you learn English?
9. Do you speak English outside the classroom? Where/when?
10. What is most important in learning a language?
11. What do you do when you are ill?
12. Who helps a doctor?
13. Have you ever seen a dentist; an ophthalmologist; an internist; a GP?
14. When did you see a dentist?

- **Vocabulary and Spelling**

Students are required to tell and describe pictures with them.

- **Communication Games**

➤ **Miming & Twenty-Questions**

Guess the following words through “**miming (gesture)** or **yes-no questions**”

Clues for yes-no questions

Is it parts of speech? a profession? fruit? vegetable? an office? a store?	Is it available in/ can I purchase, buy it from an office? a market? in the airport? in school? at university? in a hospital?
Does he/she work in a restaurant? in an office? in the airplane? at home? in school?	Does it grow in summer, winter, autumn, spring? Does it grow in tropical countries? Does it need much water? Does it have trunk, tusk? Does it leave in a jungle?

The words to be guessed

a runny nose, stress, a sore throat, diarrhea, a swollen ankle, plaster cast, oxygen mask, tablet, crutches, prescription medicine

➤ Whisper Sentence

Student A whispers the given sentence to student B. The student B says the sentence clearly.

Whisper the following sentences

1. *It started a month ago.*
2. *It started a year ago.*
3. *I feel exhausted (extremely tired).*
4. *I had an accident when I was 17 years old.*

5. *It hurts here.*
6. *I've got a sore throat.*
7. *I've got a swollen ankle.*
8. *I can't walk/sleep.*
9. *Is it serious?*
10. *I should see an ophthalmologist.*

➤ **Chain Spelling**

Pronounce and spell the following words and come up with a word beginning with the last letter of the word given: ***umbilical cord, hip, stomach, rib, thighs, knee, calf, shin, ankle, toe, sole, heel, drops, ointment, shoulder blade***

KEPUTUSAN REKTOR
INSTITUT AGAMA ISLAM NEGERI (IAIN) SYEKH NURJATI CIREBON
Nomor : **1051-A** /In.08/R/KU.00.1/05/2016

TENTANG
BIAYA PELAKSANAAN KEGIATAN PENELITIAN INDIVIDU REGULER BAGI DOSEN
DI LINGKUNGAN INSTITUT AGAMA ISLAM NEGERI (IAIN) SYEKH NURJATI CIREBON
TAHUN 2016

REKTOR IAIN SYEKH NURJATI CIREBON

- Menimbang :** bahwa dalam rangka tertib administrasi dan kelancaran Pelaksanaan Kegiatan Penelitian Individu Reguler bagi Dosen di Lingkungan IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon Tahun 2016, maka perlu ditetapkan Biaya Pelaksanaan kegiatan Penelitian tersebut, yang ditetapkan melalui Keputusan Rektor.
- Mengingat :**
1. Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 17 Tahun 2003 tentang Keuangan Negara;
 2. Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 20 Tahun 2003 tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional;
 3. Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 1 Tahun 2004 tentang Perbendaharaan Negara;
 4. Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 15 Tahun 2004 tentang Pemeriksaan Pengelolaan dan Tanggungjawab Keuangan Negara;
 5. Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 12 Tahun 2012 tentang Pendidikan Tinggi;
 6. Peraturan Pemerintah Nomor 45 Tahun 2013 tentang Tata Cara Pelaksanaan Anggaran Pendapatan dan Belanja Negara;
 7. Peraturan Pemerintah Republik Indonesia Nomor 4 Tahun 2014 tentang Penyelenggaraan Pendidikan Tinggi dan Pengelolaan Perguruan Tinggi;
 8. Peraturan Menteri Keuangan Nomor: 190/PMK.05/2012 tentang Tata Cara Pembayaran dalam Rangka Pelaksanaan Anggaran Pendapatan dan Belanja Negara;
 9. Peraturan Menteri Agama Republik Indonesia Nomor 11 Tahun 2013 tentang Perubahan atas Peraturan Menteri Agama Nomor 7 Tahun 2010 dan 16 Tahun 2011 tentang Organisasi dan Tata Kerja IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon;
 10. Peraturan Menteri Agama Republik Indonesia Nomor 36 Tahun 2014 tentang Perubahan atas Peraturan Menteri Agama Nomor 66 Tahun 2010 tentang Statuta IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon;
 11. Peraturan Menteri Agama Republik Indonesia Nomor 45 Tahun 2014 tentang Pejabat Perbendaharaan Negara;
 12. Peraturan Menteri Agama Nomor 55 Tahun 2014 tentang Penelitian dan Pengabdian kepada Masyarakat pada Perguruan Tinggi Keagamaan;
 13. Peraturan Menteri Keuangan Republik Indonesia Nomor 65/PMK.02/2015 tentang Standar Biaya Masukan Tahun Anggaran 2015;
 14. Surat Menteri Keuangan Republik Indonesia Nomor 025.04.2.423532/2016 tanggal 7 Desember 2015, tentang Daftar Isian Pelaksanaan Anggaran (DIPA) IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon Tahun Anggaran 2016;

MEMUTUSKAN

- Menetapkan :**
- KESATU :** Keputusan Rektor IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon tentang Biaya Pelaksanaan Kegiatan Penelitian Individu Reguler bagi Dosen di Lingkungan IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon Tahun 2016;
- KEDUA :** Biaya Pelaksanaan Kegiatan Penelitian sebagaimana diktum KESATU yang dibebankan pada DIPA IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon Tahun Anggaran 2016 dengan ketentuan sebagai berikut:
- | | |
|--|------------------------------------|
| - Biaya Pelaksanaan Kegiatan Penelitian Kategori Individu Pemula | Rp. 9.000.000,-/ Judul Penelitian |
| - Biaya Pelaksanaan Kegiatan Penelitian Kategori Individu Madya | Rp. 12.500.000,-/ Judul Penelitian |
- KETIGA :** Keputusan ini berlaku terhitung mulai tanggal ditetapkan, dengan ketentuan apabila terdapat kekeliruan dalam penetapan ini akan diubah dan diperbaiki sebagaimana mestinya;
- KUTIPAN** Keputusan ini diberikan kepada yang bersangkutan untuk diketahui dan diindahkan sebagaimana mestinya.

Ditetapkan di : Cirebon
Pada tanggal : 02 Mei 2016
Rektor, 


Dr. H. Sumanta, M.Ag
NIP. 19660516 199303 1 004

TEMBUSAN:

1. Kepala Badan Pemeriksa Keuangan RI di Jakarta;
2. Sekretaris Jenderal Kementerian Agama RI.
u.p. Kepala Biro Keuangan dan BMN di Jakarta;
3. Inspektur Jenderal Kementerian Agama RI di Jakarta;
4. Direktur Jenderal Pendidikan Islam Kementerian Agama RI di Jakarta;
5. Kepala Badan Pengawasan Keuangan dan Pembangunan di Bandung;

TENTANG
PENERIMA BIAYA PELAKSANAAN KEGIATAN PENELITIAN INDIVIDU REGULER BAGI DOSEN
DI LINGKUNGAN INSTITUT AGAMA ISLAM NEGERI (IAIN) SYEKH NURJATI CIREBON
TAHUN 2016

REKTOR IAIN SYEKH NURJATI CIREBON

- Menimbang** :
- a. bahwa dalam rangka pelaksanaan Peraturan Menteri Agama Nomor 55 Tahun 2014 tentang Penelitian dan Pengabdian kepada Masyarakat yang bertujuan meningkatkan produktivitas dan kualitas penelitian serta pengabdian masyarakat sesuai dengan semangat tri dharma perguruan tinggi;
 - b. bahwa dalam rangka memperkuat eksistensi Pusat Penelitian dan Penerbitan pada Lembaga Penelitian dan Pengabdian kepada Masyarakat (LP2M) untuk meningkatkan kualitas dan produktivitas penelitian serta pengabdian kepada masyarakat bagi dosen di lingkungan IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon;
 - c. bahwa berdasarkan huruf a dan b di atas, serta hasil seleksi proposal penelitian, perlu ditetapkan Penerima Biaya Pelaksanaan Kegiatan Penelitian Individu Reguler bagi Dosen di Lingkungan IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon Tahun Anggaran 2016 melalui Keputusan Rektor;
 - d. bahwa mereka yang namanya tercantum dalam daftar lampiran Keputusan ini dipandang cakap dan memenuhi syarat dalam seleksi administratif dan kualifikasi akademik dalam seminar proposal Penelitian.
- Mengingat** :
1. Undang-Undang Nomor 18 Tahun 2002 tentang Sistem Nasional Penelitian, Pengembangan dan Penerapan Ilmu Pengetahuan dan Teknologi (Lembaran Negara Republik Indonesia Tahun 2003 Nomor 84);
 2. Undang-Undang Nomor 20 Tahun 2003 tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional (Lembaran Negara Republik Indonesia Tahun 2003 Nomor 78, Tambahan Lembaran Negara Republik Indonesia Nomor 4301);
 3. Undang-Undang Nomor 14 Tahun 2005 tentang Guru dan Dosen;
 4. Undang-Undang Nomor 12 Tahun 2012 tentang Pendidikan Tinggi (Lembaran Negara Republik Indonesia Tahun 2012 Nomor 158, Tambahan Lembaran Negara Republik Indonesia Nomor 5336);
 5. Peraturan Pemerintah Nomor 37 Tahun 2009 tentang Dosen;
 6. Peraturan Pemerintah Nomor 04 Tahun 2014 tentang Penyelenggaraan Pendidikan Tinggi dan Pengelolaan Perguruan Tinggi;
 7. Peraturan Menteri Keuangan Nomor: 190/PMK.05/2012 tentang Tata Cara Pembayaran dalam Rangka Pelaksanaan Anggaran Pendapatan dan Belanja Negara;
 8. Peraturan Menteri Agama Nomor 11 Tahun 2013 tentang Organisasi dan Tata Kerja IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon;
 9. Peraturan Menteri Agama Nomor 36 Tahun 2014 tentang Statuta Institut Agama Islam Negeri (IAIN) Syekh Nurjati Cirebon;
 10. Peraturan Menteri Agama Nomor 55 Tahun 2014 tentang Penelitian dan Pengabdian kepada Masyarakat pada Perguruan Tinggi Keagamaan;
 11. Peraturan Menteri Keuangan Nomor: 65/PMK.02/2015 tentang Standar Biaya Masukan Tahun Anggaran 2016;
 12. Surat Menteri Keuangan Republik Indonesia Nomor: 025.04.2.423532/2016 tanggal 07 Desember 2015 tentang Daftar Isian Pelaksanaan Anggaran (DIPA) IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon Tahun Anggaran 2016.

MEMUTUSKAN

- Menetapkan** : Keputusan Rektor IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon tentang Penerima Biaya Pelaksanaan Kegiatan Penelitian Individu Reguler bagi Dosen di Lingkungan Institut Agama Islam Negeri (IAIN) Syekh Nurjati Cirebon Tahun 2016.
- PERTAMA** : Menetapkan Penerima Biaya Pelaksanaan Kegiatan Penelitian Individu Reguler bagi Dosen di Lingkungan IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon dan juri penelitiannya sebagaimana tersebut pada kolom 2 (dua) dan 3 (tiga) Lampiran Keputusan ini;
- KEDUA** : Penerima Biaya Pelaksanaan Kegiatan Penelitian individu Reguler bagi Dosen di Lingkungan Institut Agama Islam Negeri (IAIN) Syekh Nurjati Cirebon Tahun 2016 telah diseleksi secara substantif melalui mekanisme yang telah ditetapkan oleh Pusat Penelitian dan Penerbitan pada Lembaga Penelitian dan Pengabdian kepada Masyarakat (LP2M) IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon;
- KETIGA** : Penerima Biaya Pelaksanaan Kegiatan Penelitian Individu Reguler bagi Dosen di Lingkungan Institut Agama Islam Negeri (IAIN) Syekh Nurjati Cirebon Tahun 2016 akan mendapatkan dana penelitian dari DIPA IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon Tahun Anggaran 2016 dan diharuskan membuat laporan hasil penelitian dan laporan keuangan sesuai dengan ketentuan yang telah ditetapkan oleh Pusat Penelitian dan Penerbitan pada Lembaga Penelitian dan Pengabdian kepada Masyarakat (LP2M);
- KEEMPAT** : Keputusan ini berlaku sejak tanggal ditetapkan dengan ketentuan segala sesuatu akan diubah dan diperbaiki kembali sebagaimana mestinya, apabila dikemudian hari terdapat kekeliruan dalam penetapan Keputusan ini;

Kutipan Keputusan ini diberikan kepada yang bersangkutan untuk diindahkan dan dilaksanakan sebagaimana mestinya.



Ditetapkan di : Cirebon
Pada tanggal : 02 Mei 2016

Rektor,

H. Sumanta, M.Ag
NIP 19660516 199303 1 004

TEMBUSAN:

1. Kepala Badan Pemeriksa Keuangan RI di Jakarta;
2. Sekretaris Jenderal Kementerian Agama RI.

Lampiran II : Keputusan Rektor IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon
 Nomor : 10 St - A /In.08/R/TL.01/05/2016
 Tanggal : 02 Mei 2016

TENTANG
**PENERIMA BIAYA PELAKSANAAN KEGIATAN PENELITIAN INDIVIDU REGULER BAGI DOSEN
 DI LINGKUNGAN INSTITUT AGAMA ISLAM NEGERI (IAIN) SYEKH NURJATI CIREBON
 TAHUN 2016**

KATEGORI: PENELITIAN INDIVIDU MADYA

No.	Nama	Judul
1	2	3
1.	Drs. A. Syathori, M.Ag.	Pengaruh Manajemen Masjid Raya At-Taqwa Kota Cirebon dalam Pembinaan Pendidikan Agama Islam Non formal
2.	Dr. H. Suteja, M.Ag.	Pembinaan Kepribadian Murid Tarekat Qodiriyah Wan Naqsyabandiyah Desa Kertamulya Kecamatan Bongas Kabupaten Indramayu (Studi tentang Kesalehan Sosial Murid Tarekat)
3.	Dr. H. Wawan Ahmad Ridwan, M.Ag	Model Kerjasama Orang Tua dan Sekolah melalui Program <i>Parenting</i> di Lembaga PAUD Kota Cirebon
4.	Dr. Hj. Nuriela, M.Ag.	<i>Subjective Well Being</i> pada Mahasiswa IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon <i>Character Strenght</i> sebagai Variabel Prediktor
5.	Muhsin Riyadi, M.A.	Dampak Proyek Pembangunan Jalan Tol Cipali terhadap Kondisi Sosial Ekonomi Masyarakat Cirebon
6.	Drs. H. Syarif Hidayatullah, M.A. Wahyudin, S.Ag., M.Pd.I	Model Ta'mir Masjid Anti Radikalisme (Studi Kasus di Masjid Raya At-Taqwa Kota Cirebon)
7.	Dra. Hj. Rodliyah Zaenuddin, M.Ag.	Pola Asuh Islami pada Keluarga Berlatar Belakang Ekonomi Lemah (Studi Kasus pada Mahasiswa Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa Arab Fakultas Ilmu Tarbiyah dan Keguruan IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon)
8.	Masri'ah, M.Ag.	Tracer Studi Pengembangan Kurikulum Perguruan Tinggi Merujuk pada KKN IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon Tahun Lulus 2014-2015
9.	Erfan Gazali, M.Si.	Analisis Kebutuhan (Need Analysis) Pembelajaran Bahasa Asing di Pusat Pengembangan Bahasa IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon
10.	Prof. Dr. H. Syuaeb Kurdi, M.Pd.	Model Perguruan Tinggi Agama Islam Negeri (Berkemajuan)
11.	Dr. Hj. Huriyah, M.Pd.	Peringatan Hari Asy-Syura Ditinjau dari Tradisi/Budaya Masyarakat Islam Cirebon dalam Membangun <i>Sense of Religious</i>
12.	Dr. Septi Gumindari, M.Ag.	Bias Gender dalam Ilmu Psikologi (Telaah Psikologi Islam atas Konsep Psiko-Seksual Sigmund Freud)
13.	H. Udin Kamiluddin, M.A.	<i>The Effect Of Matching Teaching with Learning Styles on the Student's Speaking Skill at IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon</i>
14.	Dr. Muhamad Ali Misri, M.Si.	Kajian Modul " <i>P-Bézout</i> dan Idealisasinya" untuk Buku Ajar Mata Kuliah Teori Gelanggang Berbasis Riset
15.	Alif Ringga Persada, M.Pd.	Pengembangan <i>Edupreuner Program</i> dalam Kemampuan <i>Internet Marketing Soft Skill</i> Mahasiswa
16.	Saluky, M.Kom.	Pengembangan <i>Blueprint</i> Sistem Informasi Akademik Terintegrasi (Studi Kasus: IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon)
17.	Reza Oktiana Akbar, M.Pd.	Pengembangan Pembelajaran Berbasis Riset untuk Menunjang Implementasi Kurikulum di Jurusan Tadris Matematika IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon
18.	Dr. Edi Prio Baskoro, M.Pd.	Upaya Peningkatan Pembelajaran melalui Penerapan Penilaian Otentik (<i>Authentic Assessment</i>) di Sekolah Wilayah Pesisir Kecamatan Mundu Kabupaten Cirebon)
19.	Dr. Anda Juanda, M.Pd.	Pengembangan Model Pembelajaran Berbasis Riset Berorientasi Kegiatan Ilmiah Remaja (KIR) di MAN Ciyumajakuning (Studi Deskriptif Naturalistik Fenomena KIR di MAN)
20.	Dr. Dewi Cahyani, M.Pd.	Analisis Kemampuan Argumenasi Ilmiah Mahasiswa Calon Guru Biologi dalam Kegiatan Praktikum Berorientasi Inkuri
21.	Ina Rosdiana Lesmanawati, M.Si.	Pengelolaan Kawasan Lereng Gunung Ciremai melalui Pendekatan Etnobotani sebagai Sumber Belajar Pendidikan Konservasi Berorientasi Ketahanan Pangan
22.	Novianti Muspiroh, M.P.	Pembinaan Kompetensi Guru dalam Menciptakan Kualitas Pembelajaran IPA di SMP Swasta Kota Cirebon

No	Nama	Judul
1	2	3
23.	Hj. Ria Yulia Gloria, M.Pd.	Efektivitas Pembelajaran Kapita Selekta Biologi Berbasis Masalah dalam Membentuk <i>Habits of Mind</i> Mahasiswa Calon Guru
24.	Eka Fitriah, M.Pd.	Penerapan Model <i>Research Based Learning</i> (RBL) Etnozoologi untuk Meningkatkan Keterampilan Generik Sains dan Sikap Ilmiah Mahasiswa Calon Guru Biologi
25.	Yuyun Maryuningsih, M.Pd. Drs. H. Endang, M.Pd.	Upaya Membangun Kemampuan Literasi pada Mahasiswa Calon Guru dengan Memetakan Potensi Lokal dalam Pembelajaran melalui Penerapan <i>Learning Cycle</i>
26.	Asep Mulyani, M.Pd.	Identifikasi Penguasaan Mahasiswa Calon Guru Biologi terhadap Representasi Visual dalam Mata Kuliah Botani Phanerogamae
27.	Edy Chandra, S.Si., M.A.	Evaluasi terhadap Komponen Pedagogis Kurikulum di Lingkungan Fakultas Ilmu Tarbiyah dan Keguruan IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon
28.	Prof. Dr. H. Wahidn, M.Pd.	Implementasi Model Pembelajaran Sikap Ilmiah pada Mata Pelajaran IPA di SMP dan MTs Kota Cirebon
29.	Dra. Hj. Suniti, M.Pd. Dr. Yayat Suryatna, M.Ag.	Pengembangan Model Pembelajaran Pendidikan Anti Korupsi melalui Pendidikan Agama Islam di SMK Al-Hidayah Cirebon
30.	Dr. Aris, M.Pd. Dr. H. Ahmad Fauzi, M.Pd.	Strategi Pembelajaran IPS Berdasarkan Penerapan Konsep Siswa dan Pengaruhnya terhadap Prestasi Belajar Siswa (Penelitian Tindakan Kelas di SMP Negeri 2 Jalaksana Kuningan)
31.	Dr. Etty Ratnawati, M.Pd.	Dampak Pengembangan Waduk Jatigede terhadap Kesejahteraan Petani di Desa Ligung Kecamatan Ligung Kabupaten Majalengka
32.	Dr. H. Tamsik Udin, M.Pd. Patimah, M.Ag.	Nilai Karakter dalam Tradisi Sintren di Cirebon untuk Pengembangan Muatan Lokal di Sekolah
33.	Dwi Anita Alfiani, S.Ag., M.Pd.I Maman Rusman, S.Ag., M.Pd.	Implementasi Pendidikan Agama Islam dalam Keluarga terhadap Perkembangan Karakter Kepribadian Anak MI Al-Wasliyah Sumber Kabupaten Cirebon
34.	Prof. Dr. Hj. Eti Nurhayati, M.Si.	Model Parenting untuk Membentuk Karakter Islami Anak Usia Dini (Studi di Lingkungan Pondok Pesantren Al-Ishlah Desa Bobos Kabupaten Cirebon)
35.	Drs. Masdudi, M.Pd.	Implementasi Layanan Bimbingan Konseling Islami Melalui Teknik Hypno Therapy dalam Membentuk Karakter Siswa (Penelitian di MTs Negeri Darma Kabupaten Kuningan)
36.	Dr. H. Taqiyuddin, M.Pd.	Respon dan Partisipasi Masyarakat terhadap Pengelolaan Pendidikan Islam Non Formal (Studi Kasus KH. Abu Khaer melalui <i>Ngaji Sore</i> di <i>Shidqul Amal</i> Desa Kedungjaya Kecamatan Kedawung Kabupaten Cirebon)
37.	Ahmad Ripai, M.Pd.	Evaluasi Implementasi Kebijakan Penerapan Basa Cerbon sebagai Materi Pelajaran Muatan Lokal di Sekolah
38.	Dr. Emah Khuzaemah, M.Pd.	Penerapan Model <i>Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition</i> (CIRC) Berbasis <i>Life Skill</i> untuk Meningkatkan Keterampilan Menulis Esai pada Mahasiswa Fakultas Ilmu Tarbiyah dan Keguruan IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon Tadris Bahasa Indonesia
39.	Dr. Muslihudin, M.Ag.	Pengembangan Model Pengelolaan <i>Project Based Learning</i> (PBL) untuk Meningkatkan Keterampilan Berfikir Kreatif dan Kemandirian Mahasiswa
40.	Dra. Tati Sri Uswati, M.Pd.	Penerapan <i>Language Experience Aproach</i> dalam Pembelajaran Keterampilan Berbicara di Madrasah Aliyah
41.	Dr. H. Syafrudin, M.Ag.	Peran Ganda Perempuan pada Keluarga Nelayan Masyarakat Pesisir (Studi Kasus Istri Nelayan di Desa Gebang Kecamatan Gebang Kabupaten Cirebon)
42.	Nining Wahyuningsih, SE., MM.	Urgensi Hotel Syariah untuk Menunjang Pariwisata di Kota Cirebon
43.	Alvien Septian Haerisma, MSI	Pengembangan Ekonomi Kreatif Bidang Fashion melalui Bauran Pemasaran (Studi Kasus Batik EB Traditional Cirebon)
44.	Toto Suharto, S.E., M.Si.	Pengembangan Pariwisata Syariah di Wilayah III Cirebon (Studi Kasus di Kota dan Kabupaten Cirebon)
45.	H. Juju Jumena, S.Ag., MH.	Respon Mahasiswa Prodi Muamalah terhadap Pelanggaran Hak Cipta
46.	Drs. H. Ahmad Dasuki Aly S., MM.	Model-model Pembiayaan di BMT Islamic Center Cirebon Alternatif Pemberdayaan Usaha Kecil Masyarakat
47.	Drs. Amir, M.Ag.	Kontribusi Tafsir Imam Syafi'i terhadap Penetapan Hukum Islam
48.	Wardah Nuroniyah, M.S.I.	Respon Hakim Pengadilan Agama Kabupaten Cirebon terhadap Hukum Perkawinan dalam KUI T-0-2-2019

No	Nama	Judul
1	2	3
49.	Arief Rachman, M.Si.	Media Dakwah Sunan Gunung Djati (Studi Historis tentang Penggunaan Batik dalam Penyebaran Islam di Cirebon)
50.	H. Aan Mohamad Burhanudin, M.A.	Implementasi Dakwah Islamiyah Melalui Masres (Sandiwara Cirebonan) di Desa Bedulan Kec. Kapetakan Kab. Cirebon)
51.	Anisul Fuad, M.Si.	Kesenian Sintren sebagai Media Dakwah Kontemporer
52.	Muhammad Fuad Anwar, M.Ag.	Model Bimbingan dan Konseling Spiritual Islam dalam Membentuk Konsep Diri Positif (Studi Kasus pada Warga Binaan Pemasyarakatan di Lembaga Pemasyarakatan Kelas 1 Kesambi Cirebon)
53.	Jaja Suteja, M.Pd.I	Efektivitas Bimbingan terhadap Klien Bebas Bersyarat dalam Mewujudkan Reintegrasi Sosial (Studi Kasus di Balai Pemasyarakatan Kelas I Cirebon)
54.	Naeila Rifatil Muna, M.Pd.I.	Dinamika Psikologis Odha dalam Menghadapi Masa Kritis Akibat AIDS
55.	Asriyanti Rosmalina, M.Ag.	Model Pendampingan Bimbingan Penyuluhan Islam dalam Meningkatkan Mental Keberagamaan (Studi Kasus pada Balai Rehabilitasi Sosial Karya Wanita (BRKW) Palimanan Jawa Barat)
56.	Dr. Hajam, M.Ag.	Tipologi Sufisme Kiyai Lokal Cirebon (Telaah K. Emet Khotib 1925-1990)
57.	Dr. AR. Idham, Kholid, M.Ag.	Tarekat Asy-Syhadatun di Cirebon: Tipologi dan Polarisasinya
58.	Dr. Siti Fatimah, M.Hum	Pemahaman Para Ulama Cirebon terhadap Ayat-ayat Jihad Islam dan Responnya terhadap Perilaku Teroris (Kajian Filsafat Fenomenologi)
59.	Wakhit Hasim, M.Hum	Praktik Sosial dan Alasan Perkawinan Anak di Cirebon
60.	Dr. Mahrus, M.Ag.	Rangking Perguruan Tinggi dan <i>Institutional Repository</i> (Studi Analisis Kebijakan IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon terhadap Pusat Perpustakaan IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon)
61.	Mustopa, M.Ag.	Kajian Historis dan Filosofis Simbol 9 (Sembilan) Pintu pada Komplek Makam Sunan Gunung Djati Cirebon
62.	Drs. Jalaluddin, M.Si.	Struktur Sosial Cirebon: Analisis Konstruksi Kekuasaan Politik dan Keraton Abad 13-19
63.	Dr. Sitti Faoziyah, M.Ag	Studi Kawasan Industri Hulu-Hilir Migas PT. Pertamina (Persero) dan Pembangunan Berkelanjutan melalui Program <i>Corporate social Responsibility</i> di Kabupaten Indramayu
64.	Suryadi, M.Si.	Perlindungan Anak Buruh Migran di Kabupaten Cirebon (Analisis terhadap Konsep Dampak Anak yang Ditinggalkan)
65.	Zaenal Masduqi, M.Ag.	Gerak dan Laju Al-Jam'iyatul Washliyah Cabang Cirebon (1957-2006) dalam Bidang Sosial Keagamaan dan Pendidikan Islam
66.	Dr. H. Adib, M.Ag.	<i>The New Generation Of Quranic Vernaculation in Indonesia: Critical Studies on The New Trends of Transliteration of Mushaf Quran in Indonesia</i>
67.	Muhammad Maimun, M.A., M.S.I.	Resepsi Al-Quran dalam Film <i>Kalam-Kalam Langit</i> : Suatu Analisis Kritis-Transformatif



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