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SURAT PENCATATAN

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Jenis Ciptaan	:	**Laporan Penelitian**
Judul Ciptaan	:	**LEARNING STYLES-BASED INSTRUCTION FOR TEACHING SPEAKING AT MADRASAH ALIYAH PONDOK PESANTREN HUSNUL KHATIMAH MANIS KIDUL, JALAKSANA-KUNINGAN**
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LAPORAN AKHIR PENELITIAN INDIVIDU MANDIRI

LEARNING STYLES-BASED INSTRUCTION FOR TEACHING SPEAKING AT MADRASAH ALIYAH PONDOK PESANTREN HUSNUL KHATIMAH MANIS KIDUL, JALAKSANA-KUNINGAN

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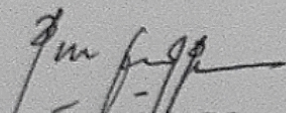
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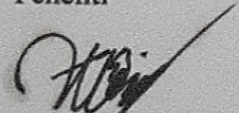
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Judul Penelitian   : Learning Styles-Based Instruction for Teaching Speaking at Madrasah Aliyah Pondok Pesantren Husnul Khatimah Manis Kidul, Jalaksana-Kuningan

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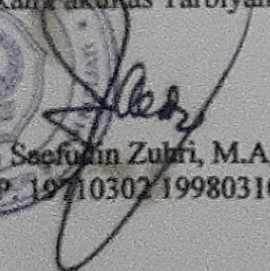
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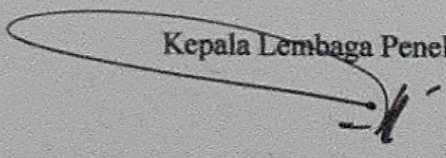
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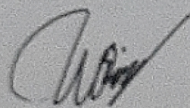
Yang bertanda tangan di bawah ini, menyatakan dengan sejujurnya bahwa data dan sumber rujukan yang digunakan dalam **penelitian individu mandiri** berjudul:

"Learning Styles-Based Instruction for Teaching Speaking at Madrasah Aliyah Pondok Pesantren Husnul Khatimah Manis Kidul, Jalaksana-Kuningan" adalah benar karya peneliti dan mengikuti kaidah penulisan akademik.

Jika dikemudian hari terdapat hal yang bertentangan dengan aturan yang berlaku, penulis bersedia mempertanggung jawabkan hal tersebut.

Cirebon, 28 Nopember 2013

Peneliti

H. Udin Kamiluddin

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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, purpose of the study, research questions, outcomes of the study, significance of the study, limitations of the study, organization of the study, and finally he ends it with a description of terminological definitions.

1. 2. Literature Review on Learning Styles-Based Instruction (LSBI)

Learning Styles-Based Instruction (LSBI) is a learner-centered approach to language learning that explicitly explores learner's learning styles and teacher's strategies in every day classroom language instruction (Cohen and J. Weaver, 2005: 5).

The LSBI accommodates styles differences by providing opportunities during class for the students to learn in different ways. It 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.

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 Murrel (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). 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.

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. Similarly, the students who are actively engaged in learning will be more likely to succeed. (Lang & Evans: 2006, p. 63). 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; Mc Carthy, 1986; Gardner,1993; Perfomance 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). 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). However, as Felder (1995: 21-31) warns that the teaching style which learners prefer may not be the best for learning.

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). 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.

However, 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. 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). Furthermore, 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).

Interestingly, Smith, Sekar and Towsend (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.

The foregoing discussion suggests 'Matching hypothesis' 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). Moreover, 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.

1.3. Literature Review on the Implementation of Learning Styles-Based Instruction (LSBI) 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 kinesthetic 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.

1.4. Literature Review on Learning Styles of 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 accord 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.

1.5. The Necessity of Speaking Skill in Global Era

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.

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).

1. 6. The Practice of Teaching Speaking in Indonesia

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).

Studies reported that teaching speaking English in Indonesian schools 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 (Rachmayanti, 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, 2066, 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); (Ekawahyu dan AzisSuganda: 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).

With regard to EFL students' competence in the research site reflected satisfactory progress in reading, grammar, and writing, but when it comes to speaking, they often appear frustrated due to lack of vocabulary knowledge, poor grammar and pronunciation, less confident, make fun of themselves, feel hesitance, ashy, and do not brave to take risk,. (Interview with a teacher on 5 September 2013).

As a paradox happens between the practice of teaching speaking English and an ideal goal of teaching second or foreign language (communicative proficiency) applying communicative activities preferred by the students called in this study "*Learning Styles-Based Instruction" (LSBI)* is expected to expose the learners to fluency as well as accuracy in speaking class.

Learning Styles-Based Instruction does not mean that a 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). It is instructional activities that provide the proportion of the tasks to fit different learner types in TEFL class. If a pupil received positive feedback for his skill in listening, it might increase his desire to explore

another avenue of learning. Therefore, students with different learning styles might get balance opportunity to maximize their potential to learning, and hence improve academic achievement.

In addition 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.

Another reason why the researcher proposed LSBI as an alternative approach to teaching speaking for EFL students at Senior High Schools was that the spirit of LSBI is relevant with the current trend of teaching paradigm: learner-centred (bottom up) approaches. Specifically, the LSBI is in line with the introduction of the so-called Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan (School-Level Curriculum) that reveals teaching should be geared to activate all learners' participation.

1. 7. 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. But research focusing on Teaching Speaking at Senior High School (SMA/MA) in Indonesian context based on learners' learning styles and different communicative activities was virtually non-existent.

The problem was that there were no research-based guidelines to assist material developers and teachers on how to best design and implement speaking activities using Learning Styles-Based Approach to Teaching Speaking for Senior High School (SMA/MA) students in Indonesia.

In order to enhance the speaking proficiency of Indonesian EFL students the researcher proposed "Learning Styles-Based Instruction" procedure providing proportional classroom activities to fit different types of learners. This research employed qualitative method.

1.8. Limitations of the Study

This study was limited to speaking class at Madrasah Aliyah Pondok Pesantren Husnul Khatimah Manis Kidul, Jalaksana-Kuningan. This school was selected in this study for some reasons as it is an Islamic Boarding School that imposes students to use both English and ArAbic languages in daily communication. It provided sufficient learning facilities include language laboratory, very conducive classrooms to learning i.e. air conditioned rooms, multi media centre, internet access, ideal number of students in each classroom, i.e. 20th students, qualified teachers, sports facilities, hall, student centre, a mosque, canteen etc. Moreover, it was quiet accessible from different aspects: geographical aspect, cultural aspect, and social aspect.

1.9. Purpose of the Study

This study was conducted to meet the following purposes:

1. Identify students' learning styles in English class.
2. Design classroom instructional activities compatible with various students' learning styles in English class.

1.10. Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

1. What learning styles did typically the students engage in English class?

2. Which instructional activities were beneficial for all types of learners?

1.11. Outcomes of the Study

A set of information on typical students learning styles and recommendations for teaching speaking at Madrasah Aliyah Pondok Pesantren Husnul Khatimah, Manis Kidul Jalaksana, Kuningan based on student's learning style as an outcome of this study.

1.12. Significance of the Study

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

1. For the teachers

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 use 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 their preparation to enter a higher education level.

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.

1.13. Organization of the Study

The second chapter of this study reports a review of the literature associated with this study. The third chapter, on methodology, includes an introduction and information about subjects, technique of collecting the data, and analysis of the data. The fourth chapter reports the findings. Chapter five offers conclusions and recommendations for further study and practice.

1.14. 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).

Learning Styles-Based Instruction (LSBI) 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.

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.

CHAPTER II

Theoretical studies

This chapter discusses some theories of learning, learning styles, learning styles-based instruction, and teaching speaking

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.

2.1.1. 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 recency: 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).

2.1.2. 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 under-

standing.

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.

2.1.3. 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.'

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. 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 behaviors, 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:

2.2.1. 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 f 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 arrangement, as a compensation for own perceived deficiency in ability to structure	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
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	Greater tendency to experience self as a separate entity; with, also a great deal of

	rather as to a degree----fused with group and with environment	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

2.2.2. 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.

2.2.3. 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.

2.2.4. 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

Attributes

Extrovert learners like to:

- Talk to understand new information and ides;
- 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.

2.2.5. 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.

2.2.6. 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).

2.2.7. Perceptual Learning Style Preferences (PLSP)

In 1984 Joy Reid 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.

Kinesthetic learners

Characteristics of kinesthetic 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.

2.2.8. 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.

2.3. Learning styles-based instruction

Learning Styles-Based Instruction (LSBI) is a learner-centered approach to language learning that explicitly explores learner's learning styles and teacher's strategies in every day classroom language instruction (Cohen and J. Weaver, 2005: 5). The LSBI accommodates styles differences by providing opportunities during class for the students to learn in different ways. It 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.

Studies on learning/teaching styles had been increasing in the last three decades focusing on the effects of matching and mismatching teaching with students' learning styles in ESL, EFL teaching and other subjects.

Claxon and Murrel (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. 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). Dunn et al. (1982); Lemmon (1985); MacMurren (1985) cited in Pritchard (2009: 52) identified the relationship between academic achievement and individual learning styles. The research confirms:

- pupils do learn in different ways to each other
- pupil performance in different subject areas are related to how individuals learn
- when pupils are taught with approaches and sources that are complement their particular learning styles, their achievement is significantly increased.

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; Mc Carthy, 1986; Gardner,1993; Perfomance 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 S. Fisser 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 S. Fisser 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. Moreover, 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. On the other hand, some studies 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 (Rush and Moore: 1991). Parallel with this is Hayes and Allison's (1997) finding saying that "exposing learners to learning activities that mismatched with their preferred earning 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. (S. Fisser et al, 2006: 99).

Interestingly, Smith, Sekar and Towsend (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 favor 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 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.

Learning Styles-Based Instruction 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.

Learning Styles-Based Instruction is an approach to teaching around the learning cycle that 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.

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The spirit of Learning Styles-Based Instruction is in fact learner-centered (bottom up) approaches. 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 assessed. Students are more likely to experiment, explore, and create.

The curriculum becomes much more personalized, focused on meeting the needs of the students (Partin: 2009, p. 140). In the words of Nunan (2003: 8) a student-centered 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.

2.4. Teaching speaking

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-centered 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).

2.4.1. The practice of teaching speaking EFL in Indonesia

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 (Rachmayanti, 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, 2066, pp. 280-282).

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.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHOD

The focus of this chapter includes discussion on the research subject, technique of collecting the data, and data analysis.

3.1. Research Method

This study employs qualitative approach. It is a descriptive model of research. It includes classroom observations, structured interviews for the students, and questionnaires to gain information on student's learning preferences using a model of questionnaires developed by Willing (1988: 106).

Subjects

3.2. Research Site

The subject of this research is 128 students of Madrasah Aliyah Pondok Pesantren Husnul Khatimah Manis Kidul, Jalaksana-Kuningan in the academic year 2013/2014. It consists of 55 male and 73 female students of grade XI of natural science (IPA) and social studies (IPS) program. It comprises 3 IPA classes and 3 IPS classes.

The school has been nominated as it is an Islamic Boarding School that imposes students to use both English and ArAbic languages in daily communication. It provided sufficient learning facilities include language laboratory, very conducive classrooms to learning i.e. air conditioned rooms, multi media centre, internet access, ideal number of students in each classroom, i.e. 20th students, qualified teachers, sports facilities, hall, student centre, a mosque, canteen etc. Moreover, it was quiet accessible from different aspects: geographical aspect, cultural aspect, and social aspect.

Whereas the selection of the subjects was based on willingness to take part in the study and they are accessible socially and culturally as well as geographically.

3.3. Technique of collecting the data

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 as well as to diagnose if learning style differences of the students in Social Studies and Natural Science study programs exist.

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).

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:

Type 1: 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.

Type 2: 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.

Type 3: Concrete learners

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

Type 4: Teacher-oriented learners

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

3.4. 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 was analyzed 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".

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The research findings and discussion are the major issues of chapter four. This chapter begins with the presentation of the result of the study.

Findings

The results of the study with regard to learner types as identified by the questionnaire on 8 September 2013 are presented as follows.

The tables below reveal how male and female students of the two different study program prefer to learn.

4.1. Male students learning style of Grade XI, Study Program IPA 1

No	Name of the student	Learner type	Minimum type
1	Abdurrahman Saleh	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
2	Ahmad Arif Shiddiqy	II&IV Communicative &Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
3	Anas Yahya Abdullah	IV. Teacher-oriented	III. Concrete
4	Andrie Muhammad Iqbal	II. Communicative	III&IV Concrete& Teacher-oriented
5	Asraar Kamal ʿAzmi	II, III&IV Communicative, Concrete& Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
6	Azay Zayinul Waddin	I. Analytic	IV. Teacher-oriented
7	Azka Ilham Muzaki	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
8	Brillian Abdillah Destin	II&IV Communicative &Teacher-oriented	I&III Analytic& Concrete
9	Fikri Cahyo H.	IV. Teacher-oriented	I, II&III Analytic, Communicative& Concrete
10	Faza Firdaus Nuzula	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
11	Huda Nur Rabbani	IV. Teacher-oriented	III. Concrete

12	Ikhwan Ramadhana	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
13	Ilman Nafi'an	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
14	Jundi Amir Syuhada	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
15	Jundi Naufal Fikri	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
16	M. Hanzhalah G.M	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
17	M. Hamzah	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
18	M. Hidayatullah	II&III Communicative& Concrete	I. Analytic
19	M. Sabiq Bilhaq	IV. Teacher-oriented	I, II&III Analytic, Communicative& Concrete
20	M. Zia Pratama H.	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
21	Miqdad Abdurrazaq	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
22	Muhammad Iqbal Pratama	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
23	Muhammad Luthfi Afwan	I. Analytic	II&IV Communicative& Teacher-oriented
24	Muhammad Rasyid Ridha	IV. Teacher-oriented	I, II&III Analytic, Communicative& Concrete
25	Muhammad Rifqi Ramadhan	I, II&III Analytic, Communicative& Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented
26	Muhammad Umar Al-Faruqi	IV. Teacher-oriented	III. Concrete
27	Ramdani S.	I. Analytic	III. Concrete
28	Rifqi Ahmad Muzaki	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
29	Rijal Shibghotul Islam	IV. Teacher-oriented	III. Concrete
30	Rofifi Dhiya Ulhaq	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
31	Yahya Al-Fatih	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic

4.2. Male students learning style of Grade XI, Study Program IPS 1

No	Name of the student	Learner type	Minimum type
1	Abdullah Zuber	II. Communicative	III. Concrete
2	Abdussalam Mutaakkidin Mas'udi	II. Communicative	I&III Analytic& Concrete
3	Adhfar	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
4	Fauzan Achmad A.	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
5	Gama Cahya Bhagaskara	II&IV Communicative& Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
6	Ghiyats Faris Abdullah	II&III Communicative& Concrete	I&IV Analytic& Teacher-oriented
7	Giffar Jiyad Uswah	I. Analytic	III. Concrete
8	Ibrohim Alkholil	III&IV Concrete & Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
9	Iqbal Miftahudin	IV. Teacher-oriented	II. Communicative
10	Jihar Jinulhikam	III. Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented
11	Kayyis Abdul A.	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
12	M. Amrullah Nurudin	IV. Teacher-oriented	Concrete
13	M. Erwin Saputra	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
14	M. Ja'far Assidiq	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
15	Muhammad Aditya Prasetya	II. Communicative	III. Concrete
16	Muhammad Farhan Alghani	II. Communicative	I&III Analytic& Concrete
17	Muhammad Fathan Mubina	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
18	Muhammad Rafi Irfanul Fadli	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
19	Muhammad Raihan	III. Concrete	II&IV Communicative& Teacher-oriented
20	Muhammad Rizky Robbani	II. Communicative	I, III&IV Analytic,

			Concrete& Teacher-oriented
21	Mush'ab Al-Ma'ruf	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
22	Nur Dawlah Fakhruddin	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
23	Rizky	I. Analytic	II, III&IV Communicative, Concrete& Teacher-oriented
24	Wahyu Putra Jaya	IV. Teacher-oriented	III. Concrete

4.3. Female students learning style of Grade XI, Study Program IPA 3

No	Name of the student	Learner type	Minimum type
1	Amiroh Annaisah	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
2	Ammatullah Aisyah Ahmad	II&III Communicative & Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented
3	Asma Azizah	II. Communicative	I&IV Analytic& Teacher-oriented
4	Dzakiratunnisa	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
5	Khansa Zafira	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
6	Muthiah Miftahul Jannah	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
7	Nabila Karimah	IV. Teacher-oriented	I&III Analytic& Concrete
8	Nafisa Farkhiy Aulia	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
9	Nidaul Hasanah	II & IV. Communicative& Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
10	Putri Utami	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
11	Qonitat Hafizhoh	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
12	Rizka Fianisa	II & IV. Communicative& Teacher-oriented	I&III Analytic &Concrete

13	Shofiyah Abir Zaujah	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
14	Siti Raudhah Nadia	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
15	Tsabitah Taqiyyah	II. & III Communicative & Concrete	I. Analytic
16	Ummu Nasywah Q.A.	II. Communicative	I&IV Analytic& Teacher-oriented
17	Wasiatul Ilma	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
18	Abiyyu Dzaki Khairunnisa	II. . Communicative	I. Analytic
19	Afifah Faaiqoh	IV. Teacher-oriented	III. Concrete
20	Amalia Noorlaily Rahma	IV. Teacher-oriented	III. Concrete
21	Anisah	IV. Teacher-oriented	I&III Analytic& Concrete
22	Chairin Nashrillah	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
23	Hasna Khoirunnisa	I. Analytic	II. Communicative
24	Indi Millatul Maula	II&III Communicative & Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented
25	Qanita Mustafa	IV. Teacher-oriented	III. Concrete

4.4. Female students learning style of Grade XI, Study Program IPA 4

No	Name of the student	Learner type	Minimum type
1	Adristi Shalmawidati	II. Communicative	I&IV Analytic& Teacher-oriented
2	Alfiyyah Darojah	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
3	Asrizha Rizqi Anjani	II&III Communicative & Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented
4	Atina Zahiratul Fikrah	IV. Teacher-oriented	III. Concrete

5	Aulia Taqiaturrahmah	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
6	Dina Farhanah	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
7	Euis MarisaBrilianty	III. Concrete	IV. Teacher-oriented
8	Fathia Karimah	I. Analytic	III. Concrete
9	Fathin Abida	II. Communicative	III. Concrete
10	Fatimah	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
11	Fika Afiani Rifati Rizki	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
12	Hilda Mayfani	III. Concrete	I. & IV. Analytic& Teacher-oriented
13	Hilma Farah	I&II Analytic& Communicative	III&IV Concrete & Teacher-oriented
14	Izzatun Nisa	II. Communicative	IV. Teacher-oriented
15	Mifta Khasanah	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
16	Nadia Maratu Sholihah	III. Concrete	I. Analytic
17	Nadya	II. Communicative	I&IV Analytic& Teacher-oriented
18	Nurul Fitriannisa	II. Communicative	I. & IV. Analytic& Teacher-oriented
19	Nur Syahidah Kizlyara	I. & IV. Analytic& Teacher-oriented	II&III Communicative & Concrete
20	Rizka Yazibarahmah	II. Communicative	IV. Teacher-oriented
21	Shafira Hafizhotun Nisa	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
22	Siti Rizqia Solihati Suhermawan	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
23	Syifaul Hasanah	II. Communicative	I. Analytic

4.5. Female students learning style of Grade XI, Study Program IPS 3

No	Name of the student	Learner type	Minimum type
1	Aidila Shafa Yasinta	II.&III Communicative &	I. Analytic

		Concrete	
2	Amaniy Sajidah	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
3	Dhiyah Hasti Suprihanto	II & IV. Communicative & Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
4	Gina Giartika	II. & III Communicative & Concrete	I. Analytic
5	Hayyun Latifah	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
6	Latifah Fauziah	II. Communicative	I, III & IV Analytic, Concrete& Teacher-oriented
7	Mutia Annisa	IV. Teacher-oriented	I&III Analytic& Concrete
8	Nizda Rokhmatul Ummah	IV. Teacher-oriented	II. Communicative
9	Pretty Nabila	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
10	Rumaisha Hanifah Mubarakah	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
11	Shofiyah Ning Fitri	III. Konkrit	I. Analytic

4.6. Female students learning style of Grade XI, Study Program IPS 4

No	Name of the student	Learner type	Minimum type
1	Ana Humaidah	II&IV Communicative & Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic
2	Atika Muharamah Dzil Ikram	II&IV Communicative & Teacher-oriented	I&III Analytic &Concrete
3	Farida Rahmawati	IV. Teacher-oriented	I&II Analytic & Communicative
4	Haula Millati Azka	III&IV Concrete & Teacher-oriented	I&II Analytic& Communicative
5	Iffah Qonita	II. Communicative	I. Analytic

6	Iqtifa Nurkholifah	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
7	Kartika Sari Wijanarko	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
8	Lulu Dharmanis M.	II&III Communicative & Concrete	I. Analytic
9	Lulu Faradisa	III&IV Concrete& Teacher-oriented	I&II Analytic & Communicative
10	Nailatul Izzah	II. Communicative	I. Analytic
11	Rahmah Salsabila	II. Communicative	IV. Teacher-oriented
12	Syahidah Izzata Sabiila	IV. Teacher-oriented	III. Concrete
13	Syifa Fauziyah	IV. Teacher-oriented	II. Communicative
14	Taslimatu Humairo	IV. Teacher-oriented	I. Analytic

4.7. Table 1 Male students learning style in accordance with their study program

No	Learner type	IPA 1	Percentage
1	Analytical	3	9.67%
2	**Communicative**	7	22.58%
3	Concrete	6	19.35
4	**Teacher-oriented**	**10**	**32.25**
5	Mixed	5	16.12
	Total	31	100%

4.8. Table 2 Male students learning style in accordance with their study program

No	Learner type	IPS 1	Percentage
1	Analytical	2	8.33
2	**Communicative**	**9**	**37.5**
3	Concrete	4	16.66
4	**Teacher-oriented**	6	25
5	Mixed	3	12.5
	Total	24	100%

4.9. Table 3 Comparisons of male students learning style in accordance with their study program

No	Learner type	IPA 1	Percentage	IPS 1	Percentage
1	Analytical	3	9.67%	2	8.33
2	**Communicative**	7	22.58%	**9**	**37.5**
3	Concrete	6	19.35	4	16.66
4	**Teacher-oriented**	**10**	**32.25**	6	25
5	Mixed	5	16.12	3	12.5
	Total	31	100%	24	100%

The previous tables indicate that male science students tend to be teacher-oriented type in which 32.25% (10 students) of them prefer learning through teacher's detail explanation, like to have their own   textbook, to write everything in a notebook, to study grammar, learn by reading, and learn new words by seeing them.

Whereas the students of social studies program are categorized as communicative type that can be seen from their preference (37.5% that is 9 students) 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.

The data reveals male science students differ from male students of social studies in terms of their preference to learning.

4.10. Table 4 Female students learning style in accordance with their study program

No	Learner type	IPA 3	Percentage	IPA 4	Percentage
1	Analytical	1	4%	1	4.34%
2	**Communicative**	6	24%	**10**	**43.47%**
3	Concrete	3	12%	3	13.04%
4	**Teacher-oriented**	**10**	**40%**	6	26.08%
5	Mixed	5	20%	3	13.04%
	Total	25	100%	23	100%

4.11. Table 5 Female students learning style in accordance with their study program

No	Learner type	IPS 3	Percentage	IPS 4	Percentage
1	Analytical	0	0%	0	0%
2	**Communicative**	**4**	**36.36%**	**5**	**35.71%**
3	Concrete	1	9.09%	0	0%
4	Teacher-oriented	3	27.27%	4	28.57%
5	Mixed	3	27.27%	5	35.71%
	Total	11	100%	14	100%

4.12. Table 6 Comparisons of female students learning style in accordance with their study program

No	Learner type	IPA	Percentage	IPS	Percentage
1	Analytical	2	4.16%	0	0%
2	**Communicative**	**16**	**33.33%**	**9**	**36%**
3	Concrete	6	12.5%	1	4%
4	**Teacher-oriented**	**16**	**33.33%**	7	28%
5	Mixed	8	16.66%	8	32%
	Total	48	100%	25	100%

The previous tables indicate that female science students tend to be teacher-oriented type in which 33.33% (16 students) of them prefer learning through teacher's detail explanation, like to have their own textbook, to write everything in a notebook, to study grammar, learn by reading, and learn new words by seeing them. Interestingly, the science students show equal percentage (33.33% (16 students) that means they tend to be communicative type as well. In shorts, female science students tend be dominated by two major types, namely teacher-oriented type and communicative type.

Whereas the students of social studies program are categorized as communicative type that can be seen from their preference (36% that is 9 students) 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.

The data reveals female science students differ from female students of social studies in terms of their preference to learning.

4.13. Table 7 Comparisons of male and female students learning style in accordance with their study program

No	Learner type	**IPA**	Percentage	**IPS**	Percentage
1	Analytical	5	6.32	2	4.08
2	**Communicative**	23	29.11	**18**	**36.73**
3	Concrete	12	15.18	5	10.20
4	**Teacher-oriented**	**26**	**32.91**	13	26.53
5	Mixed	13	16.45	11	22.44
	Total	79	100%	49	100%

The table above indicates that male and female science students tend to be teacher-oriented type in which 32.91% (26 students) of them prefer learning through teacher's detail explanation, like to have their own textbook, to write everything in a notebook, to study grammar, learn by reading, and learn new words by seeing them.

Whereas male and female students of social studies program are categorized as communicative type that can be seen from their preference (36.73% that is 18 students) 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.

The data reveals male and female science students differ from male and female students of social studies in terms of their preference to learning.

4.14. Table 8 Comparisons of students learning style in accordance with their sex

No	Learner type	**Male**	Percentage	**Female**	Percentage
1	Analytical	5	9.09%	2	2.73%
2	**Communicative**	**16**	**29.09%**	**25**	**34.24%**
3	Concrete	10	18.18%	7	9.58%

4	**Teacher-oriented**	**16**	**29.09%**	23	31.50%
5	Mixed	8	14.54%	16	21.91%
	Total	55	100%	73	100%

The data in the table 8 shows that male students are dominated by two learner types equally they are Communicative type (29.09%) and Teacher-oriented (29.09%). On the other side, 34.24% (25 students) of female students are classified into communicative learners who 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. In other words, boys learn differently from girls.

Specifically, the data confirm, to a certain degree, study program and sex affect students learning styles.

4.15. Discussion

Having analyzed the data from different angles, this study reveals that some factors such as sex and study program 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 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 Widianti, 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).

These findings confirm that science students tend to be teacher oriented whereas social science students are categorized as communicative type. From sex perspective, males like to be teacher oriented whereas female prefer communicative style.

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.

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).

4.16. Implications for Task Design

Task (in teaching) has been defined as an activity which is designed to help achieve a particular learning goal (Richards et al., 2002: 539). As the learning style preferences identified by a majority of the students of all grades, it seems reasonable to use the results as general

directions to take in designing learning activities. Many research findings (Subban, 2006: 939; Ho, 1999: 53; Kasaian and Ayatollahi, 2010: 131; Dunn and Dunn, 1979: 242; Zhenhui, 2001: 1 and 4; She, 2005: 609; Bernard, 1972; Lang & Evans, 2006: 63; S. Fisser et al., 2006: 99 and Brown, 2003: 1) confirm that understanding students' learning styles and then teaching them through their preferred ways of learning enhanced academic achievement, improved attitude and motivation to learning, and created effective learning. Therefore, more teacher-oriented tasks for male students whereas more communicative tasks for female students need to be taken into consideration for inclusion in the course as most students prefer to learn in those atmospheres.

The followings are an example of how teacher-oriented tasks and communicative tasks can be designed.

The learning methods preferred by teacher-oriented learners as listed in Willing's (1988) questionnaire are as follows:

- to learn through teacher's detail explanation
- to be told what they should learn
- to be given the resources to acquire the specified body of knowledge or skills
- to learn more from reading comprehension
- to do grammatical exercise

Thus when designing teacher-oriented tasks for the classroom, the course designers may base on the principles described above methods such as providing detail explanation to students, teacher's modeling, helping students understand the course intensively, guiding students to do classwork. It is teacher-centered classroom.

The learning methods preferred by communicative learners as listed in Willing's (1988) questionnaire are as follows:

- to learn by watching and listening to foreigners
- to learn by speaking in English with foreigners when there is a chance
- to learn by talking to friends in English
- to learn by conversations
- to learn by watching TV in English
- to learn English by hearing these words

When designing communicative tasks for the classroom, the course designers may also base on the principles described above methods such as learning through interactions and media aids) listed in Willing's (1988) questionnaire and take into consideration inclusion of group discussions and teacher student conferences as students prefer to talk with classmates and their teachers. English films and video programs are also effective means to help students listen to foreigners speak English. It is teacher-student centred classroom.

It is, however, important to note that by focusing on teacher-oriented and communicative tasks, it does not mean that tasks in which other learner types prefer should be excluded from the course. Tasks that suit other learner types also need to be included in the course to meet their needs. Research suggests that it is better to include learning tasks that suit all types of learners in a course. Ho (1999: 62) asserts that curricula should be designed with an equitable range of activities so that all learners feel comfortable and be trained to become confident to perform new tasks and be in new groupings. Similarly, it is desirable to expose learners for short periods of time to instructions, approaches, environments and teaching methods which do not match with the learners' learning style preferences. This helps learners to develop their adaptability to environments beyond their control and may also foster their creativity in learning and problem solving (Ho, 199: 63).

Researchers, like Vaughan and Baker (cited in Brown, 2003: 1) pointed out that matching may lead to learners' becoming bored. Moreover, 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) stated, learning in mismatched conditions helps learners to overcome weaknesses in their cognitive styles, to develop a more integrated approach to their learning, Hayes and Allison (1997) found that "exposing learners to learning activities that mismatched with their preferred earning style will help them develop the learning competencies necessary to cope with situations involving a range of different learning requirements (Brown, 2003: 1). According to Fisser et al. (2006: 99), providing mismatches in teaching and learning styles can also stimulate learning and flexibility in learning.

Ho (1999: 63) thought that "experiences that are inconsistent with students' styles can 'stretch' students' and help them develop new learning skills and aspects of the self-necessary for

healthy adult functioning. Interestingly, the number of researches that support "matching hypothesis" is equivocal with that of contend it. There are 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, it was found five empirical studies in favor of "matching hypothesis" and three against them (Coffield et al. 2004: 39).

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.

Despite the philosophy of LSBI is accommodating students' diversity, teachers should be aware of that:

- focusing on majority of learner-types (teacher-oriented and communicative tasks) does not mean that tasks in which other learner types prefer should be excluded from the course.

- it is better to include learning tasks that suit all types of learners in a course

- learning task should be designed with an equitable range of activities so that all learners can be accommodated (Kinsella (1996:30 as cited in Ho, 1999: 62) .

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

5.1. Conclusions

This study concludes that it is worthy to use an instrument for identifying learning style preferences at the beginning of course to help task design and to help the teacher to make adjustments in the proportion of task types to facilitate the learning of the students. Moreover, it helps students be aware of their strength and weakness so that they can maximize their potential and improve their weakness.

Sex and study program affect students learning style. These two variables of learning styles should be taken into account when designing classroom activities. Boys learn differently from girls. Consequently, classroom activities for both sexes should be different in the sense that provides proportional tasks.

Moreover, boys tend to be teacher-oriented whereas girls prefer communicative classroom activities

5.2. Suggestions

In order to facilitate task design further, it is better to collect more information from the students through interviews or focus group discussions to identify the reasons for their preferences and the kinds of tasks that they preferred.

Though it is beyond the scope of this study to carry out this research procedure, it is hoped that by doing so in future studies, more information can be documented on why most students preferred to be teacher-oriented and to be communicative learners and what kind of tasks they would like to perform in the course.

It may also be interesting to conduct further research studies to investigate the effectiveness of implementation of the task-proportion adjustment method as suggested in this study on student's learning.

Single sex education is an alternative to enhance the student's academic achievement.

However, the school in the research site has implemented the idea of separating boys from girls since they have their own ways to learn. Despite the basis is not on the learning style diversity rather on religious perspective.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 Surat Pengantar Penelitian

Appendix 2 Questionnaire

Dimohon kesediaan Saudara (i) mengisi "questionnaire" terlampir untuk mengidentifikasi **"gaya belajar"** anda. Instrument ini akan dipergunakan sebagai data penelitian penulis tentang:

"Pengajaran Speaking-Berbasis Gaya Belajar Siswa".

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 Saudara (i).

Cirebon, 2 September 2013

Peneliti

Drs. H. Udin Kamiluddin, M.Sc

GBS

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	1	2	3	4

	percakapan penutur asli.				
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				

Appendix 3 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 bercaka-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 4 Rincian Data Responden

Responden penelitian ini berjumlah 128 siswa kelas XI.

Berdasarkan jenis kelamin, responden terdiri dari 55 siswa dan 73 siswi dengan perincian sebagai berikut:

1. Siswa kelas XI IPA 1 berjumlah 31

2. Siswa kelas XI IPS 1 berjumlah 24

3. Siswi kelas XI IPA 3 berjumlah 25

4. Siswi kelas XI IPA 4 berjumlah 23

5. Siswi kelas XI IPS 3 berjumlah 11

6. Siswi kelas XI IPS 4 berjumlah 14

Berdasarkan penjurusan kelas, responden terdiri dari 79 siswa/i IPA dan 49 siswa/i IPS dengan perincian sebagai berikut:

1. Siswa kelas XI IPA 1 berjumlah 31

2. Siswi kelas XI IPA 3 berjumlah 25

3. Siswi kelas XI IPA 4 berjumlah 23

4. Siswa kelas XI IPS 1 berjumlah 24

5. Siswi kelas XI IPS 3 berjumlah 11

6. Siswi kelas XI IPS 4 berjumlah 14

Appendix 5 Gaya belajar siswa dan siswi kelas XI

Siswa Kelas XI Jurusan IPA 1

No	Nama	Tipologi Siswa	Tipologi Minimal
1	Abdurrahman Saleh	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
2	Ahmad Arif Shiddiqy	II&IV Komunikatif&Beroeientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
3	Anas Yahya Abdullah	IV. Beroeientasi kepada Guru	III. Konkrit
4	Andrie Muhammad Iqbal	II. Komunikatif	III&IV Konkrit& Beroeientasi kepada Guru
5	Asraar Kamal 'Azmi	II, III&IV Komunikatif, Konkrit& Beroeientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
6	Azay Zayinul Waddin	I. Analisis	IV. Beroeientasi kepada Guru
7	Azka Ilham Muzaki	III. Konkrit	I. Analisis
8	Brillian Abdillah Destin	II&IV Komunikatif&Beroeientasi kepada Guru	I&III Analisis& Konkrit
9	Fikri Cahyo H.	IV. Beroeientasi kepada Guru	I, II&III Analisis, Komunikatif& Konkrit
10	Faza Firdaus Nuzula	III. Konkrit	I. Analisis
11	Huda Nur Rabbani	IV. Beroeientasi kepada Guru	III. Konkrit
12	Ikhwan Ramadhana	III. Konkrit	I. Analisis
13	Ilman Nafi'an	IV. Beroeientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
14	Jundi Amir Syuhada	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
15	Jundi Naufal Fikri	IV. Beroeientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
16	M. Hanzhalah G.M	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis

17	M. Hamzah	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
18	M. Hidayatullah	II&III Komunikatif& Konkrit	I. Analisis
19	M. Sabiq Bilhaq	IV. Beroeientasi kepada Guru	I, II&III Analisis, Komunikatif& Konkrit
20	M. Zia Pratama H.	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
21	Miqdad Abdurrazaq	III. Konkrit	I. Analisis
22	Muhammad Iqbal Pratama	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
23	Muhammad Luthfi Afwan	I. Analisis	II&IV Komunikatif& Beroeientasi kepada Guru
24	Muhammad Rasyid Ridha	IV. Beroeientasi kepada Guru	I, II&III Analisis, Komunikatif& Konkrit
25	Muhammad Rifqi Ramadhan	I, II&III Analisis, Komunikatif& Konkrit	IV. Beroeientasi kepada Guru
26	Muhammad Umar Al-Faruqi	IV. Beroeientasi kepada Guru	III. Konkrit
27	Ramdani S.	I. Analisis	III. Konkrit
28	Rifqi Ahmad Muzaki	III. Konkrit	I. Analisis
29	Rijal Shibghotul Islam	IV. Beroeientasi kepada Guru	III. Konkrit
30	Rofifi Dhiya Ulhaq	III. Konkrit	I. Analisis
31	Yahya Al-Fatih	IV. Beroeientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis

Siswa Kelas XI Jurusan IPS 1

No	Nama	Tipologi Siswa	Tipologi Minimal
1	Abdullah Zuber	II. Komunikatif	III. Konkrit
2	Abdussalam Mutaakkidin Mas'udi	II. Komunikatif	I&III Analisis& Konkrit
3	Adhfar	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis

4	Fauzan Achmad A.	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
5	Gama Cahya Bhagaskara	II&IV Komunikatif& Beroeientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
6	Ghiyats Faris Abdullah	II&III Komunikatif& Konkrit	I&IV Analisis& Beroeientasi kepada Guru
7	Giffar Jiyad Uswah	I. Analisis	III. Konkrit
8	Ibrohim Alkholil	III&IV Konkrit& Beroeientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
9	Iqbal Miftahudin	IV. Beroeientasi kepada Guru	II. Komunikatif
10	Jihar Jinulhikam	III. Konkrit	IV. Beroeientasi kepada Guru
11	Kayyis Abdul A.	IV. Beroeientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
12	M. Amrullah Nurudin	IV. Beroeientasi kepada Guru	III. Konkrit
13	M. Erwin Saputra	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
14	M. Ja'far Assidiq	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
15	Muhammad Aditya Prasetya	II. Komunikatif	III. Konkrit
16	Muhammad Farhan Alghani	II. Komunikatif	I&III Analisis& Konkrit
17	Muhammad Fathan Mubina	III. Konkrit	I. Analisis
18	Muhammad Rafi Irfanul Fadli	III. Konkrit	I. Analisis
19	Muhammad Raihan	III. Konkrit	II&IV Komunikatif& Beroeientasi kepada Guru
20	Muhammad Rizky Robbani	II. Komunikatif	I, III&IV Analisis, Konkrit& Beroeientasi kepada Guru
21	Mush'ab Al-Ma'ruf	IV. Beroeientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
22	Nur Dawlah Fakhruddin	IV. Beroeientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis

23	Rizky	I. Analisis	II, III&IV Komunikatif, Konkrit& Beroeientasi kepada Guru
24	Wahyu Putra Jaya	IV. Beroeientasi kepada Guru	III. Konkrit

Siswi Kelas XI Jurusan IPA . 3

No	Nama	Tipologi Siswa	Tipologi Minimal
1	Amiroh Annaisah	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
2	Ammatullah Aisyah Ahmad	II&III Komunikatif&Konkrit	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru
3	Asma Azizah	II. Komunikatif	I&IV Analisis& Berorientasi kepada Guru
4	Dzakiratunnisa	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
5	Khansa Zafira	IV.Teacher-Oriented Learner	I. Analisis
6	Muthiah Miftahul Jannah	III. Konkrit	I. Analisis
7	Nabila Karimah	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru	I&III Analisis&Konkrit
8	Nafisa Farkhiy Aulia	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
9	Nidaul Hasanah	II & IV. Komunikatif& Berorientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
10	Putri Utami	III. Konkrit	I. Analisis
11	Qonitat Hafizhoh	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
12	Rizka Fianisa	II & IV. Komunikatif& Berorientasi kepada Guru	I&III Analisis&Konkrit
13	Shofiyah Abir Zaujah	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis

14	Siti Raudhah Nadia	III. Konkrit	I. Analisis
15	Tsabitah Taqiyyah	II. & III Komunikatif&Konkrit	I. Analisis
16	Ummu Nasywah Q.A.	II. Komunikatif	I&IV Analisis& Berorientasi kepada Guru
17	Wasiatul Ilma	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis

Siswi Kelas XI Jurusan IPA 4

No	Nama	Tipologi Siswa	Tipologi Minimal
1	Adristi Shalmawidati	II. Komunikatif	I&IV Analisis& Berorientasi kepada Guru
2	Alfiyyah Darojah	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
3	Asrizha Rizqi Anjani	II&III Komunikatif&Konkrit	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru
4	Atina Zahiratul Fikrah	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru	III. Konkrit
5	Aulia Taqiaturrahmah	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
6	Dina Farhanah	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
7	Euis MarisaBrilianty	III. Konkrit	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru
8	Fathia Karimah	I. Analisis	III. Konkrit
9	Fathin Abida	II. Komunikatif	III. Konkrit
10	Fatimah	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
11	Fika Afiani Rifati Rizki	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
12	Hilda Mayfani	III. Konkrit	I. & IV. Analisis& Berorientasi kepada Guru
13	Hilma Farah	I&II Analisis&Komunikatif	III&IV Konkrit&

			Berorientasi kepada Guru
14	Izzatun Nisa	II. Komunikatif	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru
15	Mifta Khasanah	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
16	Nadia Maratu Sholihah	III. Konkrit	I. Analisis
17	Nadya	II. Komunikatif	I&IV Analisis& Berorientasi kepada Guru
18	Nurul Fitriannisa	II. Komunikatif	I. & IV. Analisis& Berorientasi kepada Guru
19	Nur Syahidah Kizlyara	I. & IV. Analisis& Berorientasi kepada Guru	II&III Komunikatif&Konkrit
20	Rizka Yazibarahmah	II. Komunikatif	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru
21	Shafira Hafizhotun Nisa	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
22	Siti Rizqia Solihati Suhermawan	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
23	Syifaul Hasanah	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis

Siswi Kelas XI Jurusan IPA*

No	Nama	Tipologi Siswa	Tipologi Minimal
1	Abiyyu Dzaki Khairunnisa	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
2	Afifah Faaiqoh	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru	III. Konkrit
3	Amalia Noorlaily Rahma	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru	III. Konkrit
4	Anisah	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru	I&III Analisis&Konkrit
5	Chairin Nashrillah	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
6	Hasna Khoirunnisa	I. Analisis	II. Komunikatif

7	Indi Millatul Maula	II&III Komunikatif&Konkrit	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru
8	Qanita Mustafa	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru	III. Konkrit

*Responden tidak menulis nomor jurusan IPA

Siswi Kelas XI Jurusan IPS 3

No	Nama	Tipologi Siswa	Tipologi Minimal
1	Aidila Shafa Yasinta	II.&III Komunikatif&Konkrit	I. Analisis
2	Amaniy Sajidah	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
3	Dhiyah Hasti Suprihanto	II & IV. Komunikatif& Berorientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
4	Gina Giartika	II. & III Komunikatif&Konkrit	I. Analisis
5	Hayyun Latifah	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
6	Latifah Fauziah	II. Komunikatif	I,III & IV Analisis, Konkrit&Berorientasi kepada Guru
7	Mutia Annisa	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru	I&III Analisis&Konrit
8	Nizda Rokhmatul Ummah	IV. Berorientasi kepada Guru	II. Komunikatif
9	Pretty Nabila	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
10	Rumaisha Hanifah Mubarakah	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
11	Shofiyah Ning Fitri	III. Konkrit	I. Analisis

Siswi Kelas XI Jurusan IPS 4

No	Nama	Tipologi Siswa	Tipologi Minimal
1	Ana Humaidah	II&IV Komunikatif&Beroientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis
2	Atika Muharamah Dzil Ikram	II&IV Komunikatif&Beroientasi kepada Guru	I&III Analisis&Konkrit
3	Farida Rahmawati	IV. Beroientasi kepada Guru	I&II Analisis&Komunikatif
4	Haula Millati Azka	III&IV Konkrit& Beroientasi kepada Guru	I&II Analisis&Komunikatif
5	Iffah Qonita	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
6	Iqtifa Nurkholifah	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
7	Kartika Sari Wijanarko	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
8	Lulu Dharmanis M.	II&III Komunikatif&Konkrit	I. Analisis
9	Lulu Faradisa	III&IV Konkrit& Beroientasi kepada Guru	I&II Analisis&Komunikatif
10	Nailatul Izzah	II. Komunikatif	I. Analisis
11	Rahmah Salsabila	II. Komunikatif	IV. Beroientasi kepada Guru
12	Syahidah Izzata Sabiila	IV. Beroientasi kepada Guru	III. Konkrit
13	Syifa Fauziyah	IV. Beroientasi kepada Guru	II. komunikatif
14	Taslimatu Humairo	IV. Beroientasi kepada Guru	I. Analisis

GAYA BELAJAR **SISWA KELAS XI BERDASARKAN PENJURUSAN**

Tabel 1

No	Tipologi siswa	**IPA 1**	Persentase
1	Analisis	3	9.67%
2	Komunikatif	7	22.58%
3	Konkrit	6	19.35
4	**Berorientasi kepada guru**	**10**	**32.25**
5	Kombinasi	5	16.12
	Jumlah	31	100%

Tabel 2

No	Tipologi siswa	**IPS 1**	Persentase
1	Analisis	2	8.33
2	**Komunikatif**	**9**	**37.5**
3	Konkrit	4	16.66
4	Berorientasi kepada guru	6	25
5	Kombinasi	3	12.5
	Jumlah	24	100%

PERBEDAAN GAYA BELAJAR **SISWA BERDASARKAN PENJURUSAN**

Tabel 3

No	Tipologi siswa	**IPA 1**	Persentase	**IPS 1**	Persentase
1	Analisis	3	9.67%	2	8.33
2	**Komunikatif**	7	22.58%	**9**	**37.5**
3	Konkrit	6	19.35	4	16.66
4	**Berorientasi kepada guru**	**10**	**32.25**	6	25
5	Kombinasi	5	16.12	3	12.5
	Jumlah	31	100%	24	100%

Siswa IPA bertipologi **Berorientasi kepada guru** sebanyak 10 siswa (32.25.

Siswa IPS bertipologi **Komunikatif** sebanyak 9 siswa (37.5%).

Tipologi siswa IPA berbeda dengan tipologi siswa IPS.

GAYA BELAJAR **SISWI KELAS XI BERDASARKAN PENJURUSAN**

Tabel 4

No	Tipologi siswi	IPA 3	Persentase	IPA 4	Persentase
1	Analisis	1	4%	1	4.34%
2	**Komunikatif**	6	24%	**10**	**43.47%**
3	Konkrit	3	12%	3	13.04%
4	**Berorientasi kepada guru**	**10**	**40%**	6	26.08%
5	Kombinasi	5	20%	3	13.04%
	Jumlah	25	100%	23	100%

Tabel 5

No	Tipologi siswi	IPS 3	Persentase	IPS 4	Persentase
1	Analisis	0	0%	0	0%
2	**Komunikatif**	**4**	**36.36%**	**5**	**35.71%**
3	Konkrit	1	9.09%	0	0%
4	Berorientasi kepada guru	3	27.27%	4	28.57%
5	Kombinasi	3	27.27%	5	35.71%
	Jumlah	11	100%	14	100%

PERBEDAAN GAYA BELAJAR **SISWI BERDASARKAN PENJURUSAN**

Tabel 6

No	Tipologi siswi	IPA	Persentase	IPS	Persentase
1	Analisis	2	4.16%	0	0%
2	**Komunikatif**	**16**	**33.33%**	**9**	**36%**
3	Konkrit	6	12.5%	1	4%
4	**Berorientasi kepada guru**	**16**	**33.33%**	7	28%
5	Kombinasi	8	16.66%	8	32%
	Jumlah	48	100%	25	100%

Siswi IPA bertipologi **Berorientasi kepada guru** sebanyak 16 orang (33.33%).

Siswi IPA bertipologi **Komunikatif** sebanyak 16 orang (33.33%).

Siswi IPA dominan bertipologi ganda **Berorientasi kepada guru** dan **Komunikatif.**

Siswi IPS bertipologi **Komunikatif** sebanyak 9 orang (36%).

Tipologi siswi IPA berbeda dengan tipologi siswi IPS.

PERBEDAAN GAYA BELAJAR **SISWA-SISWI BERDASARKAN PENJURUSAN**

Tabel 7

No	Tipologi siswa-siswi	**IPA**	Persentase	**IPS**	Persentase
1	Analisis	5	6.32	2	4.08
2	**Komunikatif**	23	29.11	**18**	**36.73**
3	Konkrit	12	15.18	5	10.20
4	**Berorientasi kepada guru**	**26**	**32.91**	13	26.53
5	Kombinasi	13	16.45	11	22.44
	Jumlah	79	100%	49	100%

Siswa-siswi IPA bertipologi **Berorientasi kepada guru** sebanyak 26 orang (32.91%).

Siswa-siswi IPS bertipologi **Komunikatif** sebanyak 18 orang (36.73%).

Tipologi siswa-siswi IPA berbeda dengan tipologi siswa-siswi IPS.

PERBEDAAN GAYA BELAJAR **SISWA BERDASARKAN JENIS KELAMIN**

Tabel 8

No	Tipologi siswa	**Putra**	Persentase	**Putri**	Persentase
1	Analisis	5	9.09%	2	2.73%
2	**Komunikatif**	**16**	**29.09%**	**25**	**34.24%**
3	Konkrit	10	18.18%	7	9.58%
4	**Berorientasi kepada guru**	**16**	**29.09%**	23	31.50%
5	Kombinasi	8	14.54%	16	21.91%
	Jumlah	55	100%	73	100%

Siswa Putra dominan bertipologi ganda **Berorientasi kepada guru** sebanyak 16 orang (29.09%) **dan** Komunikatif sebanyak 16 orang (29.09%).

Siswi Putri bertipologi Komunikatif sebanyak 25 orang (34.24%).

Tipologi siswa berbeda dengan tipologi siswi.

LEMBAGA PENELITIAN (LEMLIT)
INSTITUT AGAMA ISLAM NEGERI (IAIN)
SYEKH NURJATI
C I R E B O N

Cirebon, 23 Juli 2013.

Nomor : In.14/L.I/OT.00/028/2013
Lamp. : --
Hal : **Pengantar Penelitian.**

Kepada Yth
Kepala Madrasah Aliyah (MA) PP Husnul Khotimah
Manis Kidul, Kec. Jalaksana Kuningan
di
      Kabupaten Kuningan

Assalamu'alaikum wr. wb.
Kepala Lembaga Penelitian (LEMLIT)-Institut Agama Islam Negeri (IAIN) Syekh Nurjati Cirebon mengetahui bahwa Saudara;

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                  Islam Negeri (IAIN)-Syekh Nurjati Cirebon

akan melaksanakan penelitian di institusi Bapak dengan judul : " LEARNING STYLES BASED INSTRUCTION FOR TEACHING SPEAKING AT MADRASAH ALIYAH PONDOK PESANTREN HUSNUL KHOTIMAH MANIS KIDUL JALAKSANA KUNINGAN ".

Demikan Pengantar ini dibuat, atas penerimaan dan kerja sama Bapak diucapkan terima kasih.
Wassalamu'alaikum Wr. Wb.

Mengetahui,
Kepala LEMLIT,

DR. ILMAN NAFIA, M.Ag.
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