

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria  
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research  
University "Frères Mentouri", Constantine 1  
Faculty of Letters and Languages  
Department of Letters and English

*Matching Teaching and Learning Styles in Developing  
Students' Oral Fluency and Competence. A Case Study of  
First Year Students of English of Nyala University,  
Khartoum, Sudan*

Thesis Submitted to the Department of Letters and English in Candidacy for the Degree  
of Doctorate in Linguistics and Applied Languages

*Presented by:*

*Supervised by:*

*Ibrahim ADAMMOHAMMEDSALEH Prof. ABDERRAHIM Farida*

**Board of Examiners**

**Chairman:** Prof. BELOUAHEM Riad, University "Frères Mentouri", Constantine 1

**Supervisor:** Prof. ABDERRAHIM Farida, University "Frères Mentouri", Constantine 1

**Examiner:** Prof. OUSKOURT Mohamed, University "Emir Abdelkader", Constantine

**Examiner:** Prof. NEMOUCHI Abdelhak, University "Larbi Ben M'hdi", Oum El Bouaghi

**Examiner:** Dr. MERROUCHE Sarah, University "Larbi Ben M'hdi", Oum El Bouaghi

**Examiner:** Dr. CHELLIMadjda, University "Frères Mentouri", Constantine 1

**2018**

## **Dedication**

**This thesis is dedicated to the soul of Professor. LARABA Samir**

## Acknowledgements

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisors, Prof. **LARABA** Samir "Allah yarhamou" and Prof. **ABDERRAHIM** Farida, University "Frères Mentouri" Constantine1, ALGERIA for their constructive criticism, fair guidance and advice, supportive comments and efficient support and for helping me to understand the subject deeply.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to the examiners: Prof. **BELOUAHEM** Riad, University "Frères Mentouri", Constantine1, Prof. **OUSKOURT** Mohamed, University "Emir Abdelkader", Constantine, Prof. **NEMOUCHI** Abdelahak, University "Larbi Ben M'hdi", Oum El Bouaghi, Dr. **MERROUCHE** Sarah, University "Larbi Ben M'hdi", Oum El Bouaghi and Dr. **CHELLI** Madjda, University "Frères Mentouri", Constantine1.

It is also a great pleasure to express my deepest gratitude to my family, especially my wife Fatima **ELGHAZALI** for her understanding and continuous encouragement. I also wish to express my sincere gratitude and appreciation to my, brothers, **Mohammed and Eltahir** and my best friends **Mohammed Mansour** and **Ibrahim El-Helo**, whose prayers, love and best wishes were a source of encouragement for completing this study successfully.

## **Abstract**

This study investigates the degree of matching between teaching and learning styles as strategies to develop the Sudanese students' speaking ability. It draws attention of the teachers, the students and the educationists in Sudan to the importance of speaking as one of the most important language skills. The aim of this study is to come out with constructive recommendations for, the teachers, the students and the educationists in order to improve the processes of teaching and learning speaking. In addition, it aims to specify the mismatch between learning and teaching styles that affect speaking English. The sample of the study is 80 first year students at the College of Education and Arts, English Department, Nyala University, Sudan. The instrument used in this study are the students' speaking interview used as a pilot study and two questionnaires. One questionnaire was administered during formal lectures to students, and one questionnaire was administered to the teachers who teach English at tertiary level. Data was statistically analyzed by "Statistical Package for Social Sciences Program". The findings of the study indicate that there is mismatch between teaching and learning styles as strategies affecting the speaking skill. In addition, the study points out that these strategies have more impact on the speaking than any other language skill. It also suggests that the teachers who wish to improve their students' speaking skill have to consider these strategies to be matched with the students' learning styles.

## **List of Abbreviations**

**CCSARP:** Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project

**FL:** Foreign Language

**L1:** First Language

**GP:** General Pragmatic Knowledge

**N:** Number of Students and Number of Teachers

**NL:** Native Language L2: Second Language

**SPSS:** Statistical Package for Social Sciences

**SLL:** Second Language Learning

## List of Tables

<b>Table 2.1.</b> Student Centered Learning	<b>76</b>
<b>Table 4.1</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Gender.	<b>153</b>
<b>Table 4.2</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Years of studying of English.	<b>154</b>
<b>Table 4.3</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Using Physical Senses.	<b>157</b>
<b>Table 4.4</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Using Possibilities.	<b>158</b>
<b>Table 4.5</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Deal with Language Rules.	<b>159</b>
<b>Table 4.6</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers about Respond to learning situation.	<b>161</b>
<b>Table 4.7</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Respond to learning situation.	<b>162</b>
<b>Table 4.8</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Difficulties in Understanding the Lecture.	<b>163</b>
<b>Table 4.9</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Re-explain the points in different ways.	<b>164</b>
<b>Table 4.10</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about	

Group/pair work activities.	<b>165</b>
<b>Table 4.11</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Class project.	<b>166</b>
<b>Table 4.12</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Providing Opportunities to Participate.	<b>167</b>
<b>Table 4.13</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Teachers Using of Pictures and Diagrams.	<b>168</b>
<b>Table 4.14</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about The Students' Willing to Attend the Class.	<b>169</b>
<b>Table 5.1</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>01</b>	<b>182</b>
<b>Table 5.2</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>02</b>	<b>183</b>
<b>Table 5.3</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>03</b>	<b>184</b>
<b>Table 5.4</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>04</b>	<b>185</b>
<b>Table 5.5</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about	

Statement Number <b>05</b>	<b>186</b>
<b>Table 5.6</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>06</b>	<b>187</b>
<b>Table 5.7</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>07</b>	<b>188</b>
<b>Table 5.8</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>08</b>	<b>189</b>
<b>Table 5.9</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>09</b>	<b>190</b>
<b>Table 5.10</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>10</b>	<b>191</b>
<b>Table 5.11</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>11</b>	<b>192</b>
<b>Table 5.12</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>12</b>	<b>193</b>
<b>Table 5.13</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>13</b>	<b>194</b>
<b>Table 5.14</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>14</b>	<b>195</b>
<b>Table 5.15</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>15</b>	<b>196</b>

<b>Table 5.16</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>16</b>	<b>197</b>
<b>Table 5.17</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>17</b>	<b>198</b>
<b>Table 5.18</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>18</b>	<b>199</b>
<b>Table 5.19</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>19</b>	<b>200</b>
<b>Table 5.20</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>20</b>	<b>201</b>
<b>Table 5.21</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>21</b>	<b>202</b>
<b>Table 5.22</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>22</b>	<b>203</b>
<b>Table 5.23</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>23</b>	<b>204</b>
<b>Table 5.24</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>24</b>	<b>205</b>
<b>Table 5.25</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>25</b>	<b>206</b>
<b>Table 5.26</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about	

Statement Number <b>26</b>	<b>207</b>
<b>Table 5.27</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>27</b>	<b>208</b>
<b>Table 5.28</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>28</b>	<b>209</b>
<b>Table 5.29</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>29</b>	<b>210</b>
<b>Table 5.30</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>30</b>	<b>211</b>
<b>Table 4.0.</b> The Statistical Reliability and Validity of the Self-test Questionnaire	<b>148</b>
<b>Table 4.15.</b> The Visual Style	<b>176</b>
<b>Table 4.16.</b> The Auditory Style	<b>176</b>
<b>Table 4.17.</b> The Visual-auditory Style	<b>177</b>
<b>Table 4.17.</b> The Kinaesthetic Style	<b>177</b>

## List of Figures

<b>Figure 1.1</b>	Concept of Motivation as it Related to EFL	<b>37</b>
<b>Figure 1.2.</b>	Recursive Relationship among Anxiety, Cognition and Behavior	<b>44</b>
<b>Figure 4.1</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Gender.	<b>153</b>
<b>Figure 4.2</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Years of studying of English.	<b>154</b>
<b>Figure 4.3</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Using Physical Senses.	<b>157</b>
<b>Figure 4.4</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Using Possibilities.	<b>158</b>
<b>Figure 4.5</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Deal with Language Rules.	<b>160</b>
<b>Figure 4.6</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Respond to Learning Situation.	<b>161</b>
<b>Figure 4.7</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Dealing with Multiple Input.	<b>163</b>
<b>Figure 4.8</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Difficulties in Understanding the Lecture.	<b>164</b>
<b>Figure 4.9</b>	The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about	

Re-explain the Points in Different Ways.	<b>165</b>
<b>Figure 4.10</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Group/pair work Activities.	<b>166</b>
<b>Figure 4.11</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Doing Class Project.	<b>167</b>
<b>Figure 4.12</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Providing Opportunities to Participate.	<b>168</b>
<b>Figure 4.13</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Using of Pictures and Diagrams.	<b>169</b>
<b>Figure 4.14</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about The their Willing to Attend the Class.	<b>170</b>
<b>Figure 5.1</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers about Statement Number <b>01</b>	<b>182</b>
<b>Figure 5.2</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>02</b>	<b>183</b>
<b>Figure 5.3</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>03</b>	<b>184</b>
<b>Figure 5.4</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about	

Statement Number <b>04</b>	<b>185</b>
<b>Figure 5.5</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>05</b>	<b>186</b>
<b>Figure 5.6</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>06</b>	<b>187</b>
<b>Figure 5.7</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>07</b>	<b>188</b>
<b>Figure 5.8</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>08</b>	<b>189</b>
<b>Figure 5.9</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>09</b>	<b>190</b>
<b>Figure 5.10</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>10</b>	<b>191</b>
<b>Figure 5.11</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>11</b>	<b>192</b>
<b>Figure 5.12</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>12</b>	<b>193</b>
<b>Figure 5.13</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>13</b>	<b>194</b>
<b>Figure 5.14</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>14</b>	<b>195</b>

<b>Figure 5.15</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>15</b>	<b>196</b>
<b>Figure 5.16</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>16</b>	<b>197</b>
<b>Figure 5.17</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>17</b>	<b>198</b>
<b>Figure 5.18</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>18</b>	<b>199</b>
<b>Figure 5.19</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>19</b>	<b>200</b>
<b>Figure 5.20</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>20</b>	<b>201</b>
<b>Figure 5.21</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>21</b>	<b>202</b>
<b>Figure 5.22</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>22</b>	<b>203</b>
<b>Figure 5.23</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>23</b>	<b>204</b>
<b>Figure 5.24</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>24</b>	<b>205</b>
<b>Figure 5.25</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about	

Statement Number <b>25</b>	<b>206</b>
<b>Figure 5.26</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>26</b>	<b>207</b>
<b>Figure 5.27</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>27</b>	<b>208</b>
<b>Figure 5.28</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>28</b>	<b>209</b>
<b>Figure 5.29</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>29</b>	<b>210</b>
<b>Figure 5.30</b> The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement Number <b>30</b>	<b>211</b>
<b>Figure 5.31</b> Recursive Relationship between Teaching and Learning Styles	<b>217</b>

## Contents

<b>General Introduction</b>	<b>Page</b>
1. Statement of the problem	1
2. Aims of the Study	2
3. Research Questions and Hypotheses	3
4. Means of Research	4
5. Structure of the Study	4
<b>Chapter One: Developing Oral Fluency in the Speaking Skill</b>	
Introduction	
<b>1.1. Definition of Communication</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>1.1.1. Definition and Characteristics of the Speaking Skill</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>1.1.2. Definition of the Speaking Skill</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>1.1.3. Characteristics of the Speaking Skill</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>1.2. Teaching the Speaking Skill</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>1.2.1. Importance of Teaching the Speaking Skill</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>1.2.2. Activities of Teaching the Speaking Skill</b>	<b>16</b>

<b>1.2.3. Techniques to Develop the Speaking Skill</b>	<b>19</b>
<b>1.2.3.1. Beat the Clock Roles</b>	<b>19</b>
<b>1.2.3.2. Simple Classroom Discussion Technique</b>	<b>21</b>
<b>1.2.3.3. Visual Literacy Technique</b>	<b>22</b>
<b>1.2.4. Stages of Speaking a Foreign Language</b>	<b>26</b>
<b>1.2.4.1. The Pre-production Stage</b>	<b>26</b>
<b>1.2.4.2. The Early Production Stage</b>	<b>27</b>
<b>1.2.4.3. The Speech Emergence Stage</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>1.2.4.4. The Intermediate Fluency Stage</b>	<b>29</b>
<b>1.2.4.5. The Advanced Fluency Stage</b>	<b>29</b>
<b>1.3. Assessing the Speaking Skill</b>	<b>30</b>
<b>1.4. Students Psychological Difficulties when Speaking</b>	<b>33</b>
<b>1.4.1. Lack of Motivation</b>	<b>37</b>
<b>1.4.2. Lack of Aptitude</b>	<b>40</b>
<b>1.4.3. Anxiety</b>	<b>43</b>
<b>1.4.4. Lack of Confidence</b>	<b>46</b>
<b>1.4.5. Shyness</b>	<b>47</b>

<b>1.4.6. Fear of Mistakes</b>	<b>48</b>
Conclusion	
<b>Chapter Two: Developing Competence in the Speaking Skill</b>	
Introduction	
<b>2.1. Types of Competences</b>	<b>55</b>
<b>2.1.1. Pragmatic Competence</b>	<b>55</b>
<b>2.1.2. Grammatical Competence</b>	<b>58</b>
<b>2.1.3. Discourse Competence</b>	<b>58</b>
<b>2.1.4. Sociolinguistic Competence</b>	<b>59</b>
<b>2.1.5. Strategic Competence</b>	<b>59</b>
<b>2.2. The Effect of Competence in the Development of the Speaking skill.</b>	<b>62</b>
<b>2.2.1. Perform Speech Act</b>	<b>62</b>
<b>2.2.2. Interpret Non-literal Meaning</b>	<b>63</b>
<b>2.2.3. Perform Politeness Functions</b>	<b>63</b>
<b>2.2.4. Perform Discourse Functions</b>	<b>64</b>
<b>2.2.5. Use Cultural Knowledge</b>	<b>65</b>
<b>2.3. Techniques to Develop Competence in the Speaking Skill</b>	<b>67</b>

<b>2.3.1. Using Minimal Responses</b>	<b>68</b>
<b>2.3.2. Strategy of Recognizing Scripts</b>	<b>69</b>
<b>2.3.3. Using Language to Talk about Language</b>	<b>69</b>
<b>2.3.4. Preparation</b>	<b>71</b>
<b>2.3.5. Sender and Receiver</b>	<b>71</b>
<b>2.3.6. Organizing Materials and Time</b>	<b>72</b>
<b>2.3.7. Students Centered Learning</b>	<b>72</b>
<b>2.4. Factors Affecting the Development of Competence in the Speaking Skill</b>	<b>76</b>
<b>2.4.1. Input, Transfer and Generalization</b>	<b>79</b>
<b>2.4.2. Standard Language and Dialect</b>	<b>80</b>
<b>2.4.3. Language Learning</b>	<b>83</b>
<b>2.4.4. Communication</b>	<b>85</b>
<b>2.4.5. Age</b>	<b>86</b>
<b>2.4.6. Aptitude</b>	<b>89</b>
<b>2.4.7. Motivation</b>	<b>90</b>
Conclusion	

## **Chapter Three: Teaching and Learning Styles**

### Introduction

<b>3.1.</b>	Teaching Styles	<b>94</b>
<b>3.1.1.</b>	Definition of Teaching Styles	<b>94</b>
<b>3.1.2.</b>	Grasha Teaching Styles (1996)	<b>96</b>
<b>3.2.</b>	Learning Styles	<b>98</b>
<b>3.2.1.</b>	Definition of Learning Styles	<b>99</b>
<b>3.2.2.</b>	Types of Learners	<b>103</b>
<b>3.2.2.1.</b>	Types of Learning Styles	<b>107</b>
<b>3.2.2.2.</b>	Filder and Silverman's Learning Styles (1988)	<b>109</b>
<b>3.3.</b>	Matching Teaching and Learning Styles	<b>112</b>
<b>3.3.1.</b>	Teaching and Learning Preferences	<b>114</b>
<b>3.3.2.</b>	Learning Disability or Misunderstood Learning Styles	<b>116</b>
<b>3.3.3.</b>	Match or Mismatch between Learning and Teaching Styles	<b>117</b>
<b>3.3.4.</b>	Contrast between Learning Preferences and Teaching Styles	<b>122</b>

### Conclusion

## **Chapter Four: The Students' Opinions about their Learning Styles**

Introduction

<b>4.1.</b>	<b>Population, Sampling and Data Collection</b>	<b>135</b>
<b>4.2.</b>	<b>The Pilot Study: Students' Interview</b>	<b>143</b>
<b>4.2.1.</b>	<b>Description of the Students' Interview</b>	<b>143</b>
<b>4.2.2.</b>	<b>Procedures of Data Collection and Analysis</b>	<b>146</b>
<b>4.3.</b>	<b>The Students' Questionnaire</b>	<b>149</b>
<b>4.3.1.</b>	<b>Description of the Students' Questionnaire</b>	<b>150</b>
<b>4.3.2.</b>	<b>Analysis and Interpretation of the Results of the Students' Questionnaire</b>	<b>153</b>
<b>4.4.</b>	<b>Overall Analysis of the Results of the Students' Interview and Questionnaire</b>	<b>173</b>

Conclusion

## **Chapter Five: The Teachers' Opinions about their Teaching Styles**

Introduction

<b>5.1.</b>	<b>Description of the Teachers' Questionnaire</b>	<b>179</b>
<b>5.2.</b>	<b>Analysis and Interpretation of the Results of the Teachers' Questionnaire</b>	<b>182</b>
<b>5.3.</b>	<b>Summary of the Results of the Teachers' Questionnaire</b>	<b>212</b>

Conclusion

## **Chapter Six: Pedagogical Implication and Recommendations**

Introduction

**6.1.** Main Results of the Study **220**

**6.2.** Matching Teaching Styles and Learning Styles **222**

**6.3.** Suggestions for Further Studies **223**

Conclusion

**General Conclusion** **225**

**REFERENCES**

**APPENDICES**

**Appendix I:** The Interview

**Appendix II:** The Students' Questionnaire

**Appendix III:** The Teachers' Questionnaire

## ***General Introduction***

	<b><i>Page</i></b>
<b><i>1. Statement of the problem</i></b>	<b><i>1</i></b>
<b><i>2. Aims of the Study</i></b>	<b><i>2</i></b>
<b><i>3. Research Questions and Hypotheses</i></b>	<b><i>3</i></b>
<b><i>4. Means of Research</i></b>	<b><i>3</i></b>
<b><i>5. Structure of the Study</i></b>	<b><i>4</i></b>

## **1. Statement of the Problem**

English language teaching is faced with many challenges. One of the most silent challenges is the need to adopt teaching strategies that recognize the students' learning styles. Equally important is the students' need to recognize, define and understand their own learning styles. Teachers need to understand the importance of matching their classroom choices to students' learning styles. This is because it is undeniable that learners have different preferences in terms of styles in the way they process, perceive, take and understand information. Understanding these preferences is of paramount importance in teaching and learning processes. As Soo 1999, p:117, claimed, "differences in learners' learning styles affect the learning environment". This stems from the fact that learners are expected to be highly motivated to do things that they prefer. Therefore, the needs for teacher knowledge of their students' learning styles is indisputable. This will enable teachers to adapt the appropriate styles that suit the students' preferences.

With the increase of international trade, the global economy and the globalization of English usage, English as a foreign language is highly needed to be taught in Sudan. English is taught in the Sudanese curricula and is one of the subjects that qualify its learners to join the Sudanese universities and higher institutes. Teaching English starts at the fifth level of primary school and continues until the third class at the secondary school level with an average of about four instruction hours per-week. However, most of the university students, who have been studying English for about seven years, are unable to communicate in English, and their level of proficiency is far below the expected level. They

seem to have problems in all the aspects of the English skills, especially their speaking skill. Their proficiency in the speaking skill is very poor. A large majority of them face lacking to read the English textbooks contents, due to their lack of the required proficiency of the speaking skill in English. This issue has been a source of concern for researchers, teachers and parents for a long time without having a solution.

## **2. Aims of the Study**

This study aims to identify Sudanese learners' learning styles and the extent of their correlation to the teaching styles used in the classroom context. The findings of this study seek to explain the learners' learning styles and contribute to the body of knowledge about their style preferences. It is hoped that the findings of this study might lead to a better understanding of ways in which the learning environments can be optimal for Sudanese learners and to what extent teachers use correlation between teaching styles and students' learning styles to develop students' fluency through strategic competence. The results of this study will raise new directions to Sudanese teachers and learners' awareness of how they could optimize the whole teaching and learning processes in classrooms and create meaningful and effective learning which help curriculum developers in Sudan to choose more meaningful activities that meet many styles. This study also attempts to make suggestions in the field of style and techniques selection. These suggestions might give teachers a new and real insight into the ways through which they can help students.

So, this study seeks to achieve the following aims:

1. To identify the preferred learning styles of Sudanese tertiary level students.
2. To investigate the possible correlation between these preferred learning styles and the instructors' teaching styles used in the classroom.
3. To give educators a new direction for making the required changes in the teaching of the speaking skill.

### **3. Research Questions and Hypotheses**

Three research questions are formulated to carry out this study:

1. What are the preferred learning styles of Sudanese learners of English at the tertiary level?
2. To what extent are the students' learning style preferences considered by university instructors?
3. Do the Sudanese University teachers use different styles inside the classroom?

This study attempts to test the following hypotheses:

1. If the university teachers understand their students' learning preferences, to be matched with teaching styles, the problem of speaking would be solved.
2. If learning styles are handled through effective teaching styles, and motivation is taken into account, students' speaking would be reduced.

#### **4. Means of Research and Procedures**

The sample of this study includes forty (40) male and female teachers who are teaching English at the tertiary level and eighty (80) undergraduate students at Nyala University, Khartoum, Sudan. This sample is selected out of 60 teachers and 156 students which constitute the whole population. It is investigated by employing analytical quantitative and qualitative research methods.

The data required for this study is collected from the students of the tertiary level through depth of practice speaking interview, and a students' and a teachers' questionnaire. The adoption of these instruments is based on a review of related literature as well as the stated aims of the study. The data obtained is analyzed and discussed by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences to get percentages and frequencies about the results obtained from the two questionnaires and the Interview.

#### **5. Structure of the Study**

This study includes six chapters, the first three chapters comprise the literature reviews (the work of authors and writers), and the last three ones interpret the practical part.

**Chapter One:** " Developing Oral Fluency in the Speaking Skill, consists of five sections about the definition of oral proficiency and communication, the characteristics and the nature of oral proficiency, teaching the speaking skill, the activities and techniques used during teaching performance, assessing oral proficiency and students' psychological difficulties when speaking.

**Chapter Two:** "Strategic Competence in Developing the Speaking Skill", this chapter consists of five sections about, the definition and the types of competences, the effect of strategic competence on

developing the learners' ability to speak, the technique to develop competence in the speaking skill, and the factors affecting the development of competence in the speaking skill.

**Chapter Three:** "Teaching and Learning Styles", consists of three sections concerned with both teaching and learning styles including definitions, types, and strategies of teaching performance and students' preferred learning styles.

**Chapter Four:** "The Students' Opinions about their Learning Styles" in this chapter the researcher introduces the population, sample, procedures and tools of the present study. This chapter also investigates the practical part that consists of an interview, description of the students' questionnaire to understand the students' preferred learning styles and statistical analysis to interpret the results of the first hypothesis.

**Chapter Five:** "The Teachers' Opinion about their Teaching Styles", investigates the teaching methodology, views about the teachers' teaching styles, the description of the teachers' questionnaire then the analysis and interpretation of the results of the teachers' questionnaire.

**Chapter Six:** is "Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations", introduces, the main results of the study, implication about matching teaching styles and learning styles and suggestions for further studies.

# ***Chapter One: Developing Oral Fluency in the Speaking Skill***

## *Introduction*

<b>1.1.</b>	<i>Definition of Communication</i>	<b>6</b>
<b>1.1.1.</b>	<i>Definition and Characteristics of the Speaking Skill</i>	<b>8</b>
<b>1.1.2.</b>	<i>Definition of the Speaking Skill</i>	<b>8</b>
<b>1.1.3.</b>	<i>Characteristics of the Speaking Skill</i>	<b>11</b>
<b>1.2.</b>	<i>Teaching the Speaking Skill</i>	<b>14</b>
<b>1.2.1.</b>	<i>Importance of Teaching the Speaking Skill</i>	<b>15</b>
<b>1.2.2.</b>	<i>Activities of Teaching the Speaking Skill</i>	<b>16</b>
<b>1.2.3.</b>	<i>Techniques to Develop the Speaking Skill</i>	<b>19</b>
<b>1.2.3.1.</b>	<i>Beat the Clock Roles</i>	<b>19</b>
<b>1.2.3.2.</b>	<i>Simple Classroom Discussion Technique</i>	<b>21</b>
<b>1.2.3.3.</b>	<i>Visual Literacy Technique</i>	<b>22</b>
<b>1.2.4.</b>	<i>Stages of Speaking a Foreign Language</i>	<b>26</b>
<b>1.2.4.1.</b>	<i>The Pre-production Stage</i>	<b>26</b>
<b>1.2.4.2.</b>	<i>The Early Production Stage</i>	<b>27</b>
<b>1.2.4.3.</b>	<i>The Speech Emergence Stage</i>	<b>28</b>

<b>1.2.4.4.</b> <i>The Intermediate Fluency Stage</i>	<b>29</b>
<b>1.2.4.5.</b> <i>The Advanced Fluency Stage</i>	<b>29</b>
<b>1.3.</b> <i>Assessing the Speaking Skill</i>	<b>30</b>
<b>1.4.</b> <i>Students Psychological Difficulties when Speaking</i>	<b>33</b>
<b>1.4.1.</b> <i>Lack of Motivation</i>	<b>37</b>
<b>1.4.2.</b> <i>Lack of Aptitude</i>	<b>40</b>
<b>1.4.3.</b> <i>Anxiety</i>	<b>43</b>
<b>1.4.4.</b> <i>Lack of Confidence</i>	<b>46</b>
<b>1.4.5.</b> <i>Shyness</i>	<b>47</b>
<b>1.4.6.</b> <i>Fear of Mistakes</i>	<b>48</b>

*Conclusion*

## **Introduction**

Nowadays, the task of the teacher is becoming more complicated and more challenging. The new curriculum in Sudan demands more thinking on the part of the teachers and the students and will result in less routine. Furthermore, there is a greater range in the choice of interactional materials. Thus, the teacher must learn how to use new media as a part of modern learning styles, not merely to enrich or supplement the present methods of instructors. The directions of teaching English in Sudan suggest developing the oral proficiency through the curricula, and that as teachers or as students, we must learn more efficiently, remember better, and interact more effectively. There is an increasing evidence that children can learn far more if they are properly taught. Most students fail to reach an appropriate level, especially in speaking, which will help them communicate with native speakers fluently.

### **1.1. Definition of Communication**

Communication, was defined, as the exchange of information. It is a vital part of our everyday lives, beginning at birth. Oral communication means using spoken words to exchange ideas and information, for example of one-to-one conversations, meetings, and voice mail messages.

Elrafee Suleiman 2010, p:9, defined oral communication "as an interaction between two or more people". This indicates that there should be at least two processes to have oral communication, example speaking and listening. However, oral communication is far more complex than it seems.

Widdowson 1978, p:87, claimed that "communication is a process that allows people to exchange information through several methods, and this exchange requires a feedback which may be

missed if the speaker or listener faces problems". This general definition for the word communication includes the word feedback that might be missed and which stands for answer in the case of oral communication.

Communication is also defined as the sharing of ideas and feeling in a mood of mutually. It suggests that communication involves interaction – the give and take that provides feedback to persons involved in exchanging ideas. Davis (2010, p:49), indicated that if communication in English is to be perceived by the learners as the main goals of the course, English should be used for real communication in the classroom as much as possible. This means introducing the English needed for genuine communication early in the course, for example the English needed for routine greetings, instructions, and requests. This also means that depending on the overall objectives of the course, as much time as possible should also be devoted to the use of authentic materials on the language skills that the learners need to master as conversation, reading comprehension, or written composition. This may mean seeing the course syllabus in a new way. It may seem, on the surface, that the most important elements in the syllabus are a sequence of new language items. However, if you look more carefully, you will probably find that you are also expected to enable the learners to communicate in real situations.

According to the above, the researcher observes that most of the teachers who teach English language at Nyala University always use the Arabic language inside the classroom during the English lectures; this is one of the reasons that make the speaking level lower than the required level of

university students. Davis (2010, p:55), suggested that English should be the main classroom language and that among the many possible uses of English in the class room we have:

- Greeting and farewells, for example: how are you? See you tomorrow.
- Instructions, for example: open your book page sixty look at the picture.
- Enquiries, for example, can you see David? Would you like to move over here?
- Feedback, for example that is interesting, Maria very good.

If you take all the natural opportunities to use English communication in the classroom, you remind the learners of the main goal of the course. If you create additional opportunities, you send an even stronger message. On the other hand, if you do not take and make such opportunities, you send them the message that the purpose of the course is just to learn information about the language and pass the tests.

### **1.1.1. Definition and Characteristics of the Speaking Skill**

### **1.1.2. Definition of the Speaking Skill**

Speaking is one of the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Speaking is "the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts" (Chaney, 1998, p:13).

According to Donough and Shaw 1993, cited in (Abdalla 1999, p:166), speaking is a skill which enables people to produce utterances when communicating to achieve a particular end. This may involve expressing ideas, wishes or opinions, negotiating or solving problems, or establishing or maintaining

social relationships. Thus, speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing and receiving, and processing information. Its form and meaning are dependent on the context in which it occurs including the participants themselves, their collective experiences, the physical environment and the purpose of speaking.

According to Richards and Rerandya (2008, p:205), speaking is one of the central elements of communication. In English Foreign Language (EFL) teaching, it is an aspect that needs special attention and instruction. In order to provide effective instruction, it is necessary for teachers of EFL to carefully examine the factors, conditions, and components that underlie speaking effectiveness. Effective instruction derived from the careful analysis of this area together with sufficient language input and speech – promotion activities, will gradually help learners speak English fluently and appropriately.

Speaking is one of the skills that have to be mastered by students in learning English. It is important for students to know definition first. Many experts define speaking in different ways. Brown and Yule (2001, p:35), stated that "speaking is to express the needs, request, information, service, etc". The speaker say words to the listener not only to express what in their mind but also to express what they need. Most people might spend their everyday life in communicating with others. Revell (1990, p:27), defined communication as follows: "communication, of ideas, of opinions, of feeling". Therefore, communication involves at least two people where both sender and receiver need to communicate to exchange information, ideas, opinions, views, or feelings. Meanwhile, Jones (1989,p:14), stated that "speaking is a form of communication". We can say that the speaker must consider the person they are

talking to as a listener. Speaking is not only producing sounds but also a process of achieving goals and transferring messages. Valdman argued that, "the ability to speak a foreign language is without doubt the most highly prized language skills". According to Solahudin (2008, p:136), speaking is to express one's needs, ideas, feelings and thought in real communication, one must be able to ask as well as answer questions.

Arabaa (1990, cited in Albusairy, 1991, p:45) explained the reasons "why speaking activities do not work: the classes are too big for speaking activities; the students have too little time to speak. The speaking section of text books gives very few students the chance to talk, while the rest of the classes remain listeners, often inattentive ones".

Donough and Shaw (1993, cited in Abdalla, 1999, p:186) argued that speaking is the ways to express ideas and opinions, expressing and desire to do something, negotiating or solving a particular problem, and maintaining social relationship and friendship. They also added that speaking is a complex set of ability that involves many components, including pronunciation, listening and grammar skills.

Chaney (1998, p:17), said that speaking is the process of building and sharing meaning. So, the students should have capability in telling their ideas about some problems. The goal of speaking is to improve students' communicative skill; by telling their ideas, the students can improve their speaking ability and increase their confidence.

It is difficult to say which skill is the most important among the four language skills. However, speaking seems the most important and the closest to the goal of language teaching and communicative

competence. Besides that, Ur (1996: p:73), stated that, "of all the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), speaking seems to be the most important".

### **1.1.3. Characteristics of the Speaking Skill**

Byrne (1981, p:8), clarified that, "speaking is a two-way process between speakers and listeners involving the productive skills of understanding". Bygate (1987, p:3), showed that in order to be able to speak a foreign language, learners, not only need to understand some grammar and vocabulary, but also know how to use knowledge as well as language on deciding what to say and how to say. One more thing concerning the ability to speak is that of fluency and accuracy.

Luoma (2011, p:9), stated that when people hear someone speak, they pay attention to what the speaker sounds like almost automatically. On the basis of what they hear, they make some tentative and possibly subconscious judgments about the speakers' personality, attitudes, home region and native-non-native speaker status. As speakers, consciously or unconsciously, people use their speech to create an image of themselves to others. By using speed and pausing, and variations in pitch, volume and intonation, they also create a texture for their talk that supports and enhances what they are saying. The sound of the people's speech is meaningful, and that is why this is important for assessing speaking. The sound of speech is however a thorny issue for language assessment. This is first of all because people tend to judge native/non-native speaker status on the basis of pronunciation. This easily leads to the idea that the standard against which learner pronunciation should be judged is the speech of a native speaker, but, how can an alternative standard be defined. Luoma (2011, p:10), also stated that all languages have

different regional varieties and often regional standards as well, the standards are valued in different ways in different regions and for different purposes, and this makes it difficult to choose a particular standard for an assessment or to require that learners should try to stick to one standard only. Very few learners are capable of achieving a native-like standard in all respects. If speaking like native speaker is made the criterion, most language learners will fail.

It is important to remember that speaking forms a part of the shared social activity of talking. In a typical spoken interaction, two or more people talk to each other about things that they think are mutually interesting and relevant in the situation. The aim can be to pass the time, amuse each other, share opinions or get something done, or a combination of these and other things at once. The point in their interaction is that they do these things together. Each participant is both a speaker and a listener; they construct the event together and share the right to influence the outcomes – which can be both shared with individuals. According to Luoma (2011, p:18), there are, furthermore, several psychological reasons why many learners may not even want to be mistaken for native speakers of a language. Brown and Yule (2001, p:49), stated that learning to talk in the foreign language is considered to be one of the difficult aspects of language learning for the teacher to help the student. Speakers need to speak and need someone listen to them, and respond to them.

The characteristics of speaking Genre for the teaching of speaking to be successful, it is essential that teachers develop in learners the skill of determining the specific kind of speaking they are expected

to do in a certain speaking situation. In this respect, different sub-kinds of speaking could be distinguished by applying the concept of genre.

Scrivener, 2000, cited in (Semakdji, 2014, p:16), defined genre as a variety of speech (or writing) that one would expect to find in a particular place, with particular people, in a particular context, to achieve a particular result, using a particular channel, for example, face to face [or] by phone. Hedge 1992, cited in (Semakdji, 2014, p:18), pointed out that genre "links the purpose of a particular type of spoken discourse to its overall structure". In everyday life, people speak in various ways, depending in who they are speaking to, where they are and the nature of entire situation. For instance, giving a lecture at the university is a completely different kind of speaking from enquiring about car insurance over the phone, two examples of two different genres.

The Importance of the Speaking skill is characterize Language as a tool of communication. We communicate with others, to express our ideas, and to know others' ideas as well. Communication takes place, where there is speech. Without speech, we cannot communicate with one another. The speaking skill, hence is essential for the learners of any language. Without speech, a language is reduced to a mere script. The use of language is an activity which takes place within the confines of our community. We use language in a variety of situations. People at their work places, i.e. researchers working either in a medical laboratory or in a language laboratory, are supposed to speak correctly and effectively in-order to communicate well with one another. Any gap in commutation results in misunderstandings and problems.

For a smooth running of any system, the speakers of a language need to be especially and purposefully trained in the skill of speaking. In-order to become a well-rounded communicator one needs to be proficient in each of the four language skills: listening , speaking, reading and writing, but the ability to speak skillfully, provides the speaker with several distinct advantages. The capacity for expressing one's thoughts, opinions and feelings, in the form of words put together in a meaningful way, provides the speaker with these advantages. The joy of sharing one's ideas with others is immense. When we speak to others, we come to have a better understanding of our own selves, as Frost 1992, cited in (Ahamed 2004, p:48), once said: "I am a writer of books in retrospect, I talk in order to understand, I teach in order to learn". Undoubtedly, the clarity in speech reflects clear thinking.

An effective speaker can gain the attention of the audience and hold it what the completion of his message. The speaking skills are important for career success, but certainly not limited to one's professional aspirations. The speaking skill can also enhance one's personal life.

## **1.2. Teaching the Speaking Skill**

The main reason for learning English language is to be able to speak it, and that is because the world is becoming smaller nowadays. More and more people are using the English language as a common way to communicate with each other due to the development of the technologies (the internet) and so the global economy, which lead companies and large businesses to employ people who can speak more than their own native language. The English language is now officially considered as an international language, which the primary benefits of learning it is the resulting job, advance education

and travel opportunities. Baker and Westrup (2003, p:5), stated that "a student who can speak English well may have greater chance for further education of finding employment and gaining promotion". However, the main goal of teaching speaking in a language context is to enhance (the improvement of) the learners' communicative skills or competencies efficiency, by helping them to be fluent, accurate and more communicatively competent in order to achieve the "four purposes for learning" according to Bailey (2002, p:117-118).

### **1.2.1. Importance of Teaching the Speaking Skill**

In the traditional approaches of language learning and teaching, the speaking skill is neglected in many classrooms where the emphasis was mainly on reading and writing. Reading and writing were the essential skills to be focused on; however little or no attention is paid to the skill of speaking and listening Richards & Rodgers, (2001, p:166). In the communicative approach, speaking is given more importance since oral communication involves speech where learners are expected to interact verbally with other people.

Speaking is a crucial part in foreign/second language teaching-learning. It has occupied a significant rank all the way through the history of language teaching. Despite its importance, teaching speaking has been undervalued and just in the last two decades that it wins its right to be an independent branch of teaching, learning and testing Bygate, in Carter & Nunan, (2001, p:14).

In English language teaching and learning, speaking is considered as a skill that has to be "practiced" Finnocchiaro & Brumfit 1983, cited in (Lovelace, 2005, p:98). It is regarded by the learners

as the measure of knowing a language and the most important skill they can acquire; because "they assess their progress in the terms of their accomplishments in "speaking is the most complex of linguistics skill, since it involves thinking of what is to be said while saying what has been thought". However, Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983, p:141), considered its complexity in "the knowledge of sound, vocabulary and cultural sub-system of English language that it involves". The distinction between knowledge and skill complexity in oral expression lesson is considered as crucial in the teaching of speaking because studying knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, intonation...etc, is not sufficient to be a good learner of speaking, but studying the skill to apply this knowledge to communicate successfully is fundamental.

### **1.2.2. Activities of Teaching the Speaking Skill**

There are many types of activities that the teacher can implement to promote the speaking skill in the English as a second language (ESL) or English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom. Bailey, (2010, p:66-68), explained the most outstanding types of the speaking activities.

#### **Discussion**

Discussion is considered as one of the most commonly used activities in oral skill class. The students are introduced to a topic through a reading or a listening passage, and are asked to get in pairs or groups to discuss a related topic in order to come up with a solution or a response. The main advantages of discussion are that they help students to interact authentic, let learners exchange information and opinions by using their own words (styles) and help shy students to share their ideas

without hesitation. In the Sudanese universities and higher Institutes, instructors are not familiar with discussions activities. For this reason, the researcher wishes to answer the following question: what is the preferred learning styles for Sudanese learners?

## **Presentation**

Presentation, also known as prepared talk, "speech or oral report" is more effective if the students speak from notes rather than a script. Giving them enough time to prepare their talks helps them benefit more from doing oral presentation. The students also need a chance to rehearse their presentation. This could often be done by getting them to present to each other in pairs or small groups, first, before they make their speech in front of the entire class, Harmer cited in Bailey (2010, p:70). Presentation could be designed at all levels of proficiency and it can be beneficial at university level. Through presentation, learners are able to practice their language in oral and authentic situation, the problem that we face in Sudanese universities is that when we speak about presentation we mean teachers' presentation in a lecture, in which teachers speak more and students speak less. The measurement in passing the English exam, so speaking is not one of their objectives of teaching English.

## **Dialogues**

Brown 1990, cited in Semakdji (2014, p:26), explained that dialogues involve two or more speakers and could be subdivided into exchanges that promote social relationships, interpersonal, or interactional and exchange with the purpose of conveying factual information. The researcher was observed that dialogues are not included in Sudanese university curricula, because we find it in the basic

and high secondary schools, and it was noted in the problem of the recent study, that the Sudanese learners learn English for seven years in the basic and high secondary school before they come to the university, however, their level of spoken language is very low compared with the period of studying English.

## **Simulation and Role Playing**

Looking for ways of creating more varied forms of interaction in the classroom, teachers have increasingly turned to the field of simulation and role playing. Pierce 1999, cited in (Semakdji, 2014, p:29), "simulation provides a context or situation in which students tend to interact in order to solve problem or make a decision to gather, {while} role-plays assign distinct roles to each students and ask them to speak through these roles. This type of activity is not completely missed in teaching English in Sudan. However it is not very commonly used. Most teachers describe this activity as time consuming; they just take their notes and teach learners direct information about linguistics and do not worry about the speaking skills; they tend to say the abilities of speaking can be acquired later, through time, you find graduation learners lacking speaking ability.

## **Conversation**

The development of the conversation in FL acquisition, as Thornbury1988, cited in (Semakdji 2014, p:30), he described that, language learning evolved out of learning how to carry on conversation. In other words a conversation in a SL/FL is not the result of language learning, but an essential means through which learning occurs. Another reason why conversation is valuable lies in the fact that many

SL/FL learners feel that their most urgent need is to develop conversational competence; and they regularly choose conversation as their principal objective when answering needs analysis surveys.

## **Interview**

According to Klippel, 2004 cited in (Semakdji, 2014, p:31), the interview is a form of interaction that is generally structured so that the interviewees are given a series of questions or situation to which they have to respond. Before using an interview in the classroom, it is important that the students can use the necessary question-and-answer structures.

### **1.2.3. Techniques to develop the Speaking Skill**

The lack of oral language in the classrooms, combined with our students lack of competence speaking with native speakers, has encouraged us to develop simple technique.

#### **1.2.3.1. Beat the clock Roles**

Beat the clock encourages students to speak in English and increase their oral proficiency at the same time. Cullerton and Torres, (2015, p:12-19), Indicates that Beat the clock is a simple technique, the material is needed is the timer. The technique can be used with English language learners at every age and ability level, and teachers decide the link of time for the activity. We have successfully used this technique with both large and less fifteen students. When deciding upon a large or small group.

This technique consider the following aspects:

- the desired number of talking turns per students
- the comfort level of students

- the students level of the topic, and students' personality.

In Sudan to apply this technique we need to divide our students into groups of twenty five students, because our classrooms is not less than hundred students come from different linguistics environment to perceive the same learning styles in the same classroom. This would enrich oral language challenges.

The Procedures to carry out the technique are as follows:

- lead a prompt, which may review or expand upon the main themes in the lesson.
- set a timer a desired amount of time, start with a fewer minutes and increase.
- review the rules.
- start the timers when students begin speaking, stopping it early only if they break the rules.
- record the number of minutes that students were able to speak.
- increase time expectation each time you use the technique, for example if you set the expectation for two minutes the first time, and students meet the goal, set the timer for three minutes the next time.

When you are ready to use the technique, you can begin giving students a prompt relevant to the content they have been studying, or you might ask them, about the main take away from today's lesson. After they have suggested a few ideas, you can continue and tell them I will set the timer to two minutes; everyone must participate in the conversation. I will not interrupt you unless you break the rules. Remember, you must to continue the discussion for two minutes.

An optional station should be:

If the students beat the clock and are able to speak for allocated amount of time, they may receive a reward. If the students are not able to speak for the entire time or break the rules, they do not receive a reward and may have to start over.

All students must participate equally (the teacher keeps track for participation by marking on the board or a piece of paper every time or break the rules, do not receive a reward and may have to start over.

- The teacher is not allowed to correct students.
- The teacher is allowed to interrupt only if the rules have been broken.
- Students must respect the topic.
- Conversation must start with a student asking question, but the aim of the activity is for students to engage in a natural group discussion about a topic.

### **1.2.3.2. Simple Classroom Discussion Technique**

Instead of answering questions with yes or no, we should explain the answer:

- To build on the idea discussed by the person before the conversation progresses naturally.
- To keep track of who is participating equally. Discuss areas of the topic that you want to know more about, that you don't understand, or that you think are interesting.
- To use personal stories and examples if they are on topic.
- Not to be afraid to make mistakes.
- To enjoy yourself.

This technique is extremely beneficial overtime, but be aware that the first time you use it in the classroom can prove challenging.

The technique takes students out of their comfort zones. At first, conversation might not have a natural flow, and students might forget vocabulary words or get nervous of the pressure of the clock.

Benefits of the Technique:

1. Our students gain confidence and participate in more natural and authentic conversations.
2. This technique has encouraged some of our most shy students to express themselves and, in turn, helped to acclimate to their environment, moreover students, students excited when they reach another minutes with enthusiasm.
3. Additionally, this technique has served as an excellent informal assessment of an oral language and a means of checking for understanding.
4. It has helped develop relationships in the classroom and increased oral language and speaking skills.

As time progresses, we find ourselves evolving with the technique and creating a more authentic learning environment to support oral language skills.

### **1.2.3.3. Visual Literacy Technique**

The term visual literacy, has appeared in education literature until 1969, when Dips (2010) described the concept as a set of competencies that a human being can develop by seeing and at the same time integrating other sensory experiences. Baker, (2015, p:26), argued that these visual competences

enable individuals to communicate with others, establishing a clear connection between visual literacy and language education. A relatively broad definition of the term that reflects seminal concept from the literature is that visual literacy is the competency to make meaning from what we see and to create images that convey implicit and explicit messages to others.

Pictures are sometimes used to support comprehension, as scaffolding tools to help students quickly associate unfamiliar words with concept, Baker, (2015, p:32), argued that, image also hold the power to stimulate complex language use, pushing students to extend their abilities. Therefore, while visual literacy can be integrated with different content areas, activities with images make an especially effective contribution to language learning.

The way we perceive pictures depend on our existing schema, a product of memories and past experiences unique to each of us, because interpretation of what we see is subjective. Analyzing images provides opportunities for meaning full student-to student interaction. Using images in the English language classrooms challenge students to share the feeling that an image provokes or expresses why they like or dislike particular photographs, this kind of oral interaction is truly communicative.

Rarely is there only one way to understand an image, and expressing opinions takes infinite forms. Interpreting image requires skills high on Blooms 1999, cited in (Baker, 2015, p:98), taxonomy, such as evaluating, synthesizing and analyzing, often called "Critical Thinking Skills". Blooms' higher order skills are essential when communicating abstract thoughts through language. Visual literacy activities help students hone these skills, for instance, instructional techniques that foster visual literacy

call for open ended questions, such as those beginning with why and what if that require extended responses and higher-order thinking skills, justifying why they understand images in particular ways require students to analyze pieces of the image before producing response based on evidence from the images, stating that one like or dis like. An image is not sufficient for visual literacy; instead, students are challenged to link vocabulary from the visual representations with abstract ideas or past experiences. It provide a means for students to interact with a phenomenon from across the world. Observing images from different perspectives and it can be done by learners of all language levels, and perspective. Taking or seeing a phenomenon from a point of view other than once own is associated with language acquisition and development.

According to Baker, (2015, p:39), photographs compel the viewer to observe objects by the way in which the camera frames them. Comparing different photographs of the same images reinforces students' recognition that an object can be expressed using different languages. Images enable students to perceive objects not only from varying spatial perspectives, but also to explore visual stimuli from different global perspectives. They can be used as an international support for students who have not yet mastered particular vocabulary or sentence structures; for instance teachers might refer to photographs or icons when introducing a new topic or vocabulary so that students quickly grasp the meaning of new terms.

Using graphic organizers to spatial represents conceptual relationships is another example of support in language activities. For instance, beginning language learners might move from making

single word to labeling items in a photograph to forming complex sentences that make inferences about the context of the photograph.

Visual literacy activities also provide an opportunity to link language to content or to use semantic topics that are meaningful for students. Indeed, using images in the classrooms is one way to enhance the content so that students interact with language to communicate about a particular concept rather than memorizing vocabulary in ways that may seem arbitrary. Images are a form of authentic material, just as educators choose texts they use in the classroom; they should also strategically select images to complement content learning goals. Educators have often emphasized the importance of authentic learning experiences for English learners.

Activities in the language class are effective if they replicate the kind of interaction that students encounter outside the classroom. In today's world of smartphone cameras and face book applications, images play a central role in our students' lives, whether they are young learners or adult. Photograph should, thus, be part of the authentic learning experiences we strive to create. We can draw upon images to elicit communicative language from students through activities such as those described above. As students become familiar with ways to talk about images, visual literacy can be integrated into daily classrooms routines. Rather than stand-alone lesson, discussion about photographs can occur regularly to enhance other learning.

## **1.2.4. Stages of Speaking the Foreign Language**

Individuals learning a second language use the same innate processes that are used to acquire their L1 from the first days of exposure to the new language in spite of their age. They reach similar developmental stages to those in L1 acquisition, making some of the same types of errors in grammatical markers that young children make, picking up chunks of language without knowing precisely what each word means, and relying on sources of input humans who speak that language-to provide modified speech that they can at least partially comprehend (Collier, 1998, p:98). L2 learners are usually observed developing a new language system that incorporates elements from the native language and elements from English they have recently learned.

### **1.2.4.1. The Pre-production Stage**

The pre-production stage is the silent period. Beginners only listen but rarely speak. English language learners may have some words in their receptive vocabulary, but they do not yet speaking. Some students will be able to repeat only everything that someone says. They do not really produce language but are imitate. Students may duplicate gestures and movements to show comprehension. Teachers should focus attention on listening comprehension activities and on building a receptive vocabulary because English language learners at this stage will need much repetition of English. Omya, (1999, p:102), noted that, the age at which individuals learn to speak English is related to his or her English literacy proficiency as an adult. There were racial and ethnic group differences in fluency

and literacy in language. Formal education played a fundamental role in the acquisition of English language fluency and literacy of individuals who are raised in non- Arabic speaking homes.

Pre-Production Stage of speaking, The learner can hardly understand anything at all, unless the speaker is talking about things the learner is observing, or unless the language being learned is closely related to some other language the learner knows. Through comprehension activities, the learner can internalize some vocabulary and some grammatical structures, which will help the learner to understand more in stage two, when they knows enough to actually converse in a simple way. The result of getting through this stage is that the learner has acquired enough of the basic building blocks of the language to begin to function in real communication situations in the same way. At this stage, there is very little real speaking ability, apart from some words and sentences that can be built on the comprehension exercises. In real communication situations, the learner has to depend on memorized survival phrases to meet the most immediate needs.

#### **1.2.4.2. The Early Production Stage**

At the early production stage, students try to speak some words. Students can use short language chunks that have been memorized although these chunks may not always be used correctly. They listen more to their talkative classmates and extend their vocabulary. When speaking in the early production stage, inputs is comprehensible if the learner already knows the non-linguistic content they are hearing or if the communication situation is very predictable. There are more genuine two-way conversations with speakers of the language, although it takes a very patient native speaker to persevere in trying to

communicate with a learner at this stage. The result of getting through this stage well is quite a bit of "fluency" in comprehending language which uses a variety of structures in connected discourse, with an ever growing vocabulary. At this stage, the learner is able to speak well in tasks that are fairly structured and predictable.

### **1.2.4.3. The Speech Emergence Stage**

At the speech emergence stage, Students have a good vocabulary and use simple phrases and sentences in their communication with others. They are able to ask simple questions, which may be grammatically correct or wrong. Students try to initiate short conversations with classmates. They are able to read and understand easy stories.

At the speech emergence stage, the learner can understand new information. This means that meanings must often be negotiated. In order to keep increasing in comprehension fluency during this stage, the key ingredient is coming to understand the background information that everyone in the culture knows about, and in particular, learning this information in connection with the language that is associated with them. Because the learner can by now understand a lot of the linguistic content, it is possible to develop more ability for top-down processing of "new" information of the non-linguistic content. If there is adequate input, the learner should develop a sense of the different discourse genres and registers of speech. The result of getting through this stage three is that the learner is able to comprehend language related to a vast range of topics, situations and contexts, as well as easily process many social nuances. At this stage, the learner has increasing facility to produce connected narrative discourse.

#### **1.2.4.4. The Intermediate Fluency Stage**

At the intermediate fluency, English language learners are able to use more complex sentences in speaking and writing to express opinions and share their thoughts. They are able to ask questions to clarify what they are learning in class. Learners are able to work with some teacher support. Comprehension of all subjects' content is increasing. At this stage, students are able to use different strategies to learn content in English and understand more complex concepts.

Speaking at the intermediate fluency stage, is affected through the fact that the learner learns most from normal native-to-native speech as it occurs in the whole range of life experiences. The learners will understand most input, provided they attend to it. For example, native speakers may talk about the learner in their presence, intending to tease them and get a reaction. They will certainly hear that they are talking, but not in the deeper sense "hear" a thing they say, unless there are attending to it. At this Stage, the learner has increased facility in abstract and hypothetical discussions.

#### **1.2.4.5. The Advanced Fluency Stage**

At the advanced fluency stage, will be near-native in their ability to perform in content area learning. Students have needed continuous support from classroom in reading writing and speaking.

At the advanced fluency stage, the learner has increasing facility in discussions using his vocabulary without any proper preparation.

Interactive speaking situations include face-to-face conversations and telephone calls, in which we are alternately listening and speaking, and in which we have a chance to ask for clarification,

repetition, or slower speech from our conversation partner. Some speaking situations are partially interactive, such as when giving a speech to a live audience, where the convention is that the audience does not interrupt the speech. The speaker nevertheless can see the audience and judge from the expressions on their faces and body language whether or not he or she is being understood.

Some few speaking situations may be totally non-interactive, such as when recording a speech for a radio broadcast.

### **1.3. Assessing the Speaking Skill**

The main objective of oral accuracy practice is to get learners to begin to produce formally correct versions of new items. In oral fluency practice, the main objective is to get them to use the items in conversation and other communication without hesitation, even if they make mistakes. Their attention should be more on the information they are communicating than on the language. Oral fluency work should continue if possible into free conversations. Accuracy practice typically involves using only the new items; fluency practice on the other hand, usually combines them with other language.

The presentation and practice of new language items is a major part of English language courses, but you should not forget the main goal of English language teaching to enable learners to use English language effectively in real communication.

Presentation and practice have some specific objectives that are not in themselves communicative. In presentation, we expect learners to grasp how new items are structured and pronounced, as well as what we meant and how they are used in communication. The objectives of practice include enabling learners

to recognize, pronounce, and manipulate new language items with some degree of subconscious automaticity. In other words, after practice we want them to be able to make statements without always painfully constructing each sentence word by word.

Madcen (1983, p:56), wrote that "due to the difficulty in defining the speaking skill" the testing of speaking is widely regarded as the most challenging of all language tests to prepare, administer and score. Because of this, it is not always easy to establish criteria to assess oral fluency. Madcen (1983, p:63), put forward the following set of criteria of assessing oral fluency as a gestalt of several interacting dimensions: at a minimum, all assessment of oral communication should include an assessment of knowledge (comprehension of the elements, rules and dynamics of the communication process as well as awareness of what is appropriate in communication situation), and assessment of skills ( the position of repertoire of skills and the actual performance of such skills) and an evaluation of the learners' attitude toward communication (for example, the value placed on oral communication and readiness to communicate. The criteria of oral communication assessment as follows:

- The method of assessment should be consistent with the dimension of oral communication being assessed: while knowledge and attitude may be assessed partly through paper and pencil instrument, the speaking skill must be assessed through actual performance in appropriate social settings, for example, speaking before an audience, undergoing an interview and participating in group discussion.

- Assessments of oral communication should consider competence in more than one communication setting: a minimum assessment should occur in a one- to-one setting, for example, an interview or a conversation.
- Assessment instruments should have an acceptable level of validity (the extent to which a test measures what it is intended to measure) reliability (the extent to which a test produces consistent results when administered under similar condition or/and scored by a different teacher), and practicality (the extent in which a test is easy to administer and score).
- Assessment instruments should describe degrees of competence, i.e. descriptions such as "competence" or "incompetent" are to be avoided. Such instrument should also attempt to diagnose the reasons why the students demonstrate particular degrees of competence.
- Instruments for assessing oral communication should be suitable for the developmental level of the learner being assessed.
- The individuals administering assessment procedures should have received adequate training by oral communication professionals, because oral communication is an interactive and social process, assessment should consider the judgment of a trained assessor as well as the impressions of other members involved in the communication act, such as the audience, and may include the self-report of the learner being assessed.

From our point of view, assessment of oral communication should focus on both conversational and formal language functions. Authentic assessment of oral proficiency should take into a careful consideration the ability of the learner to interpret and convey meaning in interactive authentic settings. In teaching and assessing speaking, Semakdji (2014, p:37), noted that the importance and primacy of speech as a mode of communication would suggest that the teaching of speaking has to be central force in language learning. It is of high significance that the teacher carefully plans ahead what to present to their learners within the classroom and how to do so by building their awareness of speaking genres and students' learning styles in order to develop a variety of speaking activities.

#### **1.4. Students' Psychological Difficulties when Speaking**

According to the researcher experience English learners are very intelligent. Most are highly motivated when they begin. Most students are very successful in school, in their jobs, in their business, and in their relationships. So, why do many learners fail to speak English easily and fluently? What are the problems of speaking? Why do good learners fail in this area? There might be three answers to that question:

- 1- Psychological Factors.
- 2- Bad Teaching Materials.
- 3- Bad Teaching Methods.

The grammar and text book methods used in schools here in Sudan, and some other countries may not be helpful. They might be total failures. Very few people may learn to speak English easily if they use those methods.

Psychological factors here mean: motivation, anxiety, aptitude, lack of confidence, shyness and fear of making mistakes. That is why the psychological factors have great effect on speaking English as a foreign language. When learning English, psychology is very important. To succeed as an excellent English speaker, you must learn to manage your emotions. You must develop a psychology of success. In fact, the most important element of success is psychology. Poor emotional state will lead to failure, powerful emotional state lead automatically to success. What do we mean by speaking skill? Speaking has many different aspects. One of the important aspects is fluency. It can be thought of as “the ability to keep going when speaking spontaneously” .When speaking fluently students should be able to get the message across with whatever resources and ability they have got, regardless of grammatical and other mistakes (Ellis 2000, p:201). It is not always easy to speak fluently in a foreign language. This may be because you're nervous about speaking because of psychological factors. You can help yourself to sound fluently and in control if you build up your confidence by learning how to use techniques which give you time to think. Getting students to have a free discussion gives them a chance to rehearse having discussions outside the classroom. Good speaking activities can and should be highly motivating (Harmer 2001, p:15).

To become a fluent English speaker, the students must study and master listening and speaking. Therefore, the more they practice both skills, the more they will be able to improve their speaking skills.

Speaking skills are an important part of the curriculum in language teaching, and this makes them an important object of assessment as well. There are so many factors that influence our impression of how well someone can speak a language (Luoma 2011, p:13). Speaking is generally discouraged in classrooms and schools. Speeches in class are used only when EFL learners are called upon to repeat or answer a question. Silence is one of the characteristics of the English language classroom. Learners are active listeners but passive speakers. As a result, oral production of the target language is almost absent in English classes (Abu-Ghararah, 2005, p:33).

According to Cameron (2011, p:54), Learners of a foreign language will learn to interact conversationally with an increasing range of people, in different situations, with different goals and of different topics, moving from the familiar settings of home, family and classroom to situations in the wider world. Abu-Ghararah (2005, p:41), stated that a great attention should be given to speech production. The importance of oral expression should be recognized. Learners should be engaged in a rich environment to stimulate speaking. They should share ideas, exchange thoughts and converse in the English language.

According to Abu-Ghararah (2005, p:56), the EFL teacher should create a positive and relaxed atmosphere for verbal communication. The classroom filter should be low anxiety. It should be friendly, sympathetic and comfortable. The learners should feel that they are accepted by others when they speak.

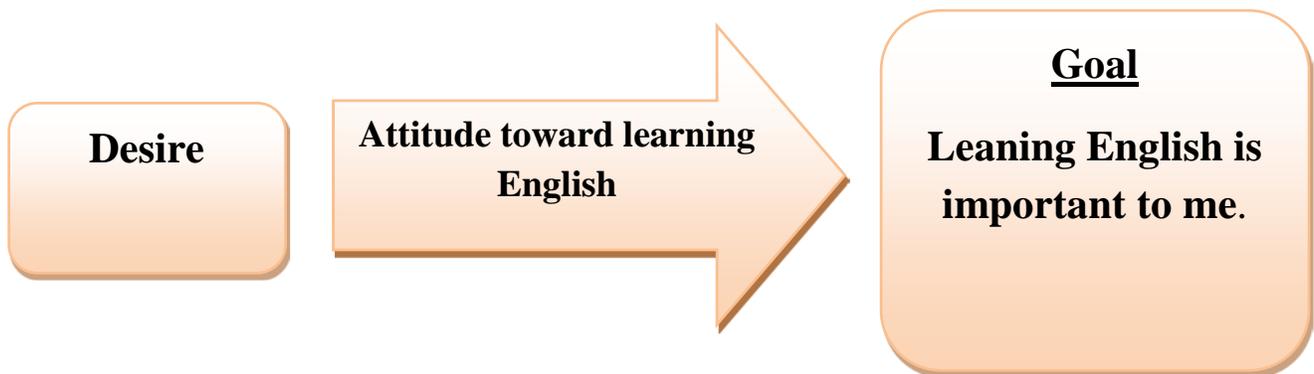
They will feel more self-esteem and self-confident to do better in second language learning. The teacher's positive attitude towards students affect their speaking performance and oral interaction. In the teaching of English, as one of the productive skills, speaking activity must focus on how to assist students to use and to communicate in English (Richard, 2008, p:110). This is important as Richard further says that most students often evaluate their success in language learning as well as the effectiveness of their English course on the bases of how much they feel they have improved in their speaking proficiency. In this sense, teachers have to give more opportunities to their students to express themselves by providing them with speaking activities that enable them to speak English (Brown, 2001, p:40). Regarding this, it is found in the literature that some psychological factors such as anxiety and shyness are considered as the main causes of students' reluctance to speak (Brown, *ibid*). This is also in line with Gebhard (2000, p:22), who says that the students' problem in speaking is caused mostly by their shyness or anxiety. All these indicate the importance for teachers to help students reduce those feelings to maximize their learning to speak in English. Therefore, the aim of this study is to state the psychological factors affecting speaking English among Sudanese learners so as to improve the learners speaking skills. Regarding this, it is hypothesized that the main psychological factors that hinder students when speaking or learning a foreign language are motivation, anxiety, self-confidence, aptitude, shyness and fear of mistakes. All these psychological factors are interrelated.

It has been mentioned earlier that there are some psychological factors that hinder students when practicing their speaking and they are interrelated to each other. Each of them is explained below.

### 1.4.1. Lack of Motivation

Although the word "motivation" might appear simple and easy, it is in fact very difficult to define. It seems to have been impossible for theorists to reach a wide agreement on a single definition. According to Gardner (1985), cited in Alhadi (2015, p:70), motivation is concerned with the question, "Why does an organism behave as it does?" Moreover, motivation involves four aspects: a goal, an effort, a desire to attain the goal, and a favorable attitude toward the activity in question. It is important because it "determines the extent of the learner's active involvement and attitude toward learning".

According to Gardner (1985, cited in Alhadi 2015, p:78), motivation is a combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes towards learning it. The concept of motivation as it relates to Second Language Acquisition (henceforth SLA) is presented in the schematic representation below (Figure 1.1).



**Figure 1.1 Concept of Motivation as it Related to EFL (Gardener 1995)**

As represented in figure 1.1 above, motivation consists of four components: attitudes toward learning the language, desire to learn the language, motivational intensity and goals. Motivational

intensity is influenced by the attitudinal component. So we realize that there are two reasons or orientations for studying a foreign language, which are labeled as integrative and instrumental orientations for language learning. Littlewood (1984, p:23), defined instrumental and integrative motivations by saying that: A learner with instrumental motivation is more interested in how the second language can be useful instrument toward furthering other goals e.g. "improving employment prospects while a learner with integrative motivation is having a genuine interest in the second language community".

The purpose for learning the English language is for communication and for gaining closer contact with its speakers and their culture. Al-Busairi (1990, p:45), criticized previous researchers, classification of motivation into integrative and instrumental and came out with a third orientation which combines both. He labeled this new category as "Integra-instrumental motivation". He said that, for example people who live in the native language country but have the expectation of working in the target language country will have a mixture of both motivations". He states that: "..., there may be a mixture of both motivation, an Integra-instrumental motivation reflecting the learners reasons for learning the language to get a job to run one's business in an English speaking country, such as Britain or USA". Researchers have agreed that motivation is one of the two dimensions of success in Foreign Language Learning (henceforth FLL). Researchers and teachers reached a conclusion that motivation of the learners is one of the most important factors influencing their success or failure in learning a foreign language. So, motivation is the key to learning.

It is mentioned that motivation is a key to students learning success. With regard to the issue of motivation in learning, Nunan (1999, p:136), stressed that motivation is important to notice in that it can affect students' reluctance to speak in English. In this sense, motivation is considered as an important factor to a successful communication. It has been proven in many studies that students with a strong motivation to succeed can persist in learning and gain better scores than those who have weaker motivation of success showing that building students motivation to learn is urgent for every teacher. With respect to the causes of lack of motivation, Gardner (1986, cited in Nunan, 1999, p:140) stated that the causes of the students' lack of motivation; e.g. uninspired teaching, boredom, lack of perceived relevance of materials and lack of knowledge about the goals of the instructional program. These four causes as he further said, very often become source of students' motivation. In this context, a monotonous teaching, in many cases, reduces the students' motivation due to their feeling of boredom. This shows that paying attention to those four factors is vital.

In response to the issue of motivation, Babu (2010, p:29), argued that lack of motivation in learning causes students' hesitation to speak English in the classroom. He says that the background of this situation is that students are not motivated by the teachers towards the communication in English. In other words, students motivation is really influenced by the teachers teaching performance. Therefore, it is important that teachers should try to improve their teaching performance so as to give the students a motivation toward learning and speaking English in particular.

Dornyei (2011, p:99), stated that it is necessary to make learning stimulating and enjoyable for the learner by increasing the attractiveness of the tasks. People usually enjoy a task if they play an essential part in it. This can take part through class discussions, which usually to be interesting by those who have contributed to it and boring those who have not. This means that another way of making learning stimulating and enjoyable is creating learning situations where learners are required to become active participants and the students ability increase toward the learning process. So, we are going to come across one of the important psychological factors which is "aptitude"; the student ability to learn a foreign language.

### **1.4.2. Lack of Aptitude**

According to Richard and Renandya (2008, cited in Alhadi, 2015, p:60), "Lack of Aptitude" is influenced by a number of factors. Age is one of the most commonly cited determinant factors of success or failure in Second Language (henceforth L2). This shows that the aging process itself may affect or limit adult learners" ability to pronounce the target language fluently. Adult learners do not seem to have the same innate language – specific endowment or propensity as children for acquiring fluency and naturalness in spoken language.

Littlewood (2008, p:90), proposed to use "ability" in a broader sense than is often the case. The term is often restricted to cognitive aspects of a person's ability to learn, notably intelligence and a set of more specific language-learning abilities called „language aptitude". Here, Littlewood uses it to refer to

a broader set of factors which – given similar motivation and opportunities – make some people better at learning than others.

People greatly differ in how fast, how well and by what means they learn an additional language. The variability in rates, outcomes and processes can be strikingly large, particularly for people who begin learning an L2 later in life (Ortega 2009, p:147).

Aptitude is an important psychological factor. It is the student's ability in learning a language. According to Griffiths (2009, p:142), language aptitude is defined in terms of speed in language learning, whereas Carroll (1981, p:84), aptitude refers to a disposition to be able to do something well and perfectly.

Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics states that aptitude is the relationship between a learner's personal strengths and weaknesses in learning and the learning situation, including the type of program one enrolled in (Richard, 2002, p:110).

According to Ortega (2009, p:152), language aptitude is the psychological formulation behind the intuition that some people have a gift for additional language learning while others seem to struggle. Language aptitude partially overlaps with traditional intelligence and with early first language ability. Many SLA researchers believe that children learn their first language so well because they have the cognitive and linguistic endowment to learn it entirely implicitly.

In addition, aptitude seems to operate independently of many of the affective variables involved in Second Language Learning (SLL). Several researches suggest that aptitude and intelligence are the most stable predictors of learning a language or other subjects.

The Ability Differentiation Hypothesis claims that some L2 learners may have more clearly differentiated abilities and strengths in corresponding aptitude complexes than other learners and further that it is particularly important to match these learners to conditions of practice which favor their strengths. This is in contrast with other learners who may have less differentiated abilities and equivalent strengths and aptitudes for learning under a variety of conditions of exposure and classroom practice (DeKeyser, 2008, cited in Nunan, 1999, p:160).

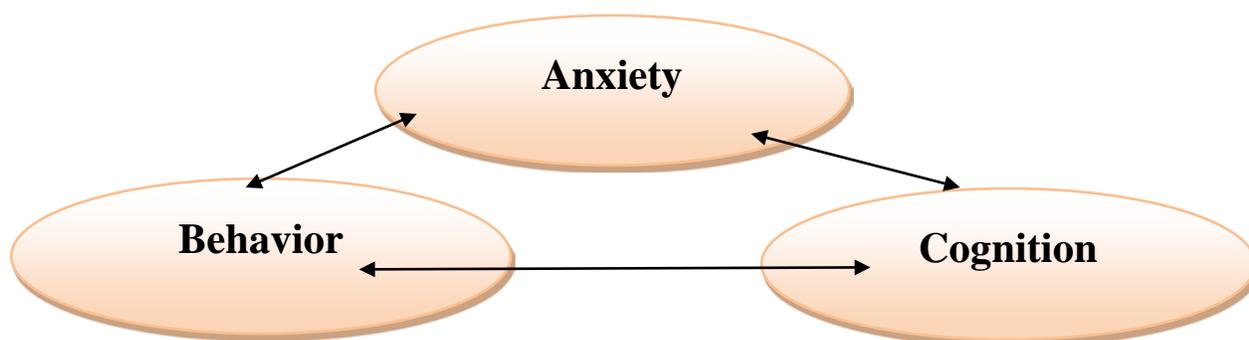
According to Richard and Reranda (2008, p:209), there is a little doubt that listening plays an extremely important role in the development of speaking abilities. Speaking feeds on listening, which precedes it. Usually, one person speaks and the other responds through attending by means of the listening process. In fact, every speaker plays double role both as a listener and as a speaker. So, speaking is interrelated with listening.

Richard and Reranda (2008, p:210), stated that speaking a foreign language in public, especially in front of native speakers, is often anxiety provoking. Sometimes, extreme anxiety occurs when EFL learners become tongue tied or lost for words in an unexpected situation. Unlike children, adults are concerned with how they are judged by others. Clearly, the sensitivity of adult learners to making mistakes, or fear of “losing face” has been the explanation for their inability to speak English without hesitation. Therefore, Lack of aptitude causes anxiety as one of the major psychological factors that affect students L2 Learning.

### 1.4.3. Anxiety

According to researchers, "anxiety" is a feeling of tension, apprehension and nervousness associated with the process of learning a foreign language. It is considered as one of the most psychological factors that affect students learning a foreign language in particular when speaking. Tanveer (2007, p:61), stated in his study that such statements are commonly uttered by foreign language learners and are too familiar to the foreign language teachers. These statements indicate an important problem that the majority of students face in learning and particularly speaking a second or foreign language. Many learners express their inability and sometimes even acknowledge their failure in learning to speak a second/foreign language. These learners may be good at learning other skills, but when it comes to learning to speak another language, they claim to have a „mental block“ against it (Horwitz, 1986, p:125). What then, hinders or stops them to succeed in learning a second/foreign language? In many cases, students“ feeling of stress, anxiety or nervousness may hinder their language learning and performance abilities. Theorists and second language acquisition (SLA) researchers have frequently demonstrated that these feelings or anxiety are specifically associated with learning and speaking a second/foreign language, which distinguishes L2/FL learning from learning other skills or subjects. Both teachers and students are aware and generally feel strongly that anxiety is a major factor to overcome when learning to speak another language.

Researchers differ widely about the definition of anxiety. Anxiety is a well-known phenomenon among learners in general and especially language learners. Several researchers realized that anxiety is experienced physically. Researchers have found a recursive or cyclical relationship among anxiety, cognition and behavior (Leary, 1990; Levitt, 1980: cited in Alhadi, 2015, p:64). This can be explained by the following figure.



**Figure 1.2 Recursive Relations Among Anxiety, Cognition and Behavior (Leary 1990).**

Figure: 1.2 shows that anxiety, behavior and cognition are mutually inter-related. So, anxiety is a state of apprehension (anxiety about future) and it is one of the affective variables in SLA. Anxiety Cognition Behavior. There are several types of anxiety, but most of them are not associated with language learning and performance. Language learning and performance anxiety are social, trait etc. Trait anxiety refers to a permanent personality feature, or stable characteristics of a person as Allwright (1991, p:173), in reporting Schovel says that state anxiety refers to "a temporary condition brought about by some environmental stimulus and it is an acknowledged feature of language learning".

Al-Busairi (1990, p:45), said that anxiety may improve one's performance and may lead to success in second language learning. So anxiety affects the performance of the learner of a foreign language as indicated by several studies. Several researchers indicate that learners with high level of anxiety should be less successful in learning a foreign language than relaxed ones. They indicate in their study that language teachers share the same opinion.

Anxiety is a feeling of tension, apprehension and nervousness associated with the situation of learning a foreign language. (Horwitz cited in Al-Busairi 1990, p:59). Further, Nascente writes that among other affective variables, anxiety stands out as one of the main blocking factors for effective language learning. In other words, anxiety influences students negatively in learning language. Therefore, paying attention to this factor of learning should also be taken into consideration.

The fact that anxiety plays an important role in students' learning is also shared by other researchers like Horwitz (1991, as cited in Al-Busairi 1990, p:79), he believed that anxiety about speaking a certain language can affect students' performance". It can influence the quality of oral language production and make individuals appear less fluent than they really are. This explanation suggests that teachers should make an attempt to create a learning atmosphere which gives students more comfortable situations in their learning activity.

Regarding the causes of anxiety, Horwitz and Cope (1986, p:133), based on the findings of their study, found out three main causes of students' anxiety; i.e. communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. The communication apprehension refers to the students' ability to

communicate in the target language. Their low ability in this aspect, in many cases, causes anxious feeling among many students. The second cause which is test anxiety deals with students fear of being tested. The last cause has to do with other students evaluation. In this case, as mentioned above, very often that other students evaluation causes anxiety among students themselves. In addition, fear of being evaluated by their teachers is also another factor affecting students' anxiety. All these show that understanding students better and being skillful in managing classroom should be part of the teachers' concern. As suggested by Harmer (2001, p:32), to reduce this anxiety feeling, teachers need to pay attention to each students' strengths and weakness so that they can create a learning method which accommodates all students in the classroom. Therefore, anxiety can be as a result of lack of self-confidence as one of the important psychological factors that affect students' oral performance.

#### **1.4.4. Lack of Confidence**

According to Dornyei (2011, p:77), "confidence" is closely related to concepts like "self-esteem", "self-efficacy" and "anxiety". Self-confidence is like the foundation of a building: if they are not secure enough, even the best technology will be insufficient to build solid walls over them. You can employ your most creative motivational ideas, but if students have basic doubts about themselves, they will be unable to "bloom" as learners.

It is commonly understood that students lack of confidence usually occurs when students realize that their conversation partners have not understood them or when they do not understand other speakers.

This shows that building students' confidence is an important part of teacher's focus of attention. It

means that the teacher should also learn from both theories and practical experience on how to build the students' confidence (Dornyei, 2011, p:80). Several researchers state the main cause of students' lack of confidence is their low ability in speaking English. In this case, as they add, many students think that their English is bad and feel that they cannot speak English well. The other cause of students' lack of confidence also deals with the lack of encouragement from the teacher (Brown 2001, p:39). In this context, many teachers do not think that convincing students that they are able to speak English is important. As a result, as Brown adds, students find the learning demotivating rather than motivating. This suggests that encouragement becomes a vital thing in order to build the students' confidence. Therefore, giving students encouragement and showing that they will be able to communicate well in English plays a role in students' success of learning.

Dornyei (2011, p:90), stated that to provide learners with the necessary confidence-building experiences should be through encouraging the learners and reducing language anxiety. According to the researcher, lack of self-confidence can be as a result of students' shyness.

#### **1.4.5. Shyness**

Shyness is an emotional thing that many students suffer from at some time when they are required to speak in class. This indicates that shyness could be a source of problem in students' learning activities in the classroom especially in the class of speaking. Therefore, paying attention on this aspect is also quite important in order to help the students do their best in their speaking performance in the classroom (Gebhard 2000, cited in Alhadi (2015, p:72). In line with this, Baldwin (2011, cited in

Ahamed, 2004, p:90), further explained that speaking in front of people is one of the more common phobias that students encounter and feeling of shyness makes their mind go blank or that they will forget what to say. As they say, their inability in speaking is also influenced much by their feeling of shyness. In other words, it can be said that shyness plays an important role in speaking performance done by the students. With regard to the cause of shyness, Robby (2010, p:26), argued that some shy learners are caused by their nature that they are very quiet. In this case, the students are not very confident and tend to be shy because most of them find it very intimidating when speaking English in front of their friends and teacher. In addition, Saurik (2011, cited in Alhadi, 2015, p:63), identified that most of English students feel shy when they speak the language because they think they will make mistakes when they talk. They are also afraid of being laughed at by their peers and friends due to their low ability in speaking English.

#### **1.4.6. Fear of Mistake**

As argued by many theorists, fear of mistake becomes one of the main factors of students' reluctance to speak English in the classroom. With respect to the fear of making mistake issue, Aftat (2008, p:51), added that, this fear is linked to the issue of correction and negative evaluation. In addition, this is also much influenced by the students' fear of being laughed at by other students or being criticized by the teacher. As a result, students commonly stop participating in the speaking activity. Therefore, it is important for teachers to convince their students that making mistakes is not a wrong or bad thing because students can learn from their mistakes.

The primary reason for fear of mistake is that students are afraid of looking foolish in front of other people and they are concerned about how other will see them (Kurtus 2001). In addition, Hieu (2011, cited in Abu-Ghararah, 2005, p:102), explained that, students feel afraid of the idea of making mistakes as they are worried that their friends will laugh at them and receive negative evaluations from their peers if they make mistakes in speaking English.

Students' fear of making mistakes in Speaking English has been a common issue especially in an EFL context. As argued by Middleton (2009, p:48), most EFL students are afraid of learning of speaking in a foreign language they learn. In this context, as he adds, students do not want to look foolish in front of the class. In some other cases, they also worry about how they will sound, and are scared of sounding silly and so on.

There are many studies that in some way or another link to this research. Burns and Joyce quoted in Nunan (1999, p:14) argued that psychological factors such as anxiety or shyness, lack of confidence, lack of motivation, and fear of mistakes are the factors that commonly hinder students when speaking.

Ballard (1996, cited in Alhadi, 2015, p:78), affirmed that, students fail to join the English discussion because of their vocabulary problems and fear of making mistakes resulting in their inability to speak English well. In addition, she said that students find speaking a stressful activity especially if they have to perform something using English.

Tanveer (2007, p:61), entitled "Investigation of the Factors that cause Anxiety for ESL/EFL Learners in Learning Speaking Skills and the Influence it casts on Communication in the

target Language". The tool for the data collection was an interview administered to students and teachers. The main finding is that the most anxiety provoking skill in L2/FL (English) learning is the speaking skill. Almost all research subjects acknowledged that people feel anxious and nervous while speaking English in front of others as a result of lack of self-confidence. In addition, some EFL learners even expressed that they feel "stupid" when they cannot speak English well and others explained that they try to skip or escape the situation, which demands speaking in front of others, either in the classroom or outside of the classroom.

Juhana (2012, p:30), Indonesia Open University, entitled "Psychological Factors That Hinder Students From Speaking in English Class". The tool for collecting data was a questionnaire administered to a teachers of English. It stated that students have psychological factors such as anxiety, self-confidence and motivation that hinder them from practicing their speaking in English class. To turn to the possible solutions to overcome the psychological factors that hinder students from speaking, the students believed that motivating them to be more confident to speak is worth considering. In this sense, motivating students to speak in English, to some extent, encourages them to actively participate in speaking in the class. All these suggest the importance of creating a supporting atmosphere of learning in the classroom. The fifth study was conducted by AL-Sadik (2011, p:69), Sudan University of Science and Technology, entitled "Teaching Speaking Skills to Secondary school students", a case study of secondary school in Libya. The tool for collecting data was a questionnaire. He found that most students

believe that they always or often feel ashamed when they make mistakes and hesitate a lot when speaking. Moreover, some students said that they are not confident when speaking English.

Mai (2011, p:78), University of Languages and International Studies, entitled "An investigation into factors that hinder the participation of university students in English speaking lessons". The tools for the data collection were a questionnaire, classroom observation and the interview reports from a different environment. Mai found that there are three main factors hindering students' participation coming from teachers, students and classroom. Firstly, some factors come from learners such as learners' language level, their interest, personalities, learning style, attitude and anxiety. In the speaking lessons, the students with lower proficiency might feel unconfident. They were afraid of making mistakes and losing face in front of their teacher and other students.

As a result, they tried to avoid any speaking activities. Regarding students' personalities, Mai (2011, p:80), stated that most of the students felt worried, hesitant and not self- confident enough in front of the classmates and teachers because of shyness and low English proficiency. Students' shyness and lack of English Knowledge made them passive in the speaking activities. Furthermore, a larger number of the students suffered from anxiety which caused negative effects on their learning process, in general and on their participation in speaking activities, in particular. Many students felt nervous and tense when being asked to speak English in class. He also found that the teacher's characteristics, teaching methods, and teachers' role are very important. Teachers should encourage their students in order to increase students' participation. Mai (2011, p:79), also stated that teaching and learning

conditions also played an important role in increasing students' participation. Most teachers complained that a large-class size caused the difficulties in teaching speaking. A pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere would create students' motivation and encourage their participation in speaking activities.

Ahmed (2004, p:63), argued that the tool for the data collection was a questionnaire distributed to Sudanese university students. He found that highly motivated students are more receptive than students with low level of motivation. He also stated that students who have positive attitudes toward the English language speakers, the English language classroom, and the English language teachers are expected to be more receptive than those with negative attitudes.

Ahmed (2004, p:66), stated that students who have self- esteem are more receptive than students who have low self-esteem. In line with this study, he also found that students who have low level of anxiety are more receptive than students who have a high level of anxiety. He also stated that the subjects of his study have positive attitudes toward the language itself and its speakers.

Osman (1995: p:34), University of Khartoum, titled "Anxiety and Self-esteem in English Language Achievement". The tool of collection of the study was a questionnaire. he found that females are more anxious than males in learning English. The higher the anxiety is, the lower is the achievement and vice-versa.

The ninth study was conducted by Osman (2012, p:122), Sudan University of Science and Technology, entitled "Problems of Oral Communication Among Secondary School Students", a case study-Kosti locality-White Nile State. The instrument of the data collection was a questionnaire

administered to the students. She found that shyness and fear of making mistakes are behind students' reluctance to participate in oral interaction in the classroom.

Abdalla (1999, p:140), University of Khartoum, conducted a research entitled "The Relationship Between Learning Style, and Teaching Styles as Determining Factors on EFL Learners' Achievement". The instrument of data collection was a questionnaire administered to Sudanese university students. He stated that a feeling of anxiety is found to be experienced by both groups of respondents when they are participating in oral classroom interactive activities.

Finally, Elhadi (1999, p:240), conducted a research entitled "The Role of Attitudes and Anxiety in Learning a Foreign Language". The tool for the data collection was a questionnaire administered to Sudanese university students. She found that facilitating anxiety helps to learn English language whereas, debilitating hinders to learn English language. She also found that Khartoum university students have favorable attitudes toward learning English and English speakers.

There are similarities between this study and the previous studies reported above. First, all researchers from the same environment consider factors related to learning English as a foreign language. Second, some factors are common between most of the previous studies and the current one such as the factor of anxiety. Besides that, most previous studies and current study used a questionnaire as a tool to carry out the study.

On the other hand, this study differs from the previous studies considered above in that it focuses on certain factors related to oral communication such as self-confidence and aptitude. A factor like anxiety

can have more impact on speaking than on comprehension of reading texts, for instance. Moreover, different samples were used.

## **Conclusion**

Developing oral fluency among university students is important in several ways. Most English students are not able to express themselves orally, because they have problems in speaking.

Yet, we can find misunderstanding between the students of English and their teachers. This has clearly been shown in the previous literature. So, teachers should be provided with the most suitable techniques and activities in order to develop their oral fluency in speaking. The process of speaking English language is affected by many factors. Referring to the aim of the study, the researcher has concluded that university students have problems yet hinder them when practicing speaking, such as teaching techniques, missing of speaking activities, discussion, lack of self-confidence, lack of aptitude and anxiety. It can be seen as the main factors are interrelated and all of them lead to failure especially when they want to express themselves in oral situations.

## ***Chapter Two: Developing Competence in the Speaking Skill***

### *Introduction*

<b>2.1.</b>	<i>Types of Competences</i>	<b>55</b>
<b>2.1.1.</b>	<i>Pragmatic Competence</i>	<b>55</b>
<b>2.1.2.</b>	<i>Grammatical Competence</i>	<b>58</b>
<b>2.1.3.</b>	<i>Discourse Competence</i>	<b>58</b>
<b>2.1.4.</b>	<i>Sociolinguistic Competence</i>	<b>59</b>
<b>2.1.5.</b>	<i>Strategic Competence</i>	<b>59</b>
<b>2.2.</b>	<i>The Effect of Competence in the Development of the Speaking skill.</i>	<b>62</b>
<b>2.2.1.</b>	<i>Perform Speech Act</i>	<b>62</b>
<b>2.2.2.</b>	<i>Interpret Non-literal Meaning</i>	<b>63</b>
<b>2.2.3.</b>	<i>Perform Politeness Functions</i>	<b>63</b>
<b>2.2.4.</b>	<i>Perform Discourse Functions</i>	<b>64</b>
<b>2.2.5.</b>	<i>Use Cultural Knowledge</i>	<b>65</b>
<b>2.3.</b>	<i>Techniques to Develop Competence in the Speaking Skill</i>	<b>67</b>
<b>2.3.1.</b>	<i>Using Minimal Responses</i>	<b>68</b>
<b>2.3.2.</b>	<i>Strategy of Recognizing Scripts</i>	<b>69</b>

<b>2.3.3. <i>Using Language to Talk about Language</i></b>	<b>69</b>
<b>2.3.4. <i>Preparation</i></b>	<b>71</b>
<b>2.3.5. <i>Sender and Receiver</i></b>	<b>71</b>
<b>2.3.6. <i>Organizing Materials and Time</i></b>	<b>72</b>
<b>2.3.7. <i>Students Centered Learning</i></b>	<b>72</b>
<b>2.4. <i>Factors Affecting the Development of Competence in the Speaking Skill</i></b>	<b>76</b>
<b>2.4.1. <i>Input, Transfer and Generalization</i></b>	<b>79</b>
<b>2.4.2. <i>Standard Language and Dialect</i></b>	<b>80</b>
<b>2.4.3. <i>Language Learning</i></b>	<b>83</b>
<b>2.4.4. <i>Communication</i></b>	<b>85</b>
<b>2.4.5. <i>Age</i></b>	<b>86</b>
<b>2.4.6. <i>Aptitude</i></b>	<b>89</b>
<b>2.4.7. <i>Motivation</i></b>	<b>90</b>
<b><i>Conclusion</i></b>	

## **Introduction**

Real time interaction is a cognitively and linguistically demanding task. Participants have to deal with multiple aspects during the process of coding and decoding messages. Even for native speakers, the process of forming thoughts and ideas and expressing them coherently through language is not a simple endeavor. Given this, one can easily understand how much more this process is for learners who have to draw upon an unsatisfactory inter-language system.

### **2.1. Types of Competences**

Five types of competence to develop students' oral fluency have been discussed in details, pragmatic competence, grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistics competence and strategic competence.

#### **2.1.1 Pragmatic Competence**

Pragmatic competence is the ability to understand speakers' intentions, interpret their feelings and attitudes, and differentiate speech acts such as "requesting", "suggesting" and "threats". It is also having the necessary knowledge to interact appropriately in communicative situations. Kasper (1997 cited in Ahmed, Khalid, 2004, p:90), stated that, pragmatic competence is not extra or ornamental. It is not subordinated to knowledge of grammar and textual organization but it is co-ordinated to formal linguistic and textual knowledge. Learners need to develop pragmatic competence in order to communicate successfully in a target language.

Brown, and Yule. (2001, p:88), proposed that the comprehension of speech acts and conversational implication are features of pragmatic comprehension. For Garcia, (2004, as cited in Ahmed, Khalid 2004, p:97), speech acts define utterances produced by a speaker who is trying to do something or trying to get the hearer to do something, So, conversational implication are utterances which express attitudes and feelings from the speaker and must be inferred by the hearer.

Grice, (1975, p27), presented the concept of pragmatic ability and pragmatic comprehension. The former is the ability to use language appropriately according to the communicative situation and the latter refers to the comprehension of oral language in terms of pragmatic meaning. Therefore, students need to be able to comprehend meaning pragmatically in order to:

1. understand a speaker's intention;
2. interpret a speaker's feelings and attitudes;
3. differentiate speech act meaning such as the difference between a directive and commissive.
4. evaluate the intensity of a speaker's meaning, such as the difference between a suggestion and a warning;
5. recognize sarcasm, joking, and other facetious behavior;
6. be able to respond appropriately.

There is a dispute whether pragmatic competence can be taught in the foreign language classroom. Several studies have been made addressing this question. Kasper (1997, cited in Ahmed, 2004, p:99), stated that, competence is not teachable: "Competence is a type of knowledge that learners possess,

develop, acquire, use or lose". However, she suggests that teachers can arrange learning opportunities in a way that learners benefit from the development of pragmatic competence in L2.

Oxford (1989, cited in Omya, 1999, p:107), addressed this question even further. She indicates that all the areas of pragmatics are potential problems for learners in the L2 classroom and for members of minority groups who have a more limited proficiency in the target language. She exemplifies sources of input to which learners are exposed to: teachers, classroom and supplementary materials and other learners. In her study, she proposes different ways to maximize opportunities for the development of pragmatic knowledge using these sources of input. On the other hand, Mahan-Taylor (2003, cited in Ahmed Khalid, 2004, p:102), advocated the explicit teaching of pragmatic aspects to foreign language students in order to develop pragmatic competence in the EFL classroom. After observing a number of EFL learners, they came to the conclusion that students demonstrated a clear need for it and that the explicit teaching of pragmatics can be a successful classroom experience.

Language learners' linguistic performance is significantly different from native speakers'. Areas such as the execution and comprehension of certain speech acts, conversational functions such as "greetings" and "leave takings" and conversational management such as "back channeling" and "short responses" are particularly problematic to non-native speakers. Furthermore, without the explicit teaching of pragmatics, language learners' pragmatic competence will vary a lot regardless of their language background or language proficiency. "That is to say, a learner of high grammatical proficiency will not necessarily show equivalent pragmatic development".

From my own experience, even students at advanced levels show a wide range of pragmatic competence, especially if we compare learners who have had some experience living in the target language community and the ones who have not. The former tend to be more pragmatically aware in terms of appropriateness of linguistic forms whereas the latter tend to be more accurate in terms of grammar and less aware of cultural aspects.

### **2.1.2. Grammatical Competence**

Grammatical competence is an umbrella concept that includes increasing expertise in grammar (morphology, syntax), vocabulary, and mechanics. With regards to speaking, the term mechanics refers to basic sounds of letters and syllables, pronunciation of words, intonation, and stress" Oxford (1992, p:240). In order to convey meaning, EFL learners must have the knowledge of words and sentences; that is, they must understand how words are segmented into various sounds, and how sentences are stressed in particular ways. Thus, grammatical competence enables speakers to use and understand English language structures accurately and unhesitatingly, which contributes to their fluency.

### **2.1.3. Discourse Competence**

In addition to grammatical competence, EFL learners must develop discourse competence, which is concerned with intersentential relationships. In discourse, whether formal or informal, the rules of cohesion and coherence apply, which aid in holding the communication together in a meaningful way. In communication, both the production and comprehension of a language require one's ability to perceive and process stretches of discourse, and to formulate representations of meaning from referents in both

previous sentences and following sentences. Therefore, effective speakers should acquire a large repertoire of structures and discourse markers to express ideas, show relationships of time, and indicate cause, contrast, and emphasis Oxford (1992, p:249). With these, learners can manage turn-taking in conversation.

#### **2.1.4. Sociolinguistic Competence**

Brown (1994, p:39), argued that knowledge of language alone does not adequately prepare learners for effective and appropriate use of the target language. Learners must have competence which involves knowing what is expected socially and culturally by users of the target language; that is, learners must acquire the rules and norms governing the appropriate timing and realization of speech acts. Understanding the sociolinguistic side of language helps learners know what comments are appropriate, know how to ask questions during interaction, and know how to respond nonverbally according to the purpose of the talk. Therefore, "adult second language learners must acquire stylistic adaptability in order to be able to encode and decode the discourse around them correctly". Brown (1991, p:17)

#### **2.1.5. Strategic Competence**

Strategic competence, which is "the way learners manipulate language in order to meet communicative goals" Brown (1994, p:48), is perhaps the most important of all the communicative competence elements. Simply put, it is the ability to compensate for imperfect knowledge of linguistic, sociolinguistic, and discourse rules. With reference to speaking, strategic competence refers to the

ability to know when and how to take the floor, how to keep a conversation going, how to terminate the conversation, and how to clear up communication breakdown as well as comprehension problems.

Bachman and Palmer (1996, p:178), viewed strategic competence as a set of metacognitive strategies enumerating goal setting as one of the first salient components. Kasper (1983), cited in Ahmed, Khalid (2004, p:106), claimed that, to achieve desired communicative goal a range of devices may be drawn to convey the intended meaning or even to abandon the original meaning and resort to a simpler and more easily achieved goal. Kasper (1983, cited in Ahmed, Khalid 2004, p:109), the devices mean are communication strategies, the term which was first used by Selinker (1972, p:49), who attempted to account for how the learner makes use of existing knowledge to cope with communication difficulties as well as explains the source of errors made by foreign language learners. While generally agreeing that communication strategies emerge from the failure to realize a language production goal, and asserted that communication strategies may entail a "psycholinguistic" solution to the communication problem instead of the one which relies upon the negotiation of meaning. According to Ahmed, Khalid (2004, p:115), production strategies are used to accomplish communication goals; they reflect an interest in using the language system efficiently and clearly without excessive effort which can be exemplified by the use of prefabricated patterns and discourse planning. Communication strategies are an adaptation to the failure to realize a language production goal. They therefore serve an important role in negotiating meaning between individuals. In this chapter we will present communication strategies as observable devices which facilitate achieving the desired goal of communication and realize execution component.

Factors determining the choice of strategies:

Potential factors determining the choice of strategies are suggested by Bialystok include: the proficiency of the learner, features of communicative situation, and the nature of the task. The first factor **Bailey**,. (2002, p:70), expected to predict the choice of specific communication strategy is the proficiency level of the speaker. As strategies make different linguistic demands some may be too sophisticated for less advanced language learners. Bialy (2002, p:86), reviewed the studies attempting to look at the relation between L2 proficiency and strategy choice, but the results are either mixed or inconclusive. In her study, Bialy, tested the hypothesis that there is the relation between proficiency and strategy selection by examining 17-year-old students in French as a second language class. The results showed that the advanced students used proportionally more L2-based strategies than the regular students who relied more on L1-based strategies but the explanation for the differences may be the tendency to compliance because successful students are those who follow the rules at school and the rule is not to speak their mother tongue during the classes. Nevertheless, the difference evidenced in the selection of an L1- or L2-based strategy is entirely reasonable since the L2-based strategies place considerably greater demands upon the linguistic resources of the speaker. The other study Bialystok takes into consideration is the detailed taxonomy developed by Paribakht (1985, cited in Baily,2002, p:90), which allowed her to examine precise relationship between speaker proficiency and strategy choice. In her study (2002), native speakers of Persian, who were advanced or intermediate learners of English, and native speakers of English completed a set of communication tasks. There were some

differences between the groups but no consistent pattern appeared. The most salient factor for us is the proficiency of the learner and the nature of the task which in our case will be to develop speaking fluently through strategic competence. In our study we will attempt to determine what communication strategies are applied by Sudanese University instructors in appoint of matching or mismatching to students learning styles to determining the goal of communication in real situations.

## **2.2. The Effect of Competences on Teaching Performance**

### **2.2.1. Perform Speech Acts**

Numerous studies have recognized that the ability of learners to use appropriate speech acts in a given speech event and to select appropriate linguistic forms to realize this speech act is a major component of pragmatic competence. As early as 1979, linguists asserted that "pragmatics is the study of speech acts", arguing that L2 learner pragmatic ability is reflected in how learners produce utterances to communicate "specific intentions", and conversely, how they interpret the intentions which these utterances convey. Fraser (1983, p:98), also described pragmatic competence as the knowledge of how an addressee determines what a speaker is saying and recognizes intended illocutionary force conveyed through subtle "attitudes" in the speaker's utterance. Among empirical studies of speech act behavior, Cohen (1997, p:50), listed studies of the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) as the most comprehensive studies, both in depth and breadth.

### **2.2.2. Interpret Non-literal Meanings**

Grice (1975, p:210) distinguished between sentence meaning which refers to the propositional meaning of an utterance, and speaker meaning which refers to the indirectly conveyed meaning beyond the surface-level linguistic forms of an utterance. From this perspective, pragmatic competence is concerned with the ability to bridge the gap between sentence meaning and speaker meaning in order to interpret the indirectly expressed communicative intention. The process by which interlocutors arrive at speaker meaning involves inference, which is guided by a set of rational and universal principles that all participants are expected to observe for successful communication, namely, the Cooperative Principle. According to Carrell (1982, cited in Fraser 1983, p:137), "one aspect of pragmatic competence in an L2 is the ability to draw correct inferences". Fraser (1983, p:120), also included the ability to interpret figurative language as part of pragmatics because utterances that are overt and deliberate violations of the conversational maxims (for example, the future is now as a violation of the maxim Quality, I wasn't born yesterday as a violation of Quantity) require the ability to recognize and interpret conversational discussion.

### **2.2.3. Perform Politeness Functions**

Brown and Levinson (1992, p:219), universal principles for linguistic politeness based on a social rationale. As Fraser (1983, p:140), noted, indirectness increases the degree of optionality and negotiability on the part of hearer and thereby reduces the imposition on the hearer. However, as a number of cross-cultural pragmatic studies on politeness point out, the application of this principle

differs systematically across cultures and languages. Greek social norms, for example, require a much higher level of indirectness in social interaction than American ones, while Israeli norms generally allow even more directness than American ones (Kulka, 1982, p:90). Similarly, House and Kasper (1981, p:17), observed that German speakers generally selected more direct politeness than Americans when requesting and complaining.

#### **2.2.4. Perform Discourse Functions**

Most of the time, achievement of communicative intent in naturally occurring conversation requires a number of turns at talk between two interlocutors. Accordingly, as Kulka (1997, p:111), pointed out, "a full pragmatic account would need to consider the various linguistic and paralinguistic signals by which both participants encode and interpret each other's utterances". Kasper (1981, p:23), also extended the notion of speech act to apply to a sequence of utterances constituting a stretch of discourse, that is, the "macro speech act". In addition to what he said, speech act performance is often jointly accomplished throughout the whole discourse through a sequencing of implicit illocutionary acts rather than any explicit expression of the communicative intent. For this reason, Nunan (1999, p:214), the concern that learners need to be aware of discourse differences between their L1 and the L2 in order to acquire pragmatic competence. At the observable behavioral level, what should L2 learners acquire in order to communicate their intentions successfully in discourse? It seems that two types of discourse management ability are at work: (a) the ability to interpret and fill the discourse slot as L2

conversational norms dictate and (b) the ability to recognize and produce discourse markers correctly in terms of their pragmatic functions.

Some researchers focus on the ability to smoothly enter into and end discourse. Literature on conversational analysis has demonstrated that conversation closing is accomplished mostly in conventional ways. It should be noted, however, that for smooth day-to-day, face-to-face interactions these, routines also carry cultural meanings, expressing cultural appropriateness and tacit agreements. Thus, the appropriate use of routines clearly plays an important role in L2 pragmatic ability.

### **2.2.5. Use Cultural Knowledge**

In this context, Blum-Kulka (1990, p:123), proposed a model of general pragmatic knowledge (GP)" where an L2 learner's GP for a speech act is organized as schema containing the L2 linguistic forms used for the speech act. This schema, in turn, is governed by a L2 "cultural filter" which decides the situational appropriateness of the L2 linguistic forms. Consonant with Kulka, advocates a solid connection between culturally bound schema, a specific situation, and an utterance appropriate to that situation: If L2 learners acquire L2 cultural knowledge about archetypal structures of speech events, they will not only be able to better understand a given speech event in general, but effectively participate in that given speech event using appropriate speech acts. In order to acquire L2 cultural knowledge, however, a more precise and conceivable description of L2 cultural rules of behavior is necessary. Responding to this call, Kulka (1994, p:136), proposed the notion of "cultural script", a specific type of schema, in order for learners to understand "a society's ways of speaking". Cultural scripts capture

characteristic L2 cultural beliefs and values, but avoid ethnocentric bias by using culture-independent terms. Goddard, (1997, cited in Omya, 1999, p:118), for instance, in a situation where an American's car brushed against a Japanese child who had run into the street, the American may not understand why his Japanese counterpart would be upset and expect an apology when the American was not at fault. This is because he has not yet learnt the Japanese cultural grammar if something bad happens to someone because I did something, I have to say something like this to this person: "I feel something bad" Wierzbicka, (1994, p:145), Japanese culture is often mistakenly characterized by the tendency to apologize too frequently.

However, the above cultural script accurately captures the Japanese norm that seeks harmony among the social members, without relying on the English speech act verb apologize which becomes a source of the stereotyping. As another example, Ranney (1992, p:13), observed that in medical consultation with L2 speakers, Hmong learners of English referred to their misunderstandings during speech acts such as asking questions, giving information, showing approval, or giving advice. Thus, acquiring accurate L2 cultural scripts can prevent pragmatic failure, as well as being a useful guide for acquiring L2 culture without potential stereotyping. While the other aspects of pragmatic competence discussed in previous sections are undoubtedly important, they can only be put to use if one has acquired the broader background of cultural knowledge.

The four aspects of competence that have been discussed so far considerably overlap with each other. In other words, they do not operate independently but interact with each other in complicated and

yet systematic ways that govern learner linguistic behavior. More importantly, specific L2 culture-bound knowledge has been discussed as a deciding factor that underlies different aspects of pragmatic ability. This places culture at the heart of L2 pragmatic competence. Jan (2002, p:18), considering that culture regulates all language use and that every conversational exchange between a learner and a non-speaker of a language is a form of intercultural encounter (Richards & Sukwiwat, 1983), second language acquisition is indeed "second culture acquisition" Robin & Nocon, (2003, p:31). Although some traditional pedagogies assume L2 culture learning to be a natural consequence of L2 language learning (as it is in L1 acquisition), others consider culture to be an outcome of conscious learning. It is simplistic, however, to state that culture is important and must be learned: Cultural beliefs are subconscious systems and, therefore, it is difficult to make them explicit. The interdisciplinary nature of pragmatic competence calls forth a need to acquire pragmatic knowledge in a holistic context, encompassing all the discrete components of pragmatic ability, including discourse management ability and, most importantly, culture.

### **2.3. Techniques to Develop Competence in the Speaking Skill**

In communicative output, Ellis (1984, p:90), noted that the learners' main purpose is to complete a task, such as obtaining information, developing a travel plan, or creating a video. To complete the task, they may use the language that the instructor has just presented, but they also may draw on any other vocabulary, grammar, and communication strategies that they know. In communicative output activities, the criterion of success is whether the learner gets the message across. Accuracy is not a consideration

unless the lack of it interferes with the message. In everyday communication, spoken exchanges take place because there is some sort of information gap between the participants. Communicative output activities involve a similar real information gap. In order to complete the task, students must reduce or eliminate the information gap. In these activities, language is a tool, not an end in itself. In a balanced activities approach, the teacher uses a variety of activities from these different categories of input and output. Learners at all proficiency levels, including beginners, benefit from this variety; it is more motivating, and it is also more likely to result in effective language learning. Students often think that the ability to speak a language is the product of language learning, but speaking is also a crucial part of the language learning process. Effective instructors teach students speaking strategies using minimal responses, recognizing scripts, and using language to talk about language which they can use to help themselves expand their knowledge of the language and their confidence in using it. These instructors' help students learn to speak so that the students can use speaking to learn.

### **2.3.1. Using Minimal Responses**

Language learners who lack confidence in their ability to participate successfully in oral interaction often listen in silence while others do the talking. One way to encourage such learners to begin to participate is to help them build up a stock of minimal responses that they can use in different types of exchanges. Such responses can be especially useful for beginners. Minimal responses are predictable, often idiomatic phrases that conversation participants use to indicate understanding, agreement, doubt, and other responses to what another speaker is saying. Having a stock of such

responses enables a learner to focus on what the other participant is saying, without having to simultaneously plan a response.

### **2.3.2. Strategy of Recognizing Scripts**

Some communication situations are associated with a predictable set of spoken exchanges a script. Greetings, apologies, compliments, invitations, and other functions that are influenced by social and cultural norms often follow patterns or scripts.

So do the transactional exchanges involved in activities such as obtaining information and making a purchase. In these scripts, the relationship between a speaker's turn and the one that follows it can often be anticipated. Instructors can help students develop speaking ability by making them aware of the scripts for different situations so that they can predict what they will hear and what they will need to say in response. Through interactive activities, instructors can give students practice in managing and varying the language that different scripts contain.

### **2.3.3. Using Language to Talk about Language**

Language learners are often too embarrassed or shy to say anything when they do not understand another speaker or when they realize that a conversation partner has not understood them. Instructors can help students overcome this reticence by assuring them that misunderstanding and the need for clarification can occur in any type of interaction, whatever the participants' language skill levels. Instructors can also give students strategies and phrases to use for clarification and comprehension check.

By encouraging students to use clarification phrases in class when misunderstanding occurs and by responding positively when they do, instructors can create an authentic practice environment within the classroom itself. As they develop control of various clarification strategies, students will gain confidence in their ability to manage the various communication situations that they may encounter outside the classroom.

Other strategies are considered as an art of the speaking skill according to Bygate (1988, p:111), who noted that "when one speaks in front of an audience there are certain conditions which are unique to this particular situation and which affect how one prepares oneself and how one formulates one's speech". Making a speech does not mean picking up one's thesis and reading it - if you did, it would be asking a lot of the audience to stay with you and stay awake! The difference between expressing yourself in speech and expressing yourself in text, relates mainly to the fact that our memory functions differently when we read than to when we listen. Conditions vary.

When we listen to someone who is explaining something or giving a speech, we listen to an acoustic signal. If that signal is not strong enough it can result in us not comprehending all that is being said. Talking too quickly or too slowly can also affect how the content is understood. In other words, an oral presentation makes totally different demands on disposition; clarity and coherence, as the limitations imposed by the time and the place mean that the audience cannot influence their own understanding in the same way as by reading.

### **2.3.4. Preparation**

The preparations prior to an oral presentation do not differ greatly from the preparations prior to a written project. Just as when one prepares a text, one considers the mode of communication, who says what to whom, why, when, where and how. In addition one needs to organize one's time and check out the venue in which one is going to speak.

### **2.3.5. Sender and the Receiver**

When one prepares an oral presentation, it is most often the public one has to try to identify. Who will be seated in the audience, what will they have in the way of existing knowledge, what level of language can the speaker use? These are important questions which require answers if the speech is to be successful. If on the one hand one proffers material and a linguistic level that is above the public's comprehension, the point will be lost, on the other hand deliver one's message in a way that is over simplified in relation to the public's existing knowledge, the speaker risks trivializing their message and underrating their public. In other words one must ask oneself whether the public is made up of novices or experts. One should also ask oneself if they are already interested in the subject or whether one must win them over. The sender's role also needs to be analyzed. In what capacity is the speaker there? In short, everyone has more than one role: each person is somebody's child, partner, sibling, friend, classmate, and neighbor. Perhaps one is also an expert in certain things and a novice in others. Those who are

going to speak in public must decide which role they are going to play, and how that role relates to the public.

### **2.3.6. Organizing Material and Time**

There are a series of different outline principles for both speaking and writing. If one writes an essay, there is, as a rule, a strict disposition one must adhere to – such is presented in this booklet. There are also of course recommendations of different kinds for oral speech.

### **2.3.7. Student–centered Learning**

O’Neill and McMahon (2010, p:11), described two broad orientations in teaching: the teacher centered/content oriented conception and the student centered/learning oriented conceptions.

In a very useful breakdown of these orientations he supports many other authors views in relation to student–centered view including: that knowledge is constructed by students and that the lecturer is a facilitator of learning rather than a presenter of information. Krashen (2010, p:56), identified the important precondition for student–centered learning as the need for: a leader or person who is perceived as an authority figure in the situation, is sufficiently secure within herself (himself) and in her (his) relationship to others that she (he) experiences an essential trust in the capacity of others to think for themselves, to learn for themselves’. Choice in the area of the learning is emphasized by Burnard, as he interprets Krashen’ ideas of student–centeredness as ‘students might not only choose what to study, but how and why that topic might be an interesting one to study.

He also emphasizes Krashen' believed that students' perceptions of the world were important, that they were relevant and appropriate. This definition therefore emphasizes the concept of students having 'choice' in their learning. Cook (1993, p:100), described teacher-centered learning strategies as the focus on the teacher transmitting knowledge, from the expert to the novice. In contrast, they describe student-centered learning as focusing on the students' learning and 'what students do to achieve this, rather than what the teacher does'. This definition emphasizes the concept of the student 'doing'. Other authors articulate broader, more comprehensive definitions summarize some of the literature on student-centered learning to include the followings tenets:

1. 'the reliance on active rather than passive learning,
2. an emphasis on deep learning and understanding,
3. increased responsibility and accountability on the part of the student,
4. an increased sense of autonomy in the learner
5. an interdependence between teacher and learner,
6. mutual respect within the learner teacher relationship,
7. and a reflexive approach to the teaching and learning process on the part of both teacher and learner. O'Neill and McMahon (2010,p:26)

Gibbs (1995, cited in Cook ,1993, p:118), drew on similar concepts when he describes student-centered courses as those that emphasize: learner activity rather than passivity; students' experience on the course outside the institution and prior to the course; process and competence, rather than content; where the key decisions about learning are made by the student through negotiation with the teacher. Gibbs elaborates in more detail on these key decisions to include: 'What is to be learnt, how and when it is to be learnt, with what outcome, what criteria and standards are to be used, how the judgments are made and by whom these judgments are made. In a similar view in earlier literature, the student- teacher relationship is particularly elaborated upon by Brandes and Ginnis (1986, p:204). In their book 'Guide to Student-Centered Learning', they present the main principles of student-centered learning as:

- The learner has full responsibility for her/his learning
- Involvement and participation are necessary for learning
- The relationship between learners is more equal, promoting growth, development
- The teacher becomes a facilitator and resource person
- The learner experiences confluence in his education (affective and cognitive domains flow together)

How Can You Implement Student-centered Learning? Learning is often presented in this dualism of either student-centered learning or teacher-centered learning. In the reality of practice the situation is less black and white. A more useful presentation of student-centered learning is to see these terms as

either end of a continuum, using the three concepts regularly used to describe student-centered learning (See Table 2.1).

Teacher-centered learning		Student-centered learning	
1	Low level of student choice	1	High level of student choice
2	Student passive	2	Student active
3	Power is primarily with teacher	3	Power is strong with student

**Table 2.1: Students Centered Learning (Ginnis 1986)**

In examining how you might look at this in practice, it is worth thinking how far up the continuum you are able to move within the contextual barriers in your teaching situation. The next sections presents some ideas for your practice to aid you in making that progression. Ginnis, (1986, p:119), asserted the following points in students centered learning:

- It is an approach to teaching that focuses on student learning rather than on what the teacher is doing.
- Changes the focus from what the teacher does to student learning.
- Learning centered teaching is not one specific teaching method
- Many different instructional methods can use a learning centered approach

Research shows that learning centered teaching leads to:

- Increased student engagement with the content
- Increased student learning and long term retention
- Educators are under increasing pressure to use learning centered teaching

The Role of the Teacher is to create an environment that:

- fosters students learning,
- accommodates different learning styles,
- motivates students to accept responsibility for learning.

## **2.4. Factors Affecting the Speaking Skill**

Speaking has many different aspects. One of the important aspects is fluency. It can be thought of as “the ability to keep going when speaking spontaneously” When speaking fluently students should be able to get the message across with whatever resources and ability they've got, regardless of grammatical and other mistakes Ellis (2000, p:66). It's not always easy to speak fluently in a foreign language. This may be because you're nervous about speaking or because of other psychological factors. You can help yourself to sound fluently and in control if you build up your confidence by learning how to use techniques which give you time to think. Getting students to have a free discussion gives them a chance to rehearse having discussions outside the classroom. Good speaking activities can and should be

highly motivating. Harmer (2001, p:149). According to the researcher, to become a fluent English speaker, the students must study and master listening and speaking. Therefore, the more they practice both skills, the more they will be able to improve their speaking skills.

The speaking skill are an important part of the curriculum in language teaching, and this makes them an important object of assessment as well. There are so many factors that influence our impression of how well someone can speak a language (Luoma 2011, p:10).Speaking is generally discouraged in classrooms and schools. Speeches in class are used only when EFL learners are called upon to repeat or answer a question. Silence is one of the characteristics of the English language classroom. Learners are active listeners but passive speakers. As a result, oral production of the target language is almost absent in English classes Abu-Ghararah, (2005, p:88). According to Cameron (2011, p:222), Learners of a foreign language will learn to interact conversationally with an increasing range of people, in different situations, with different goals and of different topics, moving from the familiar settings of home, family and classroom to situations in the wider world.

Abu-Ghararah (2005, p:93), stated that, a great attention should be given to speech production. The importance of oral expression should be recognized. Learners should be engaged in a rich environment to stimulate speaking. They should share ideas, exchange thoughts and converse in the English language.

According to Abu-Ghararah (2005, p:99), the EFL teacher should create a positive and relaxed atmosphere for verbal communication. The classroom filter should be of low anxiety. It should be

friendly, sympathetic and comfortable. The learners should feel that they are accepted by others when they speak. They will feel more self-esteem and self-confident to do better in second language learning. The teacher's positive attitude towards students affects their speaking performance and oral interaction.

In the teaching of English, as one of the productive skills, speaking activity must focus on how to assist students to use and to communicate in English. Richard, (2008, p:119). This is important as Richard further says that most students often evaluate their success in language learning as well as the effectiveness of their English course on the bases of how much they feel they have improved in their speaking proficiency. In this sense, teachers have to give more opportunities to their students to express themselves by providing them with speaking activities that enable them to speak English Brown, (2001,p:70). Regarding this, it has been found in the literature that some psychological factors such as anxiety and shyness are considered as the main causes of students' reluctance to speak. This is also in line with Ellis, (2001,p:70), who said that, the students' problem in speaking is caused mostly by their shyness or anxiety. All is indicate the importance for teachers to help students reduce those feelings to maximize their learning to speak in English. Therefore, the aim of this study is to state the psychological factors affecting speaking English among Sudanese learners so as to improve the learners speaking skills. Regarding this, it is hypothesized that the main psychological factors hinder students when speaking or learning a foreign language are motivation, anxiety, self-confidence, aptitude, shyness and fear of mistakes. All these psychological factors are interrelated.

### **2.4.1. Input, Transfer and Generalization**

We began by distinguishing two major approaches to second language acquisition. The strong nativist approach emphasizes the role of “Universal-Grammar” in both first and second language development. The strong empiricist approach emphasizes the role of input in both first and second language learning and the role of transfer and generalization in second language learning. We have explored, in some detail, the ways in which one can develop a theoretically consistent empiricist approach that matches well with the available empirical data on second language learning. This approach makes a commitment to four major theoretical positions.

First, it views language structure in terms of functional relations that are expressed in lexical constructions. Second, it views processing as arising in motivation. Third, it views learning as driven by cue validity characteristics of the input. Fourth, it understands capacity limitations in terms of the connections between lexical structures that occur during the process of conceptual structure building.

The wise reader will take these arguments for an empiricist position with a healthy grain of salt. We all know that the most reasonable and tenable positions on major issues, such as nativism versus empiricism, inevitably rest somewhere in the middle between the two extremes. However, it is often helpful to view the competing positions in their most undiluted form, so that we can navigate between these alternatives, coming always a bit closer to the truth.

## 2.4.2. Standard Language and Dialect

Krashen, (2009, p:60), noted that "people learn to speak a second (or third or fourth) language are directly related to the first language acquisition" Harmer, (2002, p:119), indicated that "the first language (L1) transfers, fossilization, mechanisms of knowledge processing and acquisition to the second language (L2)". If that is true Sudan is one of the countries of multi linguistics environment it formulate of different spoken languages beside Arabic by its widespread as Sudanese standard language. However, we find students from different linguistics environment in the same learning classroom, most of them their native language is not Arabic. In other words, (they speak broken Arabic language) so the acquisition of English as a second language would be complex and the output of this variety actually comes different in fluently. Krashen, (2009,p:69), states that, when a dialect comes into power as a standard, its status is usually reinforced by its widespread use in three major arenas:

1. In written media, such as newspapers, magazines, and books.
2. In oral broadcast media, such as radio and television.
3. In academic settings in both oral and written forms.

On the one hand, this status has been achieved by Sudanese Arabic language which is not the same as the English Language in Tanzania and the French Language in Algeria in which English and French domain local Tanzanian and Algerian languages and it is the same in other African countries. On the other hand, the power of the spoken Arabic language affect in speaking English among Sudanese

speakers of English as a foreign language. The standard language becomes an instrument of power for those who use it in Sudan. At the same time, facility in the standard language may offer access to broader social, economic, and political opportunities. For these reasons, fluency in the standard Arabic language is an important educational goal. Optimally, students will maintain fluency in the home language as well, keeping communication lines open with family, friends, and community. The Sudanese standard language is Arabic, English used in small circle among the students as medium of communication. If the students maintain fluency from home language like Arabic the status of English language in Sudan is so different the reason which lead us to develop speaking English Language fluency through the matching of teaching and learning styles. However, in everyday usage, it often carries a negative, pejorative connotation. Judgments are made about people based on how they speak.

The Sudanese speakers of the English Language using bad grammar and lazy pronunciation when in fact the second language they are using consists of fully developed linguistic communication system. The fact is that each of us speaks a particular variety or dialect of the language we are born into, for example, more of sixty percent of Sudanese have other native languages not Arabic and all language varieties are legitimate and equal as communication systems. The social and political reality, however, is that certain dialects carry more prestige and power than others as we speak about the status of the Arabic Language. The ability to use Standard English may offer access to economic, social, and political opportunities, which are otherwise denied. For these reasons, we want all students to develop fluency in Standard English, adding to the home language rather than replacing it. In other words, to develop

fluency we need to enhance motivation and authenticity in a real situation through matching students learning with teaching styles similar to their first language acquisition (Arabic).

Making judgments about students' grammar and usage tends to be second nature for many of us. At the same time, we search the ways which make the Sudanese speakers of the English language use English as a second language to be able to use it in different situations in communication despite the bad usage of grammar. However, it is crucial not to slip into negative, stereotypical judgments based on students' language (grammar). This is where ongoing self-reflection and self-awareness are essential. Finally, we must recognize the validity and importance of diverse community languages and language varieties. When students sense that you as the teacher truly recognize and value their home language and culture, they are more likely to feel positive about school and learning. At the same time, you build students' senses of identity and self-worth while creating the effective foundation for students' academic success. Because you as a teacher may represents the new language and culture, your positive attitude may also help students identify more positively with their new language and culture as well. The matching of teaching styles and learning styles give learners confidence in linking the second language with their culture this matching offer a real desire in using the language effectively in communication.

Ellis, (1984. p:143), argues "language shares certain basic characteristics. This makes a fundamental point that in order to better comprehend language teaching, one needs to know more about teachers language: "what they do, how they think, what they know, and how they teach. "Specifically, they need to comprehend more about how teacher's language conceive of what they do": what they know

about language teaching, how they think about their classroom, and how that knowledge and those thinking processes are learned through formal teacher education and informal experience on the job".

### **2.4.3. Language Learning**

Cook (1993, p:78), referred both to the study of individuals and groups who are learning a language subsequent to learning their first one as young children, and the process of learning that language. The additional language is called L2. Troike (2008, p:20), argued that, the scope of second language learning includes informal L2 learning that takes place in naturalistic contexts, formal L2 learning that takes place in classrooms, and L2 learning that involves a mixture of these settings and circumstances. For example, "informal learning" happens when a child from Japan is brought to the US and "picks up" English in the course of playing and attending school with native English-speaking children without any specialized language instruction, or when an adult Guatemalan immigrant in Canada learns English as a result of interacting with native English speakers or with co-workers who speak English as a second language. "Formal learning" occurs when a high school student in England takes a class in French, when an undergraduate student in Russia takes a course in Arabic, or when an attorney in Colombia takes a night class in English. A combination of formal and informal learning takes place when a student from the USA takes Chinese language classes in Taipei or Beijing while also using Chinese outside of class for social interaction and daily living experiences, or when an adult immigrant from Ethiopia in Israel learns Hebrew both from attending special classes and from interacting with co-workers and other residents in Hebrew.

In trying to understand the process of second language acquisition, we are seeking to answer two basic questions:

- 1- To what extent do students learning styles preferences are considered by university instructors?
- 2- Do the Sudanese university teachers use different styles inside the classroom?

There are no simple answers to these questions – in fact, there are probably no answers that all second language researchers would agree on completely. In this part, SLA is highly complex in nature, because scholars studying SLA come from academic disciplines which differ greatly in theory and research methods. The multidisciplinary approach to studying SLA phenomena which has developed within the last half-century has yielded important insights, but many tantalizing mysteries remain. New findings are appearing every day, making this an exciting period to be studying the subject. The continuing search for answers is not only shedding light on SLA in its own right, but is illuminating related fields. Furthermore, exploring answers to these questions is of potentially great practical value to anyone who learns or teaches additional languages.

The discussion above guides us to the fact that the Sudanese learners who learn English as a second language classified in the part of formal second language learning in schools, universities, and higher institutes. In other words, English language in Sudan, is only spoken by people who go to schools, but uneducated people are not able to use English, Whereas Krashen, however, assumed that other ways of describing acquisition include implicit learning, informal learning, and natural learning. In non-technical language, acquisition is "picking-up" a language.

The second way to develop competence in a second language is by language learning. We will use the term "learning" henceforth to refer to conscious knowledge of a second language, knowing the rules, being aware of them, and being able to talk about them. In non-technical terms, learning "knows about" a language, known to most people as "grammar", or "rules". Some synonyms include formal knowledge of a language, or explicit learning. Some second language theorists have assumed that children acquire, while adults can only learn. So, during this thesis we focus on formal learning of English language as a foreign language.

#### **2.4.4. Communication**

Many language learners regard speaking ability as the measure of knowing a language. These learners define fluency as the ability to converse with others, much more than the ability to read, write, or comprehend oral language. They regard speaking as the most important skill they can acquire, and they assess their progress in terms of their accomplishments in spoken communication.

Language learners need to recognize that speaking involves three areas of knowledge:

1. Mechanics (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary): Using the right words in the right order with the correct pronunciation.
2. Functions (transaction and interaction): Knowing when clarity of message is essential (transaction/information exchange) and when precise understanding is not required (interaction/relationship building).

3. Social and cultural rules and norms (turn-taking, rate of speech, length of pauses between speakers, relative roles of participants): Understanding how to take into account who is speaking to whom.

In the communicative model of language teaching, instructors help their students develop this body of knowledge by providing authentic practice that prepares students for real-life communication situations. They help their students develop the ability to produce grammatically correct, logically connected sentences that are appropriate to specific contexts, and to do so using acceptable (that is, comprehensible) pronunciation.

#### **2.4.5. Age**

According to the information cited in this research which describes the age of Sudanese learners of English Language as a second language, teaching English in Sudan starts at the fifth level of primary school and continues until the third class of secondary school level with an average of about four instruction hours per week. However, for a long time now, most of the university entrances, who have been studying English for about seven years, are unable to communicate in English and their level of proficiency is far below the expected level. It has been popularly assumed that age itself is a predictor of second language proficiency. Krashen (1979, p: 70), noted that, younger acquirers are better at second language acquisition than older acquirers. If we put in our minds the evidence that younger acquire the language better than older. According to our study, this evidence may become invalid, however, that age is not in itself a predictor of second language rate or attainment, and that here, too everything reduces

down to the quantity of comprehensible input and the level of the affective filter that matched similar to students preferences. Krashen, (1979, p:198), reviewed the available empirical research on the effect of age and second language acquisition and concluded that all published studies were consistent with these three generalization:

1. Adults proceed through the early stages of second language development faster than children do (where time and exposure are held constant).
2. Older children acquire faster than younger children, time and exposure held constant.
3. Acquirers who begin natural exposure to second languages during childhood generally achieve higher second language proficiency than those beginning as adults.

Thus, it is not simply the case that "younger is better": children are superior to adults only in the long run. The explanations for these observed differences that seem most plausible to me involve input by the meaning of teaching the English language in the classroom, the methods and procedures held by teachers, is it suitable to students ages? or not. To answer to this question things becomes clear. We observe that there is a clear weakness among Sudanese students even the older or younger children. The researcher think that there is clear adequate in teaching performance and the level or strength of the affective filter. First, let us consider the older acquirer's rate superiority (generalizations (1) and (2) above). Scarcella and Higa (forthcoming) found that younger acquirers actually received "simpler" input in a block building task, a result that confirms observations made by Wagner-Gough and Hatch (1975,

p:177), and that seems to predict greater speed for younger, and not older acquirers. Scarcella and Higa noted that the older acquirers (adolescents) were better able to regulate both the quantity and quality of their input. They were better at encouraging speech and at getting the native speaker to modify it for greater comprehensibility. They could, for example, ask for help, change the topic, and direct the conversation better. They had, in other words, more "conversational competence". Thus, despite the simpler input directed at the younger children, it is likely that older acquirers actually get more comprehended input, and this may be a key factor in their faster initial progress. There may be other reasons for the older acquirers' superiority in rate of acquisition. Adults have means of producing language earlier, of "beating the Silent Period", means that have nothing to do with natural language acquisition but that may nevertheless help them participate in conversation and hence obtain comprehensible input. In spite of the bad input that shown clearly due to the teachers questionnaires that introduced to university teachers, there are adequate in using activities to develop speaking skills. In other words they are no simpler input prepared suitable to students preferences. In one hand the language of teaching is more difficult when compared with the level of students. In other hand teachers not put in their mind the preferred learning styles of their students.

## 2.4.6. Aptitude

Aptitude is not a very much research, because it is something Teachers are powerless to alter. It consists of four sub-components according to Carroll, (1991, p:84).

1. phonetic coding ability (capacity for sound discrimination and to code foreign sounds in such a way that they can be later recalled) it varies between individuals, but this variation does not correlate with language learning success.
2. Associative memory (ability to make links or connections between stimuli and responses, for example native language words and foreign language equivalents, and to develop the strength of such bonds). Nowadays associative memory is not so important, and the capacity to memorize more auditory complex material and the capacity to impose organization and structure on the material are more powerful predictors of learning success
3. Grammatical sensitivity (ability to understand the contribution that words make in sentences. It emphasizes recognition of function, rather than explicit representation)
4. Inductive language analytic ability (ability to examine a corpus of language material and from this to notice and identify patterns of correspondence and relationships. Ability to identify pattern, particularly in verbal material, whether this involves implicit or explicit rule representation)

Three sub-components according to Carroll, (1991, p:89) are as follows:

- a. auditory ability
- b. linguistic ability
- c. memory ability

a) Phonemic coding ability: it's important at beginning levels of language learning: converting acoustic input into what might be termed process able input, failure in this area may mean no input to deal with. The more phonemic coding abilities succeed with the acoustic stimulus that the learner is presented with, the richer the corpus of material that will be available for subsequent analysis.

b) Language analytic ability Central stage of information processing: capacity to infer rules of language and make linguistic generalizations or extrapolations. Here it is where rules develop and restructuring occurs.

c) Memory Concerned with acquisition of new information, with retrieval, and with the way the elements are stored, probably redundantly and formulaically. This component correlates strongly with language learning success.

### **2.4.7. Motivation**

Gardner 1987, (cited in Albusairy, 1990, p:79) says "Motivation is a need or desire that energizes behavior and directs it towards a goal". What is the difference between a need and a desire?

Extrinsic motivation is something outside the person that energizes behavior.( Money, fame, power)

Intrinsic motivation is something within the person that energizes behavior. (Interest, curiosity, personal challenge and improvement)

Everyone has a different notion of motivation. It's one of those terms, like freedom, that has as many meanings as there are people using the word. And yet, we must have some common understanding of what it is to make sure we understand each other. Here are some definitions that fit into the concept of motivation. Wierzbicka, A. (1985, p:26). said "Motivation is the activation or energization of goal-oriented behavior". Motivation is the inner power or energy that pushes one toward performing a certain action. Motivation strengthens the ambition, increases initiative and gives direction, courage, energy and the persistence to follow one's goals.

Motivation is usually strong, when one has a vision, a clear mental image of a certain situation or achievement, faith in one's abilities and also a strong desire to materialize it. In this case motivation pushes one forward, toward taking action and making the vision a reality. Motivation, in its broadest sense, can be defined as forces acting either on or within a person to initiate behavior. It's what gets you going in the context of what potentially makes you truly enjoy your job.

## **Conclusion**

Developing oral competence should be a required need in developing the students' speaking. In the previous literature, we found that teachers do not enhance students' motivation to learn through competences. The development of these competences in teaching English as foreign language leads to a good students' performance, especially in the speaking skill. Teachers should be provided with the most suitable techniques in order to develop competence through effective classrooms' interaction. Many language learners regard the speaking ability as the measure of knowing a language. These learners define fluency as the ability to converse with others, much more than the ability to read, write, or comprehend oral language. They regard speaking as the most important skill they can acquire, and they assess their progress in terms of their accomplishments in spoken communication.

## ***Chapter Three: Teaching and Learning Styles***

### *Introduction*

<b>3.1.</b>	<b><i>Teaching Styles</i></b>	<b>94</b>
<b>3.1.1.</b>	<b><i>Definition of Teaching Styles</i></b>	<b>94</b>
<b>3.1.2.</b>	<b><i>Grasha Teaching Styles (1996)</i></b>	<b>96</b>
<b>3.2.</b>	<b><i>Learning Styles</i></b>	<b>98</b>
<b>3.2.1.</b>	<b><i>Definition of Learning Styles</i></b>	<b>99</b>
<b>3.2.2.</b>	<b><i>Types of Learners</i></b>	<b>103</b>
<b>3.2.2.1.</b>	<b><i>Types of Learning Styles</i></b>	<b>107</b>
<b>3.2.2.2.</b>	<b><i>Filder and Silverman's Learning Styles (1988)</i></b>	<b>109</b>
<b>3.3.</b>	<b><i>Matching Teaching and Learning Styles</i></b>	<b>112</b>
<b>3.3.1.</b>	<b><i>Teaching and Learning Preferences</i></b>	<b>114</b>
<b>3.3.2.</b>	<b><i>Learning Disability or Misunderstood Learning Styles</i></b>	<b>116</b>
<b>3.3.3.</b>	<b><i>Match or Mismatch between Learning and Teaching Styles</i></b>	<b>117</b>
<b>3.3.4.</b>	<b><i>Contrast between Learning Preferences and Teaching Styles</i></b>	<b>122</b>

### *Conclusion*

## **Introduction**

Students have different ways, "learning styles", to learn such as seeing, listening, reflecting, acting, reasoning logically and intuitively. Teachers also have various "teaching styles". Some deliver lectures, others demonstrate, explain or discuss; some focus on conventions and others on examples; some focus on memory and others on understanding. Students perform and respond differently to the lesson's content, and the extent to which a particular learner learns is controlled, in some way, by the matching of his/her distinctive method to learning and the teacher's distinctive method of teaching. It is claimed that serious incompatibility may appear between the teaching styles, and the learning styles in a classroom, which may cause a disappointment with the lesson, demotivation and underperformance.

The benefits of teaching performance is to categorize learners into groups similar to their learning preferences. The suggestion is that teachers must use different methods in the same classroom lecture. These procedures make learning testable and interesting. Mismatches often occur between the learning styles of students in a language class and the teaching styles of the instructors, with effects on the quality of the students' learning and their attitudes toward the subject.

## 3.1. Teaching Styles

### 3.1.1. Definition of Teaching Styles

Students learn in a variety of learning styles such as: seeing, hearing, memorizing, rereading, taking notes, visualizing, and reasoning among many others. How do these ways impact learning in a college classroom? This basic question underlies the vast majority of learning styles research. A sizable body of empirical research suggested that students learn best when they are taught in ways that match their way of learning (Lovelace, 2005, p176). Does this mean that we should adapt our teaching to fit student learning styles? This study addresses that question to achieve the development of students' speaking.

There is a broad array of models describing learning styles. Stevenson and Dunn 2001, cited in (McMahon, 1999, p:11), defined learning style as a way each individual prefers to learn. These models have been conceptualized by using external conditions and internal traits (Felder, 1995, p:103). The most commonly referenced includes the instructional and environmental preferences in which social interaction will be developed. Of particular interest in this study are teaching Instructional styles "methods and procedures" matched with learning styles according to students' preferences.

These teaching instruction leads us to the theory of Jung 1976, as cited in (Felder, 1995, p:107), who suggested that individuals perceive the world in two ways: "sensory" and "intuitive". **The sensory approach** is the way individuals use their senses to observe, collect, and learn information from their

environment. **Intuition** refers to the way in which individuals access memory, speculate and perceive information.

Lenehan, Dunn, Ingham, Murray, and Singer (1994, p:39), reported that students with learning preferences that match that of the instructor tended to have higher grades. In fact, Stevenson and Dunn 1995, cited in (Omya, 1999, p:35), suggested that, many students can master easy information in the "wrong" learning preference for them, but they can learn more efficiently and rapidly when they use their own learning preference. That means the students master wrong information when teaching styles do not match their preferences in the same time the degree of rapidly would be different when instructors match teaching with learning styles. Miller and others 2001; as cited in (Brown, 2001, p:25), reported that students' learning styles and achievement usually improved when the learning and teaching styles match. Conversely, Jensen (1987, p:181), assessed the effects of matching instructor and student learning style to enhance learning and found no difference between college students who received learning styles matched with teaching styles and vice versa. This result with our respect to researcher is not guide us to specific understanding, because most of the linguists till now have try to answer questions related directly to teaching performance and learning preferences.

Keri (2002, p:32), investigated whether congruities between students' learning styles and instructors' teaching styles related to student satisfaction and found no statistical differences in the satisfaction of students whose learning styles were congruent to their instructors' teaching styles as compared to those students whose styles were not. We observe that most of the researchers support the

important of matching teaching and learning styles in this literature. Similarly, Garton, Spain, Lamberson, and Spiers (1999, p:210), also found no practical relationship between students' learning styles and teaching style. This finding is also supported by Huxland (2000, p:17), who reported no difference between students grouped by learning style preference and those randomly selected for groups for a visual assessment activity at the college level. This suggests that using a preferred learning style results in no specific gains.

### **3.1.2. Grasha Teaching Styles (1996)**

According to Grasha (1996, p:186), "teaching styles can be referred to as modes of performing related to the styles of teachers". These modes involve such aspects as : "mental, spiritual, and physical acts ;speaking, listening, responding ,facilitating, encouraging ; using a trained eye to see what is actually happening ; and the openness (teacher has) to questions". Although this list is not complete, it reveals the variety of features linked to the modes of performing. These above lines identify six types of teaching: (Expert, formal authority, personal modal, facilitator and delegator)

#### **Expert:**

Expert teacher has knowledge and skill that students require. Expert teaching style attempts to assert position as an expert amongst learners through showing thorough knowledge. The tutor-as-expert strives to challenge learners to improve their competence. He puts the emphasis on transferring information, and demands that students be ready to learn and use that information. The expert's data, knowledge, and expertise are the joint favor of this teaching style. Whereas the shortcoming is that, if

overused, the display of knowledge may threaten less qualified students. In addition, the display of knowledge and skills may not always show their supporting.

### **Formal Authority:**

Formal authority acquires position amongst learners because of knowledge, and function as a faculty member. The formal authority professors give positive and negative feedback. They maintain learning objectives, anticipations, and rules of achieving, endowing students with a learning pattern. Students focus on acceptable, accurate, and regular approaches. The positive point is that the focus is on apparent expectations and acceptable methods, while the disadvantage is that a strong investment in this style may lead to harsh, regulated, and inflexible ways of directing learners and their interests.

### **Personal Model:**

Grasha, (1996, p:34), considered "teaching as the teacher personal experience". This instructor ascertains a model for reasoning and behaving, then supervises, channels, and guides by explaining how to do things. In addition, a Personal model teacher pushes learners to notice, and then imitate the professor's method. The advantage is a concentration on direct observation and imitation of a role model. However, if some teachers believe that their method of teaching is the best way; this will lead some learners to feel incompetent if they fail to meet the anticipations and patterns of the method they observe.

**Facilitator:**

The personal nature of teacher-student interactions is the core of the facilitator style. The professor leads and guides learners through asking questions, investigating choices, and proposing others. The teacher supports learners to exploit standards to make informed options. He puts the emphasis on the general classroom goal of developing the ability for autonomous action, plan, and burden, while endowing students with as much underpinning and encouragement as possible. The facilitator's advantage is the personal flexibility given by the instructor's emphasis on students' necessities and goals. This permits the student to search for choices and alternative courses of action. However, this style has a disadvantage in being time-consuming.

**Delegator:**

This teacher develops students' ability to work in an autonomous manner. This professor pushes learners to work on tasks as individuals or as part of independent teams. He or she is there as a resource person who answers any of the students' requests. This method has the advantage of guiding students to recognize themselves as autonomous learners, but it may lead professors to misunderstand student's willingness for independent work. Some learners may turn out to be anxious when given autonomy.

**3.2. Learning Styles**

The term learning style may include more than 70 different models with conflicting assumptions about learning, and with different designs and starting points Coffield 1990, as cited in (Grasha, 1996,

p:34), there are many different theories and models of learning styles with varying dimensions and variables. They focus on different aspects, cognitive processes, skills, sensory modalities, learning processes, thinking styles, etc. Theories of learning style simply assume that everyone can learn, but in different ways and levels. The area is comprehensive and addresses both individual and group level, but also affect organizations as a whole, ex. how the theory can be put into schools with parents, students and staff in collaboration.

### **3.2.1. Definitions of Learning Styles**

We focus on learning styles which meant by skills, specially speaking that we investigate in this research through matching learning and teaching styles. "As we each have a unique and individual style of learning, thinking and communicating, it's desirable that we interact differently with information. Society needs all kinds of thinkers each of them expressing different mental strengths" Conner 2008, cited in (Dornyei, 2011, p:49), however this information that Conner submitted in this quotation, the environment that Sudanese students come from different linguistics environment Arab and non-Arab students study in the same classroom at Nyala University, in spite of these varieties but they are not able to introduce deferent mental strengths inside the classroom like speaking fluency. Another definition of learning styles is proposed by Conner 2008, cited in (Dornyei, 2011, p:50), are as individual and unique as our fingerprints. Different interpretations are forged with the same content. Learning styles are interconnected with how our mind works and each of us has our own mind and our own way of interpreting information. A comfort zone is assumed to be an imaginary boundary that humans have

drawn between what they are accustomed to and what has never been attempted. It has created such a defining impact on our lives.

Over the years, learning has settled into a monotonous day-to-day chalk to board teaching style. How this monotony set in remains unseen. Learning styles are like our individual characteristics; people need to accept our characteristics to accept who we are and how we respond to situations and circumstances. "Human beings can learn any subject matter successfully when the instructional methods used are matched with their individual learning preferences. Other supporting that a research done from St John's University in New York, to ensure lifelong learning, the beginning of our educational journey needs to be one that matches our individual learning preferences. This would ensure subject matter is retained and learning is desired rather than forced. Attitudes towards learning are determined by how one is taught in school. Therefore if the experience attained in school is negative or not completely favorable towards the individual, there is an increasingly high possibility that knowledge acquisition will end once the individual leaves school.

In Sudan educational system of learning has been assessed at each juncture of a student's life through examinations and test. This may be a valid and undoubtedly a sure fire way of determining one's learning ability and capacity. However, the process of learning is assumed as a standard for the entire cohort. Little is done to explore alternative methods that may suit different learning abilities. "In the last 30 or 40 years, a number of educators have proposed that teaching would be more effective if faculty members took account of differences in students' learning styles". McMahon (1999, p:70), many

new approaches have been introduced in an attempt to cater to individual learning abilities. However, despite the alternative methods, the class sizes of 40 (sometimes even more) leave the students feeling forgotten and often forced into accepting a style that may not be theirs. However, there are several factors that could influence this attitude. Of these three mentioned factors, I think teachers have the highest influential level. Their presence is the presence that is often related to the learning experience. They are the communicators of knowledge and to the students; they represent the face of learning.

Teachers may employ numerous methods of teaching that engage the students and create an unforgettable learning experience. When the learning experience is memorable, the concepts taught are often concepts that remain with the student long after the student has graduated. There are no universal engaging methods of teaching; not every method employed may result in a successful delivery of a concept. As discussed earlier, each of us possesses a learning style that is unique. Despite the lesson being interesting, there may not have been effective knowledge acquisition. “Who would ever realize, without being told, that these minds experience links between simultaneous events—that the cloud formation in the sky outside the classroom window carries the same message as the teacher’s words?”

Conner 2008, cited in (Dornyei, 2011, p:56), again, described the fact that a simple process like a cloud formation may transmit a message far more significant. Every object, every process holds a different message that is interpreted differently by an individual. This reflects our learning styles. We may all be exposed to similar external factors, but the way in which we interpret these factors and in the end retain them differ according to our styles.

The need for studying learning styles was highlighted as the need for “a comfortable learning environment”, which will result in effective and efficient knowledge acquisition. When a student is comfortable learning and acquiring knowledge, there is undoubtedly effective learning taking place. Comfort level can be acquired by ensuring a student is in an environment that offers no threats.

Dornyei, (2011, p:110), said that, when learning styles are recognized and accounted for, learning becomes a lifelong journey, not one that stops after we have left school. This is because we develop a thirst of knowledge because the quest for it was fruitful and painless to begin with. This encourages a further quest and an unquenchable thirst. When one’s learning styles are not met, we tend to feel we are incompetent and stupid, when in actual fact we simply need an alternative medium of interaction.

Dornyei, (2011, p:115), on the other hand, when our learning styles are not met, we tend to feel that the lack of knowledge acquisition is through a fault of ours. We blame ourselves and, in fact, our ability to process information. This creates a premature impediment to our knowledge acquisition.

Emphasis has been placed on the study of learning styles for students. Numerous types of learning styles have been identified. Streubert, (1999, p:70), He believed that a study of learning styles would in no way hamper the process of learning. In fact, he believes that students would thrive in an environment where learning styles are acknowledged and accounted for. Unfortunately, less research has been done on teaching styles, there are perceptions that link teaching styles to the teacher’s learning styles. “Research supports the concept that most teachers teach the way they learn.” Stitt-Gohdes (2001

cited in Solahudin, 2008, p:94), most teachers would teach based on the practice that best worked for them. The method, by which they learnt, provided for effective knowledge acquisition and in their opinion would provide for effective learning for their students.

### **3.2.2 Types of Learners**

In Talkers, Watcher and Doers 2004, cited in (Abu Ghararah, 2005, p:87), three main types of learners were identified and described. They are the auditory learner, the visual learner and the kinesthetic learner. Many papers and books on improving learning abilities focus on these three types of learners. Individuals are generalized and classified according to these three types of styles.

Auditory learners are learners who listen and learn. They digest information by simply listening. They are able to sit through long lectures easily and walk away from the lecture with valuable and important knowledge attained. Flores 1997, cited in (Davies, 2010, p:77), indicated that, auditory learner is a person who remembers things best when explained in words or written, also learned best from books and lecture.

Auditory Learner Characteristics are that they:

- like to read to self out loud, good with grammar.
- cannot keep quiet for long periods.
- are good at explaining, enjoys music.

- are good in study groups, reads slowly.

Learning Suggestions to be active learners are that they:

- use word association to remember facts/lines.
- record lectures, taping notes after writing them.
- participate in group discussions.
- rhythm and rhyme.

Visual learners are learners who learn by sight. They are able to visualize the solution to a problem.

They see it in their head like a photograph and are then able to write it down. They are not able to follow verbal instruction well and works best when there is a list of things to do rather than being told what to do. Flores 2000, as cited in (Abu Ghararah, 2005, p:90), discussed that “the visual memory records that which comes to us through the eye, or, in other words, it is the avenue which helps you to remember all that you see”. This quotation indicates directly to support visual aids because 60% of the population around the world is visual, a society of media, visual aids and digital. This researcher indicates to this in chapter one, when he supports the recent study with visual literacy technique to provide students with an excellent learning style matched with teaching styles.

Visual learner characteristics are that they:

- good at spelling but forgets names,

- needs quiet study time,
- has to think awhile before understanding lecture,
- ask teacher to diagram things out.

Learning suggestions to be active learners are that they

- make out line for everything,
- copy what is on the board,
- diagram sentences,
- use flashcards,
- color code, use highlighter, and circle/underline words.

Kinesthetic learners are learners who learn when their body is active. They need movement to digest information. They learn from touching and experiencing for them rather than being told a theory and made to understand it. They tend to misunderstand instructions when presented orally or visually.

Flores, define Kinesthetic learner is person who innate kinesthetic memory, which things learned through feel and manipulation with concrete instructions and techniques.

Kinesthetic learner characteristics are that they:

- takes break when studying,

- cannot sit still for long is fidgety during lecture,
- do not have good handwriting,
- like science/lab.
- Like role-playing, loves music.

Learning suggestions to be active learners are that they:

- study in short blocks.
- studying with others.
- use memory games, flash cards to memorize.

In addition there are many style aspects that are found influential in L2. However, Oxford, (2001, p:100), put the emphasis on four dimensions of learning styles that are within those related to L2 learning: sensory preferences, personality types, desired degree of generality, and biological differences. Being dichotomous is not one of the learning styles characteristics because generally they function on a continuum or on several overlapping lines. For instance, an individual might be more kinesthetic than auditory, but equally visual and auditory.

### **3.2.3. Types of Learning Styles**

Oxford, (1991, p:119), argued that, sensory preferences consist of four stands: visual, auditory, kinesthetic (movement oriented), and tactile (touch oriented). Each one of these stands refers to the physical and perceptual learning ways with which a student feel at ease to perform a task. Visual learners learn more from seeing words on books and blackboard, and so, they benefit from reading, as they can understand information and directions much more than hearing them. They feel confused with classroom interactions that have no visual support. On the contrary, auditory students get a great deal from hearing words and from oral conversations, explanations and instructions. However, for the kinesthetic and tactile students, we find that they enjoy movements and work with concrete objects. Therefore, they learn best from being involved to experience things.

Extrovert learners get their energy from their outside world. They are interaction-oriented in terms of being active and taking part in conversations. They have lots of friendships and interests and tend to reflect later. Whereas introverts obtain energy from their inner world. They tend to be lonely and have fewer interests and friendships but deep ones.

Intuitive-random learners prefer abstract terms and look for possibilities and theories. They focus on the future and tend to guide their learning. However, sensing sequential students like to work systematically following instructions given by the teacher. They are, also, sensory oriented and focus on the here and now.

Thinking students get used to say the unpleasant fact even if it harms the people's emotions. They like to be regarded as competent and avoid praising other people even if they are willing to be praised. In contrast, feeling students appreciate others in a personal manner. They have the ability to understand people and show sympathy through conversation and utter any word that may lessen the situation difficulties.

The main interest of Closure-Oriented learners who are known as decision makers is to get at the answers as soon as possible. They are studious persons who prefer to be given written work. In comparison, open oriented learners (known as information gatherers) view learning a second language as a funny game that make them enjoyed, and so, they are less serious than Closure-Oriented students.

Finally the types of leaners which mentioned above have described the ways in which students grasp the information in the classroom, whereas the interaction of students should be tested through two points:

- Desired degree of generality and biological differences

Desired degree of generality distinguishes between global and analytic learners. Global or holistic student concentrates on the whole picture or the general idea. He is fond of interaction from where he gets the main concepts. Analytic learners focus on details especially the grammatical ones and they are less willing to be engaged in communicative events. Unlike the global learners who guess from the context, analytic learners may do such guessing only if they are sure of their answers.

- Biological Differences:

The biological differences between learners is related to biorhythms, sustenance and location aspects.

The first one refers to the preferred periods of day when the student feels comfortable to accomplish a task. Some learners prefer to start studying in the morning, others in the afternoon and others at night.

Sustenance reveals the need for food or drink during learning. Then, the last one, location, includes the environment characteristics: temperature, light and sound.

### **3.2.4. Felder and Silverman's Learning Styles (1988)**

Felder and Silverman's (1988, p:112), put the emphasis on five dimensions of learning styles: sensing-intuitive learners, visual-verbal learners, inductive-deductive learners, active-reflective learners and sequential-global learners.

Sensing and intuition are the two approaches through which individuals perceive information. Sensing indicates noticing and gathering information through our senses, whereas intuition infers indirect perception through intuition and sub consciousness. Sensors prefer evidences, data and experiments; intuitors like principles and theories. The former like working step-by-step, following directions as they are against surprises; however, the latter are fond of creating new methods and ways for accomplishing a certain task because they hate replications. Sensors like detailed information but without any complexity and they are concrete but slow; intuitors are just the opposite through disliking details and being inaccurate and fast. Another key difference is that intuitive learners are excellent at

translation words which put them at the advantage to do well in timed test, unlike sensory learners who are slow in translating words, which make them do poorly. However, intuitors may also do badly in timed test because they have no patient with details, and so, they start answering without reading instruction that lead them to make careless mistakes.

Visual, verbal and kinesthetic are sensory channels through which external information is most effectively perceived. People tend to favor one of the three over the other two. Visual learners learn best when they see: pictures, charts, videos, graphs and flash cards because they will remember the presented information in the previous visual aids easily. They prefer reading more than listening to someone, as they will probably forget what they hear. Unlike visual learners, verbal(auditory)students remember best” of what they hear and more of what they hear (auditory) and say (verbal) (Felder & Silverman,(1988, p:115), they prefer interaction and getting verbal instruction from the teacher, and they need to explain a certain point to others in order to understand more effectively. Then, kinesthetic learners are those who prefer tangible and touched things that they can manipulate and experience. So, visual learners prefer reading, verbal prefer speaking and listening, and kinesthetic like writing.

A reasoning development that progresses from particular facts and examples to discovering general rules and principles, deductively or a reasoning development that progresses from generalities to particulars. Induction is concerned with inferring principles, whereas deduction is concerned with deducing results. According to Felder & Silverman, (1988, p:120), induction is *«the natural human learning styles»*. When we were born, we did not come with general rules, but rather we recognize, first,

the surrounding environment and then extract inferences. Most of what we learn individually initiate in an authentic situation or problem which has to be dealt with or solved. On the contrary, deduction is “*the natural teaching styles*”. Indicating the general principles and applying them is a useful and well-designed way for arranging and introducing materials that are already understood.

Being active or reflective learner means that there is the tendency of being either fast good guesser, or slower but more accurate. Active learner is comfortable with active experimentation and reflective learner feels at ease with reflective observation: active experimentation indicates experiencing information through discussion, explanation or tests; whereas reflective observation indicates that the presented information is tested or manipulated introspectively. An active learner is the one who does something in class, either interacting, asking...etc, or observing. So, active student participation covers both active experimentation and reflective observation. Hence, a passive learner is the one who does nothing: neither discussing, asking...etc, nor reflecting. In addition, an active learner is found to be extrovert and a reflective learner is found to be introvert.

Sequential and global styles (also referred to as field independent-dependent or analytic global styles) implies the extent to which one depends on or is distracted by the context or perceptual field in which an event occurs. Oxford,(2001, p:12), indicated that most curricula, syllabi and textbooks are presented in a systematically logical development, i.e., the student will learn step-by-step, moving from one to another. This system is sequential with which sequential (analytic) learner feels comfortable. Then again, other learners may feel lost with this system because they learn in a sudden manner: they

may understand nothing for many sessions until they get the point suddenly. These are global learners. They make instinctive jumps and may not be capable of explaining how they get the results. Sequential students can work with material even if they do not understand it completely, whereas global learners find difficulty in doing so. In addition, Skehan, (1998, p:170), stated that, the analytic group makes a decision concerning a situation, through separating a problem into parts to be focused on. Therefore, they are able to decompose a whole into basic items to be emphasized on, changed and operated independently of one another. The field independent learners analyze the linguistic material they are exposed to, in order to recognize its constituents, and then, find out relationships between them. They have the ability to focus on the most important data and avoid less important one. In this aspect, field independent people can direct attention carefully and notice important aspects of language. On the other hand, the global individuals are less likely to be analytic but able to perceive situations as wholes. To the extent that language progression is supported by interaction, the field dependent people may not find difficulty in reaching a high level in communicating the language because they are comfort in interaction situations in which they find relevant input and have opportunities to express ideas through language. Therefore, it can be referred that analytic people do well in non-communicative situations, whereas global ones feel at ease with communicative settings.

### **3.3. Matching Teaching and Learning Styles**

In this area, there are several critiques of similar models in which teaching styles are matched with learning styles. The main critique was the fact that there is a lack of scientific evidence supporting

the benefits of matching these styles. "We were startled to find that there is so much research published on learning styles, but that so little of the research and experimental designs that had the potential to provide decisive evidence. There are scientists claim that the topics of matching the two styles is redundant and useless because of the lack of research done in this aspect. Kolb, (1981, p:44). Unfortunately, before learning styles was a proven strategy in the classroom, the learning styles predictor kit became commercialized. This "cheapened" the idea of adopting learning styles in the classroom. It was seen as a moneymaker and therefore unreliable; but the important thing to remember is that what are called "learning styles" are preferences and habits of learning that have been learned, and that everyone is capable of going beyond the particular "style" preferred at the time. Regardless of their learning "styles," students can learn strategies that enable them to be effective when taught by methods that are not compatible with their preferred "style." To assume that one must teach to a particular learning style misses the fact that a given student may be best taught by one method early in learning and by another after the student has gained some competence.

McMahon (1999, p:123), discussed the fact that matching learning and teaching styles would provide for an ideal situation in which effective and efficient learning may take place, it is important to note, as Mckeachie has successfully articulated, that opposing strategies to our learning styles may provide an equal benefit to the students. Mckeachie believes that a match may not necessarily be the key to effective learning. He believes that developing a person's learning through exposure to different and opposing strategies may result in a more competent student.

Despite the critiques on matching the two styles, the advocates of learning styles, Streubert and Carpenter, (1999, p:207), still believed that, a matching would provide a learning environment that is comfortable and suitable for effective learning. There was a general consensus that the match, if further explored and studied would result in a revolutionary approach to teaching and learning.

Yet, instructors still believe matching teaching to learning style will lead to positive outcomes. If it lead to positive outcome the researcher in this research try to find out the problems that faces students when they speak English language through matching teaching and learning styles

### **3.3.1. Teaching and Learning Preferences**

One of the difficulties institutions encounter in meeting learners' needs is the appropriate linking of student learning preferences with faculty instructional philosophies. Congruence between learner preferences and teaching preferences is an essential key. In every classroom, no matter the subject and no matter the delivery format (traditional or online), students will have diverse learning styles. Kumaravadivelu (1991, cited in Kurtus, 2001, p:12), maintained that, alignment of learner and teacher preferences facilitates a greater chance of achieving desired learning outcomes. Several researchers (Miller, 2001; Hayes, 1997; and Kolb, 1981, p:199), believed that, the alliance of learning and teaching styles plays an important role in empowering students to maximize their educational experience, to persist, and to complete. In a recent study, the researcher explain the importance of linking teaching and learning styles to make an excellent outcome in teaching English as a second language in Sudan in the

same time Brown, (2003, p:244), stated there is little evidence that teachers should change their teaching style to match students' learning styles. Yet, best practices, fuelled by anecdotal evidence, empirical research, and student/teacher reports, are clear that consideration of learning styles is important for students. It is questionable that students would react favourably to a professor facilitating a teaching strategy with which he/she felt awkward. Traditional systems of course registration do not assist the matching of student learning preferences with teaching styles. Kolb (1981, p:66), maintained that, all individuals are oriented to a preferred method of learning, and that confronted with accomplishing a best fit of teaching/learning styles, college students should, at the very least, choose a major compatible with their learning style. Another important consideration is that many faculty may not be comfortable with changing their teaching philosophy and/or adopting certain teaching methods for the purposes of responding to student learning styles.

Zeeb (2004, p:90), stated that, the fact for instructors is this: the way you learn is the way you teach because we believe that what makes sense in our own brain must make sense to everyone else. Consequently, even when armed with knowledge of students' learning styles, faculty, although willing, are often not prepared to alter teaching styles and frequently fall back on that which is familiar and comfortable. The fact that learners are not always aware of their learning preferences, or how to maximize their learning based on these preferences, presents another challenge. Learning how to facilitate their own learning in a postsecondary environment is an important skill for students to acquire. A necessary step in this process is self-awareness, whereby students have opportunities to recognize and

make the most of their learning preferences. While there are many academic and non-academic factors that impact students' abilities to persist and complete their academic goals, research indicates that of the non-academic factors, academic self-confidence and achievement appear to have the strongest relationship to retention and completion (Lee, 2010, p:22).

### **3.3.2. Learning Disability or Misunderstood Learning Styles**

When a student is unable to perform to a certain standard in school, or exhibits behavior that is unacceptable in Sudanese classroom setting, they are diagnosed with a learning disability. I personally hate the word disability. It makes no sense. Not being able to do something in a particular way may not necessarily leave one inadvertently hopeless in performing that same task in another way. It is imperative to understand that not being able to perform any task, physical or mental, in a way that is determined by societal standards does not make one disable. In fact a person that is able to perform above and beyond the societal standards should be proclaimed and respected not labeled as disabled.

When an opposing teaching style is used for a student with a particular learning style, the student will seem bored and disinterested. This results in the teacher complaining to the student's parents about the student's limited attention span and lack of concentration. Student in turn reacts in a defensive way. He refrains from trying to behave, they feels misunderstood and judged.

For example, a kinesthetic learner requires movement during learning. He thrives on being given the liberty to move during the learning process. However, in a regular classroom setting, this kind of

behavior will render the student a label of being attention deprived and teachers would advise parents to seek professional help claiming that the student is intolerable in class and disruptive. The student ends up feeling ashamed at being labeled and in the worst-case scenario, gives up the learning process altogether. Once again, the student is the one who loses out.

Instead of approaching the possibility of a learning disability as an initial solution, it would definitely benefit the student if his/her learning style was acknowledged first.

In this way, the student does not lose out even before his/her learning journey has begun.

### **3.3.3. Match or Mismatch between Learning and Teaching Styles**

Both students and teachers play a critical role in the teaching/ learning process. Reid (1995, p:31), hypothesizes that any incompatibility between learning styles and teaching styles leads to failure, discouragement and demotivation. Moreover, she assumes that if learning styles are not considered and checked, there will be a regardless of teaching approaches and materials; that learners can adapt their styles as these are, to some extent, habits more than genetic characteristics; and that if learners turn into being more aware of a large variety of styles and stretch themselves. Reid (1995, p:33), claimed that, mismatches frequently take place, leading to bad consequences on learner's learning and feelings towards class and English, (Reid,1987 & Felder, 1995), Felder inserted that, students become uninterested and may leave the class. Others also propose that compatibility between teaching and learning styles develops learning, attitudes, performance and impetus (Willing,1988; Reid,1987,1995;

Felder,1995 & Kinsella,1995),. According to Reid (1995, p:39), harmonizing teaching styles with learning styles provides all students with the same opportunity in the classroom and develops learner self-consciousness. A balanced teaching style is one way for defeating the mismatch: teachers should try to accommodate all learning styles. They should achieve this even though it contradicts their thought of what is useful in classroom. Teaching, according to Ehrman (1991), cited in Reid, (1987, p:90), is developing an increased range of preferences for in and outside classroom. However, Willing notifies that we have to respect teachers' styles as taking on different styles may leads to lessen effectiveness. The agreement is that the more learning and teaching styles are matched, the more students will perform better for class and homework, and also the more they will profit from their EFL courses. On the other hand, Felder (1995, p:169), informed that, not all what learners feel at ease with is the best for learning.

The hypothesis of Reid (that in the case of unchecked learning styles, there will be a regardless of teaching methods and materials) is underpinned by Kinsella (1995, cited in Reid, 1995, p:52), who included that, even when habitual styles are unsuitable, learners adhere to them because some learners can change their styles while others cannot. Concentration on teaching and learning styles has been characterized as an element of the desirable tendency to learner-centered and needs-based instruction. Moreover, it has been claimed that teachers should assist learners to recognize their styles and to be stretcher. On the basis of learning styles, there has been suggested that the students' learning background, or popular knowledge and/or their cultural and L1 surroundings have been indicated by those styles.

What has been written about learning styles is more than what has been written about teaching styles. According to Reid (1995, p:59), there is no teacher who has no teaching style, and she assumes that 90% of secondary school teachers favor auditory learners: this is the ratio of teacher talk and discussion. In addition, Reid claims that we deviate from the belief that our way of learning or teaching is the best. On the basis of teaching styles, it has been suggested that the way teachers were taught or learned or emulate other tutors is the way they will teach (Kinsella, 1995, as cited in Reid, 1995, p:61), proposed that, both teaching and learning styles and the crossroads between them are crucial and under-researched feature of L2 classroom environment. Many theoretical underpinning for the suggestion that mismatches are widespread and they lead to a negative outcome for leaning, learner motivation and attitude; however, little if any practical studies have investigated this idea or even researching the EFL teachers' teaching styles. Peacock suggests that there is a critical need for additional and extended research and so the results will enlighten TEFL methods, materials and syllabus development, learner schooling, teacher schooling and professional development.

The teacher should have their students consider the importance of learning styles: The value of learning styles can be discussed inside the classroom where the teacher can bring the following points or the learners themselves bring:

- Learning can be understood and organized through the recognition of learning styles.
- Being aware of how to work most comfortably, quickly and easily raise the chances of learning as some parts of learning are generally out of the teacher's control.

- The ability of managing the learning styles leads learners to be more adaptable because the more styles we can learn at ease with, the better.
- In order to be more efficient, learners have to know how to learn best since the amount of time will be compressed.
- In order to be more effective, learners need to know their learning styles as the more comfortable they can learn, the better.

Be aware that there may be style conflicts between you and the students: Teachers may face situations where their teaching styles do not match their learners learning styles. For instance:

- The learner is more global, impulsive and visual; while the teacher is more analytic, reflective and verbal.
- The learner is more random-intuitive; while the teacher is more concrete-sequential.
- The learner is more random-intuitive, verbal and impulsive; while the teacher is more concrete-sequential, visual and reflective.
- The learner is more introvert and visual; while the teacher is more extrovert and hands-on.

To prevent or as a minimum solve such mismatches, Cohen and Weaver (1997, p:133), claimed that, a teaching style survey and a learning style survey have to be done at the beginning of the program in order to use the obtained information to understand the styles variations. Use Student Information for the Learning Style Survey: In the case that the teacher obtains information about the learners learning styles, he can cover a wide range of learning styles and help students find methods to profit largely from

the teaching styles. Students will be more motivated when the teacher engages them in the course through asking them how he can help. Suggestions may be given if the student does not have any primary ideas or the feedback seems uncomfortable. The teacher may ask: is there anyone who is fond of:

- Producing a study group outside the class to get ready for exams?
- Carry out interaction between themselves or speaking to a native speaker outside the class?
- Gaining more information about the related cultural events?
- Getting closer to the target language through watching films related to that language?

After getting students to choose one of these categories, the teacher picks up one learner from each category and provides him with the information that he finds more important for each subgroup. Therefore, learners will be dependent on themselves to learn according to their styles rather than being dependent on the teacher. The tutor may adapt his styles to match his students' styles: only small modifications may help students. For instance, instead of giving only aural instructions that may fit the auditory learners, also write it on the blackboard. A concrete-sequential learner may favor to get the instructions arranged in numerical manner, when the abstract-intuitive student might not essentially care about this detail. So, the more ways the learner uses to include the various learning styles, the better.

The teacher should encourage students to challenge themselves: What do teachers notice when they give a text to read that is vague or has difficult terminology or language construction?. Getting on the meaning depends on the learner's style. They could use their knowledge of the globe or information

from a further part of the text that is clear in order to build a reasonable relationship between the two. They could also use titles and subtitles, connectors, and other practical guidelines in the text. Learners who are more concrete-sequential may encompass a hard time with the meaning. They may feel at ease going step-by-step from one word to the next and one sentence to the next – being more and more discouraged as they go along. This is an opening to talk about the benefits of changing style to accommodate a discouraging language task and choosing strategies to underpin that style change.

### **3.3.4. Contrast between Learning Preferences and Teaching Styles**

Incompatibility between learning preferences/styles and teaching preferences/styles is likely to result in student boredom, discouragement, poor test performance, low motivation, shattered self-esteem, and decisions to quit the course or program (Oxford et al., 1992, p:117). The disconnect between learning styles and teaching styles occurs across all disciplines, resulting in problems of speaking skill among Sudanese university students. We propose developing a positive approach for matching student-teaching styles across all subject areas, which can have a powerful impact on learner/instructor satisfaction, potentially raising completion and graduation rates. There is little debate in the Sudan that teaching and learning practices are in dire need of change. The concepts of learning preferences and teaching preferences include information processing, instructional method, interaction, and achievement.

The concept of matching learning preferences and teaching preferences can help students respond more positively to instructional methods, and inform faculty about effective teaching practices.

Matching learning style and teaching style encourages better collaboration between students and reduces classroom management issues.

Consequently, college professors are faced with the question of how to enhance learning and retention based on learning style information of their students if the literature has found that teaching study skills to enhance their learning strategies and purposeful grouping has mixed effects.

Pedagogical research assessing the utility of style matching is imperative, as using different teaching styles may not always work. Huxland and Land (2000, p:17), suggested that, once instructors know their students learning styles, they can develop approaches, methods, and sequences that are likely to make learning more active and engaging for students. Now a days more educators suggest modern teaching style to enhance student's motivation to achieve positive outcome in teaching English as a second and a foreign language especially in Sudan.

Teachers should alter their teaching styles to match learning styles, students also should use strategies to cope with their teacher's teaching styles. Breitsprecher (2005, cited in Babu, 2010, p:99). has asserted strategies for different learners with different styles.

Strategies for Active Learners:

1. When there is no activity, comprise for this when studying.
2. Group work sessions are effective, mainly if everybody has an opportunity to perform some of the explanation.

3. Working in-group, get ready for exams by discussing what questions will be asked and how these questions will be responded.
4. Try to get your lesson materials relevant to homework, other classes, work or other subjects of interest.

**Strategies for Reflective Learners:**

1. When there is no reflective activity, comprise for this when studying.
2. Get moment to think and reflect on the material, when you read or study.
3. Assume possible questions and functions of the material.
4. When you read a piece of writing, try to write short summaries or notes, using your own ideas and words.

**Strategies for Sensing Learners:**

1. Try to apply lesson material to the real-life.
2. Ask suitable questions in classroom about various methods through which you can apply abstract materials to various situations if it is possible.
3. If it is not possible in class or the teacher cannot provide answers, search in textbooks and other mentioned resources for empirical applications.
4. Discuss with your friends or work in-group and suggest ways to put materials into practice in effective meaningful situation.

### **Strategies for Intuitive Learners:**

1. When you find it possible, ask suitable questions about how facts are related or connected.
2. If a lesson includes a great deal of details, search for the whole picture.
3. If it is not possible in class or the teacher cannot provide answers, search in textbooks and other mentioned resources for ways that facts are related or connected.
4. When you are in front of homework and test questions, try first to get the entire idea before beginning paying close attention to details.
5. Check the entire work whenever possible, mainly on tests.

### **Strategies for Visual Learners:**

1. If a course material is mostly verbal, seek to find relevant diagrams, plans, charts, photographs, or any other visual aids.
2. Ask you teacher for providing you with ideas to get visual demonstrations, check books or search online.
3. Organize concepts and reveal relationships between them through producing maps using several forms and through arrows.
4. Highlight important notes, in order that everything that is linked to the same topic is all with the same color.

### **Strategies for Sequential Learners:**

1. It is evident that most school lessons are planned to be sequential – if a teacher moves a lot from one point to another quickly, ask him/her for helping you filling the gaps and build a sequential presentation for you.
2. If this is not possible, look up textbook or online resources to establish a sequential presentation of the material.
3. When studying, set up frameworks of material in logical order.
4. Move from particulars towards generalities. In order to develop both sequential and global skills.

### **Strategies for Global Learners:**

1. "Be patient with yourself"! Babu, (2010, p:99), because you are not slow, but you just learn material differently.
2. Before reading a section of a chapter in a text, skim through the entire chapter to get an idea as to where the material is heading.
3. Try to avoid studying in brief sessions, and instead use extended amounts of time for each subject. This may lead you to develop a better general view of a topic and then help learning of details and processes.
4. Work on linking all what you are learning to what you have already learnt by talking to the tutor or check with other reference sources.

5. Recognize your learning styles and the differences between them and then, work on strengths and weaknesses.

What looks like a shortcoming now can be a benefit later. For instance, global learners can frequently operate information in a way that the sequential learners may not even think about.

**The Importance of Learning Styles in Teaching:** Middleton, (2009, p:89), recognizing the importance of learning styles in teaching settings approaches from the identification of the reasons behind incorporating those styles in teaching, for example, making learning and teaching a dialogue, responding to a more diverse student body. In other words the teachers may put in their minds that the students setting may help students to get a suitable learning styles according to their preferences by creating a normal discussion using simple teaching language.

**Making Learning and Teaching a Dialogue:** Our current teaching systems are underlined by the belief that learners are "empty vessels" Kolb (1988, p: 70), and filling them with data is the teachers' task. However, progressively, student learning's research claims that the symbol of dialogue is best suitable in that it focuses on the relationship between teaching and learning in being interactive and collaborative. When teaching moves from 'empty vessels' pattern to a dialogue one, old practices in teaching start to be removed. A classroom teaching no longer includes a handwritten transfer of information, and a diversity of 'active learning' methods would also be included, which engage learners in the communal dialogue. In chapter one we discussed dialogue as an important activity that help students to speak a language. Dialogue make a good link between teaching and learning. Also dialogue encourage students

to practice English language in oral situation inside the classroom. It's clear that this activity change the role of student from listener to active speaker and the role of teacher would be more positive than presenter.

Dialogue activities in the second language curricula help students to optimize their language specially in speaking skill.

**Responding to a More Diverse Student Body:** It is obvious to indicate that student bodies are more and more different, not simply in background and gender, but in age, nationality, intellectual background, etc as well. Therefore, a classroom set can be influenced by this differentiation in various ways, including the variety of learning styles. For instance, it is claimed that old students are more likely to be independent, self-directed learners because of their ability to benefit from their life encounters. Other researchers (Banks, 1988), cited in Cohen and Weaver (1997, p:149), stated that, the African-American and Mexican-American students prefer to work within groups to gain their communal aims. In spite of these obvious currents, it is essential not to categorize learners based on predictable learning styles, as a huge variety of styles is apparent within any specific group. In Sudan similar situation that students come from different cultures including different languages. This varieties affected in learning English as a second, third or foreign language for example the learners who come from Arabic environment are different from those who come from non-Arabic environment. The acquisition of English language in this case needs various teaching styles related to learners preferences.

**Communicating the Teaching Message:** Teachers are inclined to be impassionedly devoted to their profession and are eager to transmit its importance and information support to their learners. So, teachers' main interest is to cover the subject matter and to know how much of this material has been really conveyed. According to Huxland and Land (2000, p:17, "in a typical 50 minutes lecture class, students retain 70% of what is conveyed, but only 20% from the last 10 minutes". Therefore, if teachers really want their information to be transmitted, they have to scheme the subject matter in a many-sided method across the variety of learners learning styles.

**Making Teaching More Rewarding:** In the case that tutors are not leaning to much self-examination about their teaching applications, they are expected to go on teaching learners the method they learn best, believing that this method will fit all students. However, considering the increase of variety of the student body, and the higher anticipations for teaching practices within faculty administrators, it is possible that lots of teachers are not compatible with the way they always teach; they may think that they are less correct and less satisfying. But, In order to avoid getting in such situation, teachers have to take into account the learners learning styles, thus they may be able to gain approval from refreshing the teaching performances.

**Ensuring the Future of the Discipline:** A clear cut statement in profession analysis is that any person will be at ease with some activities, subject matters and jobs than others, as a dependent factor of "personality, talents, cognitive styles and so on" Montgomery & Groat, (1988, cited in Oxford et al., 1992, p:117). In contrast, the practices and standards of a particular profession are not all innate in even

the most crucial features of a certain discipline. Further importance that teachers are forced to deal with huge conversions in almost every field. So, if teachers make certain that learners with a variety of learning styles are acceptable and motivated, they may ensure the enduring practicality of teaching.

Brown (2007, p:88), further, suggested that, if teaching styles meet all learning styles, the purpose of using learning styles information is to expose learners to a variety of learning activities that may or may not match with their preferred learning style, but that will help them develop adeptness necessary to handle a range of different learning requirements.

To date limited research has looked at other ways of evaluating the use and effectiveness of learning styles interventions through the use of a variety of instructional activities Using the categorization of learning styles by Reid (1995, p:76), we developed four instructional activities that focused on a particular learning style type (visual, auditory, tactile, and kinaesthetic). The focus of this study was to describe the learning outcomes of homogeneous groups of students and their interaction with four different learning style type instructional activities.

Designing active learning assignments that promote the use of diverse learning styles may enhance learning, student satisfaction, and retention of information. For example, Ogden (2003, p:17), modified the traditional lecture to engage students with differing learning styles and found that it enabled students to learn by their own strengths while providing opportunity for developing related strengths in other areas. This study extended this research and evaluated the use of a four active learning instructional activities that focused on diverse learning styles. Specifically, we tested if students

performed better on and preferred, assignments that matched their particular learning styles. Conversely, would students perform worse on the instructional activities that did not match their learning style preference? what are the preferred leaning styles to Sudanese learners according to modern procedures like:

Direct Instruction: Instructor centered

- 1- Provide students with as much information through lecture, explanation and problem-solving.
- 2- Allow minimal student-teacher interaction.
- 3- Effective when learning fundamental facts, rules, formulas or sequences.
- 4- Not effective for higher level thinking, analysis and evaluation.

Indirect Instruction: Formal

- 1- Instructional stimuli are presented in the form materials, objects and event.
- 2- Students take an active role in discussing and testing their own conclusion.
- 3- Most effective at teaching a process or method of learning.
- 4- Allows for a dynamic teaching and learning environment.

Discussion: Instructor-student Centered

- 1- Involve free interactive dialogue between teacher and students.

2- Requires teacher to give control of the classroom to students.

3- Requires an open-mind.

### Cooperative Learning

1- Instructor encourages student independence in term of achieving their learning goals (planned activities)

2- Students are encouraged to interact with one another.

3- Help students develop reasoning and problem-solving skills.

4- Responsibility is placed on the students.

### Self-directed Instruction

1- Teaches students to take learning into their own hand.

2- Self-direct on line courses.

3- Strengthens thought, reasoning critical thinking and problem-solving abilities.

## **Conclusion**

Learning styles and teaching styles of most English university lecturers are almost compatible in several dimensions. Many or most English students are visual, sensing-intuitive, inductive-deductive, active-reflective, and global-analytic; most English teachers are visual-auditory, concrete (sensing), inductive- deductive, active, and global. These matches lead to a good student performance, professorial success, and motivation to learn. Yet, we can find certain mismatches between students' learning styles and teachers' teaching styles it has clearly been shown in the previous literature. So, tutors should be provided, with the most suitable techniques in order to respond to a wide diversity of learning styles and get more effective learning with good results.

## ***Chapter Four: The Students' Opinions about their Learning Styles***

<i>Introduction</i>	<b><i>Page</i></b>
<b><i>4.1. Population, Sampling and Data Collection</i></b>	<b><i>135</i></b>
<b><i>4.2. The Pilot Study: Students' Interview</i></b>	<b><i>143</i></b>
<b><i>4.2.1. Description of the Students' Interview</i></b>	<b><i>143</i></b>
<b><i>4.2.2. Procedures of Data Collection and Analysis</i></b>	<b><i>146</i></b>
<b><i>4.3. The Students' Questionnaire</i></b>	<b><i>149</i></b>
<b><i>4.3.1. Description of the Students' Questionnaire</i></b>	<b><i>150</i></b>
<b><i>4.3.2. Analysis and Interpretation of the Results of the Students' Questionnaire</i></b>	<b><i>153</i></b>
<b><i>4.4. Overall Analysis of the Results of the Students' Interview and Questionnaire</i></b>	<b><i>173</i></b>
 <i>Conclusion</i>	

## **Introduction**

The research design and methodology includes sampling, population, establishing rigor during and after data collection, ethical considerations and data analysis procedures. The first part is concerned with detailed description of the research methodology, instruments and procedures in which students questionnaires is given. The second part discussed interview techniques in the light of the research questions and hypothesis.

The following methods are used to collect the data:

A qualitative approach as "a systematic subjective approach used to describe life experiences and situations to give them meaning". It focuses on the experiences of people as well as stressing uniqueness of the individuals. Referred to qualitative research as "a form of social enquiry that focuses on the way people interpret and make sense of their experiences and the world in which they live". Researchers use the qualitative approach to explore the behavior, perspectives, experiences and feelings of people and emphasize the understanding of these elements. Researchers who use this approach adopt a person-centered holistic and humanistic perspective to understand human live experiences without focusing on the specific concepts. In the current research the researcher use a qualitative analytical approaches in order to explore and describe the developing of students speaking through match and mismatch between teaching and learning styles.

Research Instruments: the data required for the study will be collected from the students and the teachers at the University of Nyala by designing three instruments; including depth of practice speaking

interview, and two questionnaires. The adoption of these techniques is based on a review of related literature as well as the stated objectives of the study. The data obtained from these instruments will be analyzed and discussed by using SPSS, (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) to know percentages

#### **4.1. Population, Sample and Data Collection**

The population of this study are the Sudanese learners of English at universities and higher institutes and the sample of this study are the students of English of Nyala university. Parahoo (1997, p: 160), defined population as "the total number of units from which data can be collected", such as individuals, artifacts, events or organizations. Burns and Grove (2003, p:77), described population as all the elements that meet the criteria for inclusion in a study. Burns and Grove (2003, p:42), defined eligibility criteria as "a list of characteristics that are required for the membership in the target population".

The criteria for inclusion in this study are:

- Registered students learning English at Nyala University Sudan.
- All the students under the age of 19 years old.
- All the students in the first class (Specialize in English)

Sampling Size:

Holloway and Wheeler (2002, p:92), asserted that sample size does not influence the importance or quality of the study and note that there are no guidelines in determining the sample size in a qualitative research. Qualitative researchers do not normally know the number of people in the research

beforehand; the sample may change in size and type during research. Sampling goes on until saturation has been achieved, namely no new information is generated (Holloway 1997, p:18). In this study the total number of different categories of students that is 156. The list was given to the head of the English department. The researcher worked in conjunction with the management in choosing participants, based on their level of experience in caring for the students that have problems of speaking as well as their level. There were 80 students participants, of whom 54 did not participated in the study, because they were not available as they were absent, off sick, while others did not want to participate in the study. The rationale for choosing this sampling approach was that the researcher seeking knowledge about the teachers' opinion about their teaching styles used with their students who have problems in speaking. In this study, only the students who were were purposively chosen to participate in this study.

Sampling of the participants was done as follows:

- The researcher sought the Head of the English department at Nyala University to identify participants with him.
- Possible participants were selected after the researcher pre-selected according to the criteria under age of 19.
- The research project was explained to the prospective participants who were on the short- list, and they were asked personally if they wanted to take part in the research.
- The researcher selected the prospective participants for a focus group discussion.

- In the event of a problem with identifying participants who met the criteria for selection for the study, each eligible participant was asked to refer to colleagues with similar experience.

According to Parahoo (1997, p:172), a research instrument "is a tool used to collect data. An instrument is a tool designed to measure knowledge attitude and skills". Data were collected during the focus group discussion through an official course of English Language taught by the researcher to the students at Nyala University. Obtaining data from participants with different leaning styles experience to prevent information bias and thus increase credibility regarding the information about speaking fluency. According to Parahoo (1997, p:190), a focus group discussion is an interaction between one or more researchers and more than one participant for the purpose of collecting data. Holloway and Wheeler (2002, p:88), stated that in focus group discussion, researchers interview participants with common characteristics or experience for the purpose of eliciting ideas, thoughts and perceptions about specific topics or certain issues linked to an area of interest.

In this study, the researcher interviewed students who were speaking well English and the others who face problems in speaking and suffer from the bad teaching styles that mismatch their learning styles. According to Parahoo (1997, p:211-213), a focus group discussion has the following advantages:

- It is a cheaper and quicker way of obtaining valuable data.
- Colleagues and friends are more comfortable in voicing opinions in each other's company than on their own with the researcher.

- Participants are provided with an opportunity to reflect or react to the opinion of others with which they may disagree or of which they are unaware.

Holloway and Wheeler (2002, p:28), listed the following strengths of focus group discussion:

- The dynamic interaction among participants stimulates their thoughts and reminds them of their own feelings about the research topic.
- All participants including the researcher have an opportunity to ask questions, and these will produce more information than individual interviews.
- Informants can build on the answers of others.
- The researcher clarifies and compares between different topics to elicit different participants' views.

In this section, the anticipated problems which could occur during the data collection are investigated according to the guidance of Holloway and Wheeler (2002, p:22). The following factors were contributory to errors in data collection. Some situational factors could influence the participants' response adversely, including the participants' being aware of the interviewer's presence (reactivity factor). Environmental factors such as lighting, temperature and noise may impact the participants' reaction. In this study, situational contaminants were excluded by use of a well-ventilated and lighted room, chairs arranged in a circle to be nearer the tape recorder. The researcher in this research put in his account the situational factors through interviewing the students at Nyala university supporting the data by documentary photos have been taken during the interview which shown the lighting, seating and

classroom environment. Personal characteristics of participants may influence their responses to questions, resulting in the phenomenon of social desirability of response, extreme of response and acceptance. The interview technique, explanation of the purpose of the research to the participants and assurance of confidentiality as well as the signed consent form were useful in reducing the above traits. Multi-linguistics variations are a problem during data collection. In this study the researcher put in mind that the students are come to university from different linguistics environment to study English in the same classroom, so they need confidence and encouragement to practice second language naturally without hesitation. In related to research Instrument, the researcher was the primary data collection instrument because the data from participants were words in the context of the research problem (Holloway & Wheeler 2002, p:59). This approach allowed greater latitude in providing answers therefore the students were able to provide in-depth spoken information regarding the phenomenon.

To ensure the credibility of the data collected, the researcher laid aside his preconceived ideas by writing down her/his opinion on written topic. This allowed flexibility in the collection of data. The participants were not guided by the researchers' prior knowledge of the phenomenon, but by their own experience. In this study data was collected by means of a focus group discussion.

The purpose for choosing this method was to:

- Obtain different perspectives on the phenomenon under investigation.
- Clarify unclear questions because dialogue was used.
- Observe non-verbal communication.

- Prevent the researcher bias to describe the phenomenon without preconceived ideas.

The researcher was the main research instrument in this research. The role of the researcher was to elicit information, during the focus group discussion in a formal classroom lectures.

- The researcher was the main conductor of the study in the participants' natural environment. This could lead to distortion of the findings of the study.
- The researcher practiced speaking as well as reflexivity to overcome this problem.
- The researcher also went back to participants to verify and clarify their responses.
- The researcher introduced himself to the participants to establish rapport.
- The participants were informed about the purpose of the study.
- The researcher was the facilitator of the focus group discussion.
- A colleague was asked to take notes and operate the tape recorder.
- The researcher maintained open-mindedness and skills in eliciting information.
- The climate was non-threatening; all the participants were introduced to one another.
- The participants sat in a circle for better communication, to ensure productivity as well as comfort in disclosing information.
- The researcher established the following ground rules:
  - No use of mobile phones during the interview.
  - Only one person to talk at a time.
  - Participants to address one another with respect.

These rules were necessary for the smooth running of the interview. The researcher put the participants at ease and introduced the topic to be discussed. She told of her first encounter with students who suffer from different teaching styles. This was done to elicit the participants' reaction.

Questions were asked inductively, proceeding from general to specific using a semi-structured interview guide prepared before the Lectures. All the participants were involved. Interesting issues in a particular debate and confidentiality climate were addressed. The participants were asked to keep the discussion confidential.

According to Holloway and Wheeler (2002, p:96), facilitators must have social and refereeing skills to guide the participants to interact effectively and exert control over the topic and participants without directing the discussion or coercing the participants. The researcher dealt with hurtful remarks and prejudice by repeating the ground rules and using good facilitating skills. The researcher also should be able to use the instrument required to aid in data collection.

In order to collect data effectively while at the same time limiting problems, the researcher practiced the use of the tape recorder in preparation for the interview to boost his confidence.

The researcher used reflexivity, bracketing and intuiting to lay aside her preconceptions regarding the phenomenon under investigation. Data analysis occurs simultaneously with data collection and processes that play a role in data analysis:

- Comprehending: The researcher wants to learn about what is going on. When comprehension is achieved, the researcher is able to prepare a detailed description of the phenomenon under study. Saturation is achieved when new data cannot be added.
- Synthesizing: This involves sifting data and putting the pieces together. This enables the researcher to make sense of what is typical regarding the phenomenon. The researcher makes general statements regarding the phenomenon and participants.
- Theorizing: This is the systematic sorting out of data. Alternative explanations of the phenomenon are developed by the researcher to determine their correlation with the data.

To make sense of the data, Parahoo (1997, p:130), stated the following steps are necessary:

- Responses during the focus group interview were transcribed verbatim and read in order to get used to them.
- Significant statements that pertain to the experience under investigation were extracted.
- Statements were used to formulate meanings.
- Statements were then organized into clusters.
- Themes were used to provide full description of the experience.
- The researcher returned the description to the original source for confirmation of validity.

In this study, meanings were formulated from extracted statements and then clustered into themes to provide full meaning of the experience. The participants were consulted to ensure or confirm the credibility of the description.

## 4.2. The Students' Interview

The researcher made an interview in order to check the level of students' speaking skill to validate the questionnaire instrument. The subjects of the interview were the same 80 students drawn from the Department of English, College of Education and Arts, Nyala University Sudan, they were a sample of the same subjects in the main study. The total number of the questionnaire items were 42 statements. The first 3 statements represent personal questions and the other 39 statements related to students' leaning styles and their opinion about teacher's teaching styles. The statements were set by the researcher. Subjects were asked to indicate the frequency of their feelings and preferred leaning styles by putting a tick in the appropriate box indicating their choice (Yes or No).

No questions were raised from the subjects, no misunderstanding or confusion. In addition, the time was suitable (formal class). After piloting the study using the SPSS program, the 42 statements were kept to constitute the final version of the questionnaire.

### 4.2.1. Description of the Students' Interview

A students' interview was prepared by the researcher to describe the students' ability of the speaking skill. It is considered as **a pilot study** to determine our **problem of the current research**. The students will have an opportunity to show what they understand and how they express themselves in real situations. This interview will reflect real life situations and students will learn a lot from it. It also helps to create a need for our study "Matching Teaching and Learning Styles in Developing Students' Speaking through Competence". The researcher lets students to work on language and see how they use

it for, like introducing themselves, describing accommodations of their home, towns or villages. The researcher has chosen simple activities to see, "to what extent do students face lacking in using the spoken language". It is important that the students need to understand the aim of activities before participating in it. It will raise learners' awareness of the learning process and give them an idea of where the conversation is going. The analysis of the interview is a descriptive one, and it is beneficial for our study to be sure that, the students of Nyala university have a problem in the speaking skill. So, this interview is considered as **a pilot study to the main study.**

The researcher used the following technique for group discussion:

- The researcher conducted the focus group interview with the participants using an interview guide with semi-structured questions.
- The researcher maintained eye contact with the participants.
- The researcher used simple questions for the students to introduce topics such as “ introducing yourself.”
- The interview techniques of probing (verbal and non- verbal) were used. These included probing or "exploring", silence, prompting as well as summarizing. The researcher used phrases such as “Could you elaborate more on that point?”, maintained eye contact to encourage participants to continue speaking. The researcher summarized the last statements of the participants and encouraged more talk (Holloway & Wheeler 2002, p:98).

- The researcher used a semi-structured interview guide, but the line of questioning and responses from participants maintained flexibility and consistency.
- The researcher asked if there were more questions or comments. This assisted in closure of the interview. The researcher summarized the interview proceedings by restating in her own words the ideas and opinions of the participants, to ensure understanding. The participants were told of the need for follow-up interviews should there be any aspects that were not clear.

According to Holloway and Wheeler (2002, p:113), noted taking is an important activity, but it might disturb the participants. To limit this, the researcher informed the participants that notes would be taken during the interview.

- A non-participant took notes so that non-verbal behavior of the participants as well as the researcher's reactions and comments could be recorded.
- This method of collecting data acts as a back-up of the information obtained on the audiotape.

Note taking was done discreetly to avoid distracting the participants.

The following factors were considered by the researcher to ensure a successful interview:

- Permission to use the tape recorder was sought before the interview. All the participants consented to its use.
- Use of the tape recorder enabled the researcher to maintain eye contact with the participants.

Preservation of participants' words during data collection is very important. The following tips enabled the success of the interview:

- The tape recorder was positioned close enough between the researcher and participants to record conversation.

- The tape recorder was tested prior to the interview to ensure that it was in good working order.

The electric socket in the room was also tested before the interview. Batteries were inserted in the tape recorder in case of electric power failure.

#### **4.2.2. Procedures of Data Collection and Analysis**

The questionnaire was administered directly to the students by the researcher. They were given 40 minutes to fill in the questionnaire. The subject were informed before filling in the questionnaire that the results of the questionnaire will contribute to the improvement of teaching speaking in Sudan and that their answers would not be disclosed to anyone except the researcher himself. They were asked to write their gender and class. The data got from the questionnaire were computed and analysed by using the (SPSS) programme. The results from the computer were tabulated, discussed and added to this thesis. Having described the methodology used in the study, it is time to shift to the analysis of the data.

##### **Data Analysis Techniques**

After receiving the responses to the questionnaire, the researcher classified them according to their speaking level. The whole of all student has been counted and entered into the computer using the SPSS program.

In order to check the apparent validity for the study questionnaire and validation of its statements according to the formulation and explanation, the researcher referred the first version of the

questionnaire to four referees. One of them is specialized in statistic, the others two in linguistics and methodology. Three are Sudanese, and one is Egyptian. Their comments were used as a guide for determining whether or not this questionnaire was well set in the basis of language, whether the result would match statistically, and whether the statements were relevant to the topic.

### **Statistical Reliability and Validity**

It is meant by the reliability of any test to obtain the same results if the same measurement is used more than one time under the same conditions. In addition, the reliability means when a certain test was applied on a number of individuals and the marks of every one were counted; then the same test applied another time on the same group and the same marks were obtained; then we can describe this test as reliable. In addition, reliability is defined as the degree of the accuracy of the data that the test measures.

Here are some of the most used methods for calculating the reliability:

- Split-half by using Spearman-Brown equation.
- Test and Re-test method
- Equivalent images method.

On the other hand, validity also is a measure used to identify the validity degree among the respondents according to their answers on certain criterion. The validity is counted by a number of methods, among them is the validity using the square root of the (reliability coefficient). The value of the reliability and the validity lies in the range between (0,1). The validity of the questionnaire is that the tool should measure the exact aim, which it has been designed for.

The researcher calculated the validity statistically using the following equation:

$$\mathbf{Validity} = \sqrt{\mathbf{Reliability}}$$

He calculated the reliability coefficient for the measurement, which was used in the questionnaire using (split-half) method. This method stands on the principle of dividing the answers of the individuals sample into two parts, for example, items of the odd numbers e.g. (1, 3, 5, ...) and answers of the even numbers e.g. (2,4,6 ...). Then Pearson correlation coefficient between the two parts is calculated. Finally, the (reliability coefficient) was calculated according to Spearman-Brown Equation as the following:

$$\mathbf{Reliability\ Coefficient} = \frac{2xr}{1+r}$$

**r = Pearson correlation coefficient**

For calculating the validity and the reliability of the questionnaire from the above equation, the researcher distributed about (80) questionnaire copies to the respondents. In addition, depending on the answers of the self-test sample, the above Spearman-Brown equation was used to calculate the reliability coefficient using the split-half method; the results are shown in the following table:

	<b>Correlation coefficient</b>	<b>Reliability</b>	<b>Validity</b>
<b>Over all</b>	<b>0.77</b>	<b>0.87</b>	<b>0.93</b>

**Table (4.0) The Statistical Reliability and Validity of the Self-test Questionnaire**

It is noted from the results of the above table that all reliability and validity coefficients for pre-test sample individuals about each questionnaire's theme, and for over all questionnaire, are greater than

(50%), and some of them are nearest to one. This indicates the high validity and reliability of the answers. So, the study questionnaire is valid and reliable, and that will give correct and acceptable statistical analysis. In order to satisfy the study objectives and to test its hypotheses, the researcher uses the following statistical instruments:

- Graphical figures.
- Frequency distribution.
- Person correlation coefficient.
- Spearman-Brown equation for calculating Reliability coefficient.
- Non-parametric Chi-square test.

In order to obtain accurate results, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used. In addition, to design the graphical figures, which are needed for the study, the computer program (Excel) was also used application of the Study's Tool:

After checking the questionnaire reliability and validity, the researcher distributed the questionnaire to the determined study sample (80) students, and he constructed the required tables for collected data. This step consisted of transforming the qualitative (nominal) variables (Yes-No) to quantitative (numerical)

### **4.3.The Students' Questionnaire**

The questionnaire was handed to eighty (80) first year B.Ed. students chosen randomly from a total population of a hundred and fifty six (156) students, Department of English Language at Nyala

University, Sudan. The choice of First year students was based on the assumption that they have already been introduced to the English language, and started to get an idea about how they best learn it. The students' questionnaire was submitted by the researcher whose role was to explain the aim of the questionnaire, and the points that the students found unclear. The 80 questionnaires were returned as they were filled in during the class of time.

#### **4.3.1. Description of the Students' Questionnaire**

The questionnaire involves a learning style survey adapted from Cohen and Oxford, (2009, p:414), learning style questionnaire. The 35 statements (or questions) cover the Felder and Silverman's learning styles (sensing-intuitive, visual-auditory, inductive-deductive, active-reflective and global-analytic styles) with an addition of the kinesthetic style. Students were asked to respond to each statement as it is applied to their study of English on a two-point scale (Yes/No). This self-report questionnaire aids students to identify the way they prefer to learn. It is divided into three parts.

##### **Part One: Personal Information**

In this section, the students were required to indicate their sex in Q1, and how long they have been studying English in Q2.

##### **Part Two: Learning Styles: How students Use Their Physical Senses**

This question seeks information about the students' learning styles. It is divided into five 5 parts in which we find thirty five 35 statements. In part one, the students were asked to choose their preferred

learning styles through 15 statements divided into three groups A-B-C. Visual, auditory, and kinesthetic are the styles that represented in this part by fifteen 15 statements. From 3.1 to 3.5, it is the visual style; from 3.6 to 3.10, it is the kinesthetic style; and from 3.11 to 3.15, it is the auditory style.

How do you use your possibilities?

In this question, the students were asked to put the option that best match their approaches (Yes or No). This part consists of 5 statements numbered from 4.1 to 4.5 . The first three represent the intuitive style, whereas the other two represent the concrete style.

How do you deal with language rules? In this question, the students found 5 statements from 5.1 to 5.2 represent the deductive and from 5.3 to 5.4 are the inductive styles.

How students deal with response time and expose themselves to learning Situations? Students were required to choose their best way for processing information through being active, reflective or both. In this part, the active style is represented through the statements 1.6 and 6.2, whereas the statements 6.3 indicate to both active and reflective styles. The last two statements 6.4) and 6.5 identify the reflective style.

How Students Deal with Multiple Inputs?

The statements 7.1 and 7.2 correspond to the sequential style, while statements 7.3, 7.4, and (7-5) identify the global style.

### **Part Three: Teaching Styles**

This part investigates the students' opinions about their teachers behavior in the classroom.

The questions 01 to 07 represent the students' opinions about their English teachers in:

- whether the students have difficulties in understanding their lectures,
- re-explain the unclear points in different ways.
- provide group/pair work activities during the lecture,
- give class projects to do,
- provide opportunities for the whole class to participate,
- support their lessons with visual aids such as pictures and diagrams. and whether,
- motivate students in the terms of being willing to attend their classes.

### 4.3.2. Analysis and Interpretation of the Results of the Students' Questionnaire

Question 01: Gender: Tick (√)

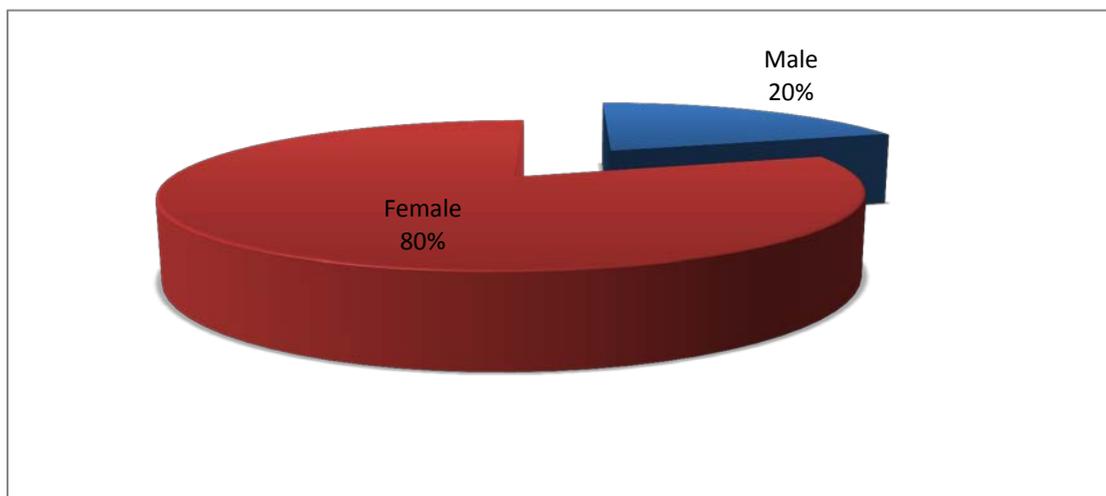
a. Male ( )

b. Female ( )

Gender	N	%
Male	16	20
Female	64	80
<b>Total</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 4.1**

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers about Gender.



**Figure 4.1**

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers about Gender.

According to information shown in table and figure 4.1, we notice that, male students are less than female once. The majority 80% are female subjects. The results indicate that, females are more interested in studying English than males.

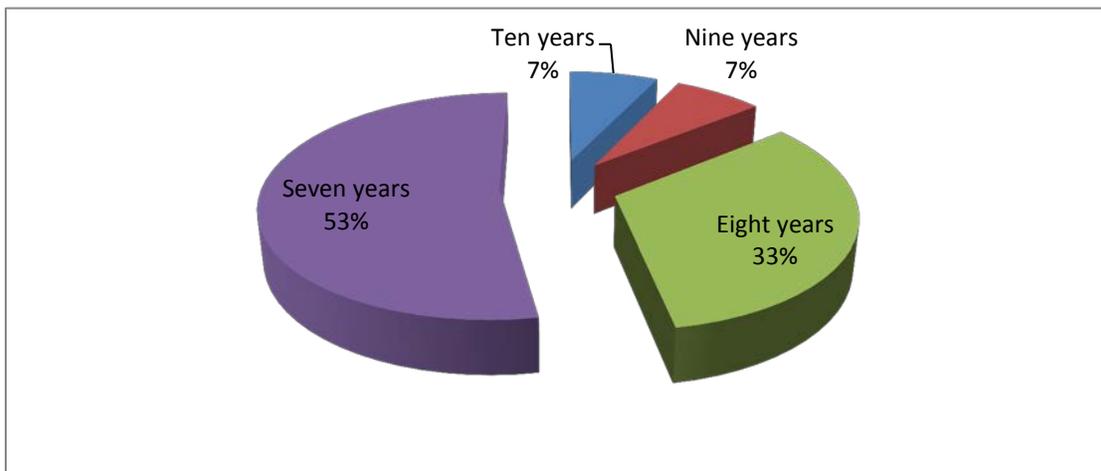
**Question 02: How long have you been studying English?**

- a. Seven ( )
- b. Eight ( )
- c. Nine ( )
- d. Ten ( )

Age	Numbers of years	N	%
Nineteen	10 years	05	7
Eighteen	9 yeas	05	7
Seventeen	8 years	23	33
Sixteen	7 years	37	53
		80	100

**Table 4.2**

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers about Years of studying of English.



**Figure 4.2**

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers about Years of studying of English.

According to what is shown on table and figure **4.2**, it seems that all of the students have spent enough period of studying English. The results reveal that most of the students 53% spent at least seven years studying English.

**Question 03: How do you use your physical senses?**

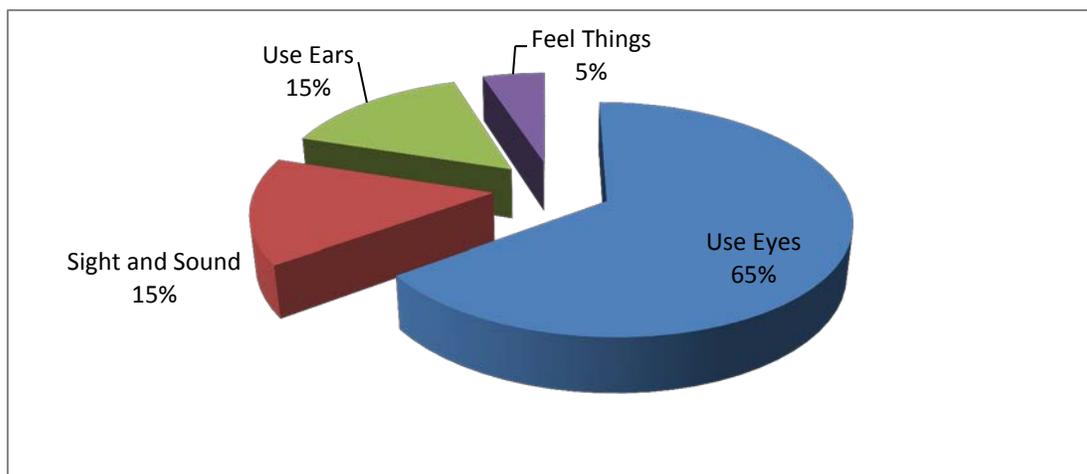
Tick (✓) one or two groups (A-B-C)

<b>Group (A) The visual Learners</b>	
<b>3.1</b>	Visuals materials in the lecture attract my attention.
<b>3.2</b>	I have to look at people to understand what they say.
<b>3.3</b>	I highlight the text in different colors when I read.
<b>3.4</b>	I am good at spelling but forget names.
<b>3.5</b>	I have to think for a while or before understanding the lecture.
<b>Group (B) The Kinesthetic Learners</b>	
<b>3.6</b>	I like role- playing.
<b>3.7</b>	I like to take breaks when studying.
<b>3.8</b>	When I write something, I don't have good hand writing.
<b>3.9</b>	I like to ask the teacher to diagram things out.
<b>3.10</b>	I like to use memory games, flash cards to memorize.
<b>Group (C) The Auditory Learners</b>	
<b>3.11</b>	I like listening to news from the radio.
<b>3.12</b>	When I listen, I see pictures and words in my head.
<b>3.13</b>	I remember something better if I write it down
<b>3.14</b>	I like lessons of Grammar.
<b>3.15</b>	I am good at explaining, enjoying music.

<b>Physical senses</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Use eyes	52	<b>65</b>
Use ears	12	<b>15</b>
Feel things	04	<b>05</b>
Sight and sound	12	<b>15</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 4.3**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Using Physical Senses.



**Figure 4.3**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Using Physical Senses.

Answers to this question as shown in Table and Figure 4.3, reveal surprising results in which the visual style is the most dominant style represented by a percentage of 65%, and the next higher percentage is both the auditory style and the visual-auditory with 15% for each. The results illustrate that, most of the students who learn English as a second language are visuals, their attitudes towards the necessity of seeing visual teaching materials and authentic language.

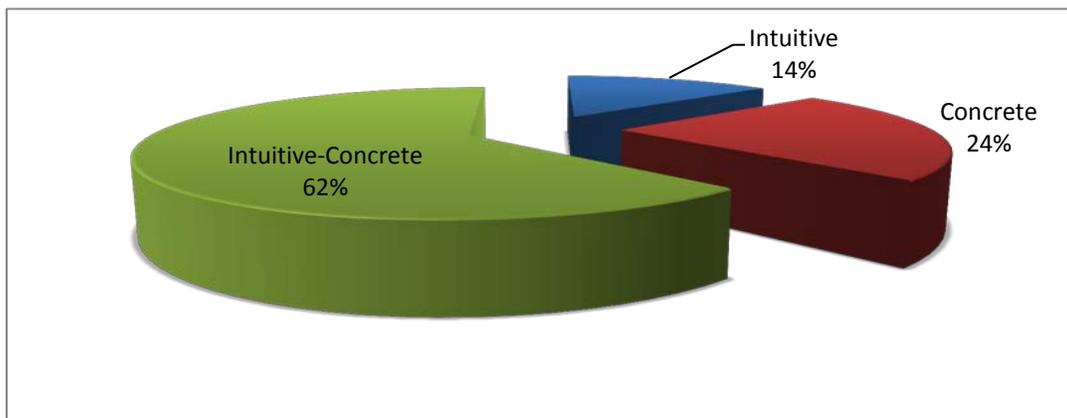
**Question 04: How do you use your possibilities?**

	<b>Statements</b>	Yes	No
<b>4.1.</b>	I move my hands a lot when I speak.		
<b>4.2.</b>	During my free time, generally enjoy playing sport.		
<b>4.3.</b>	When I go practice speaking, I tend to repeat words loudly.		
<b>4.4.</b>	In a lecture, I am interested in doing something.		
<b>4.5.</b>	When I have to revise for an exam, I generally practice topics directly.		

<b>Styles</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Intuitive	11	<b>14</b>
Concrete	19	<b>24</b>
Intuitive-Concrete	50	<b>62</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 4.4**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Using Possibilities.



**Figure 4.4**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Using Possibilities.

As shown in table and figure 4.4, above, the higher percentage is 62% represents the intuitive-concrete style. It means, most of the students have stretched their styles to be intuitive, and concrete at the same time. Whereas, just 24% represent the concrete style and only 14% for the intuitive style. The results illustrate that, the teachers must give enough space to intuitive-concrete leaning than intuitive and concrete separately.

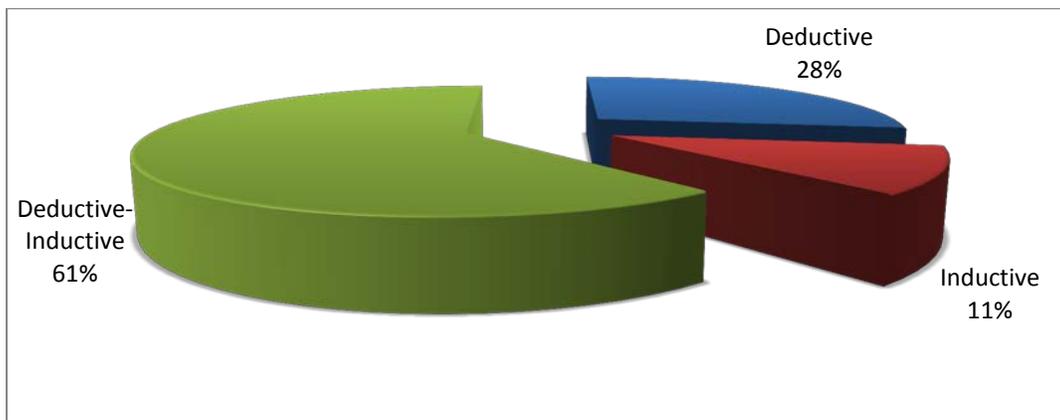
**Question 05: How do you deal with language rules?**

	Statements	Yes	No
5.1.	I like to go from general patterns to specific examples in learning a target language.		
5.2.	I like to start with rules and theories rather than specific examples		
5.3.	I like to learn language rules indirectly through being exposed to a lot of examples of grammatical structures and other language features.		
5.4.	I do not really care if I hear a rule stated since I do not remember rules very well anyway.		
5.5.	I easily remember rules that I hear from the teacher.		

Styles	N	%
Deductive	22	28
Inductive	09	11
Deductive-Inductive	49	61
<b>Total</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 4.5**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Dealing with Language Rules.



**Figure 4.5**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Dealing with Language Rules.

From table and figure 4.5, we infer that 61% of the students have adopted both deductive and inductive styles, while from the remaining 28% of them prefer the deductive style to deal with language rules, and 11% feel comfortable with the inductive style. The results illustrate that, most of the students have agreed that, the teachers must use deductive-inductive styles to give them opportunities for interaction and discussion.

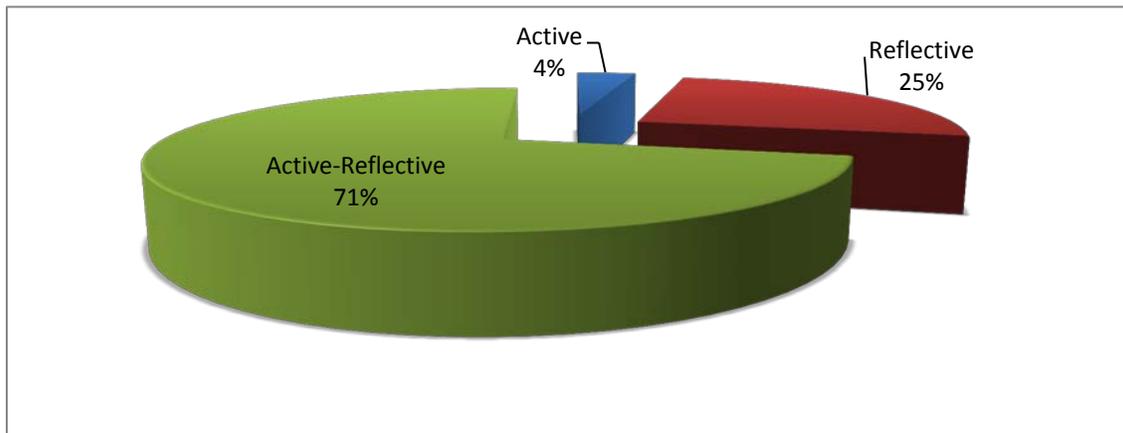
**Question 06: How do you deal with response time?**

	Statements	Yes	No
6.1.	I learn better when I study with others than by myself.		
6.2.	I meet new people easily by jumping into the conversation.		
6.3.	I learn better in the classroom than with a private tutor.		
6.4.	It is easy for me to talk to strangers.		
6.5	Talking with other students in class gives me energy.		

Styles	N	%
Active	03	04
Reflective	20	25
Active-Reflective	57	71
<b>Total</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 4.6**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Responding to Learning Situation.



**Figure 4.6**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Responding to Learning Situation.

According to what is shown in Table and Figure 4.6, the teachers prefer active learners; those who take the risk of answering quickly. On the one hand, we notice 71% of the subjects are both active and reflective. it might be considered as a negative feature for the students to stretch their style instead of restricting themselves to merely one style. On the other hand, we find that the reflective style is represented by 25%, and the active style is represented by 04%. These two rates might indicate the reason behind the silent moments in the classrooms.

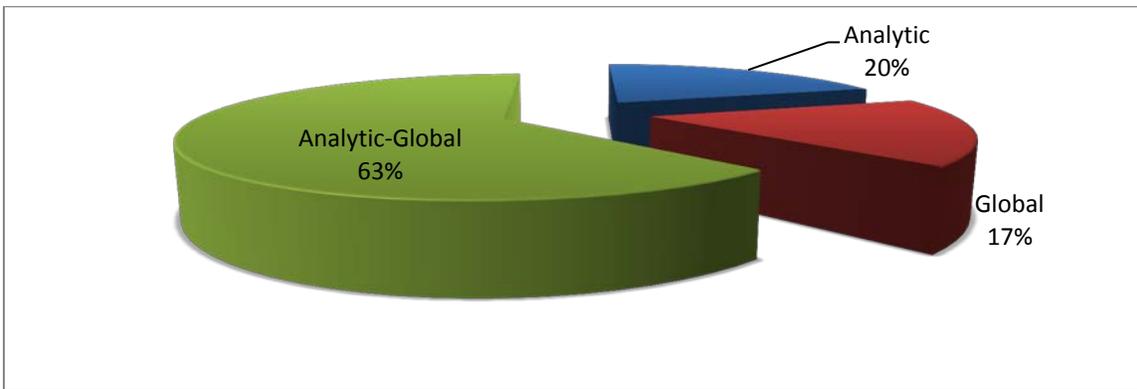
**Question 07: How do you deal with multiple inputs?**

	<b>Statements</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>
<b>7.1.</b>	When I produce an oral or written message in a target language, I make sure that all the grammatical structures are in agreement.		
<b>7.2.</b>	I do not only attend to grammar, but check for appropriate level of formality and politeness.		
<b>7.3.</b>	It is a challenge for me to focus on communication in speech or writing while paying attention to grammatical agreement (for example, person, number, tense, or gender).		
<b>7.4.</b>	When I use lengthy sentences in a target language, I get distracted and neglect aspects of grammar and style.		
<b>7.5</b>	I understand things better when the teacher writes on the board.		

<b>Styles</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Analytic	16	<b>20</b>
Global	14	<b>17</b>
Analytic-Global	50	<b>63</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 4.7**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Dealing with Multiple Input.



**Figure 4.7**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Dealing with Multiple Input.

Responses to this question item in table and figure 4.7, it shown that, students have the ability to be equally global and analytic representing 63% of our sample. Then, we find that 20% of the respondents are analytic, while 17% are global. The results illustrate that, the analytic-global styles is suitable for the students to improve their abilities to use the language in oral situations.

**Question 08: Do you find difficulties in understanding your lectures?**

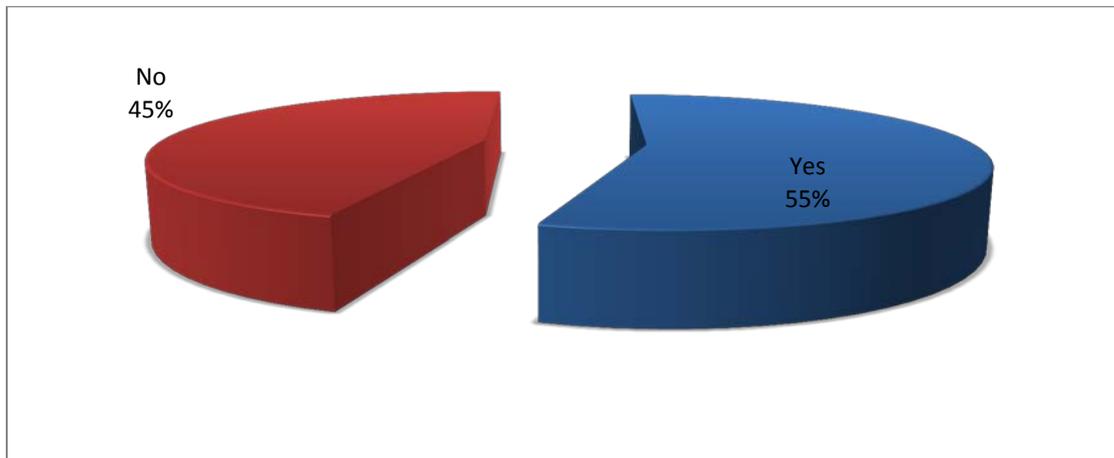
**Yes** ( )

**No** ( )

Options	N	%
Yes	44	55
No	36	45
<b>Total</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table: 4.8**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Difficulties in Understanding the Lecture.



**Figure 4.8**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Difficulties in Understanding the Lecture.

The information represented on table and figure 4.8, above, one can infer that 55% of the subjects are finding difficulties in understanding their lectures. This problem might be the consequence of the mismatch between the students' learning styles and the teacher's teaching styles. However, 45% of our sample do not find problem in grasping what is presented in the classroom.

**Question 09: Does your teacher re-explain the points in different ways?**

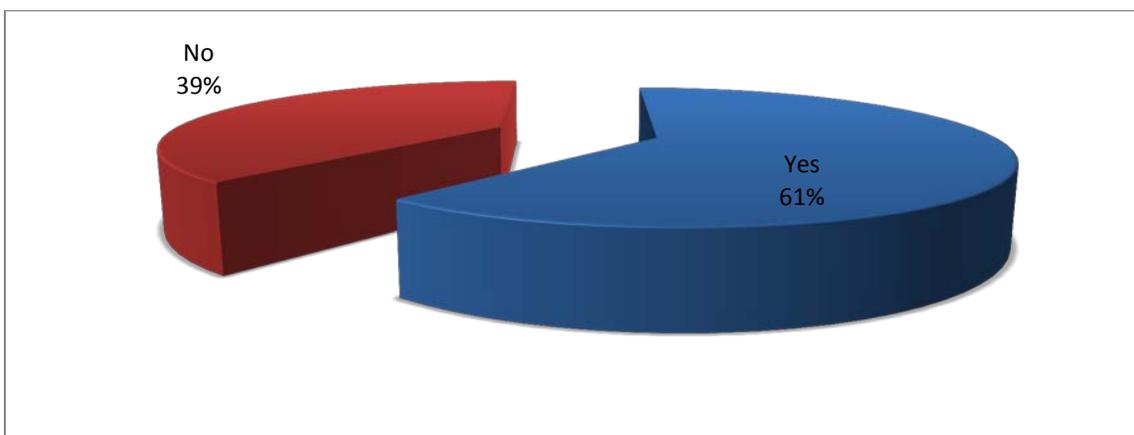
**Yes** ( )

**No** ( )

Options	N	%
Yes	49	<b>61</b>
No	31	<b>39</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 4.9**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Re-explain the Points in Different Ways.



**Figure 4.9**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Re-explain the Points in Different Ways.

The information illustrated in both table and figure 4.9, About 61% of the subjects have agreed that, their teachers do not using different ways in transmitting the information. 39% of the answers were "No". This might indicate that, the teachers are using different ways in transmitting the information.

**Question 10: Does your teacher provide group/pair work activities?**

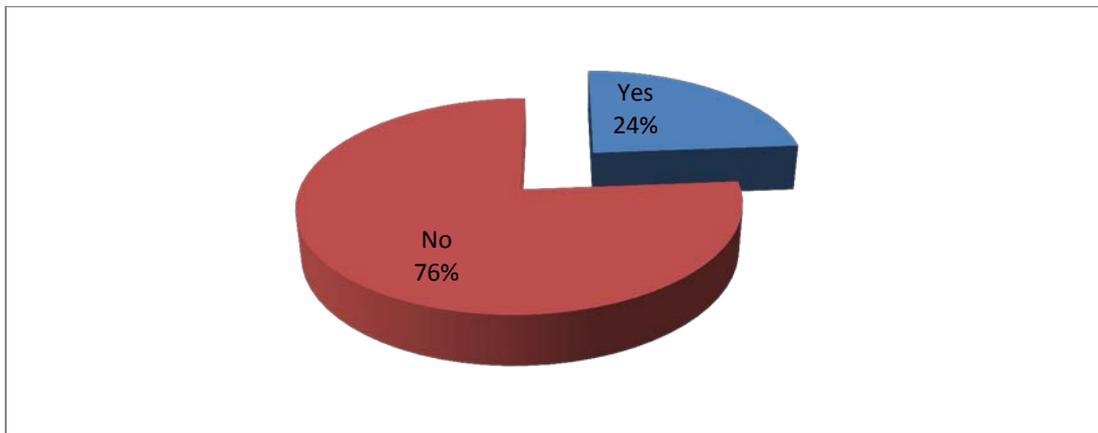
**Yes** ( )

**No** ( )

Options	N	%
Yes	19	<b>76</b>
No	61	<b>24</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 4.10**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Group/pair work Activities.



**Figure 4.10**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Group/pair work Activities.

Hence, we find that 76% of responses have chosen the answer "No". This might reveal the fact that most of the teachers do not organize group / pair work activities during lessons. However, 24% of the respondents have chosen the answer "Yes". In view of the results obtained from that question, group / pair work activities are preferred by those who are more extroverts in terms of getting the opportunity to interact, and work with others.

**Question 11: Does your teacher give class projects to do?**

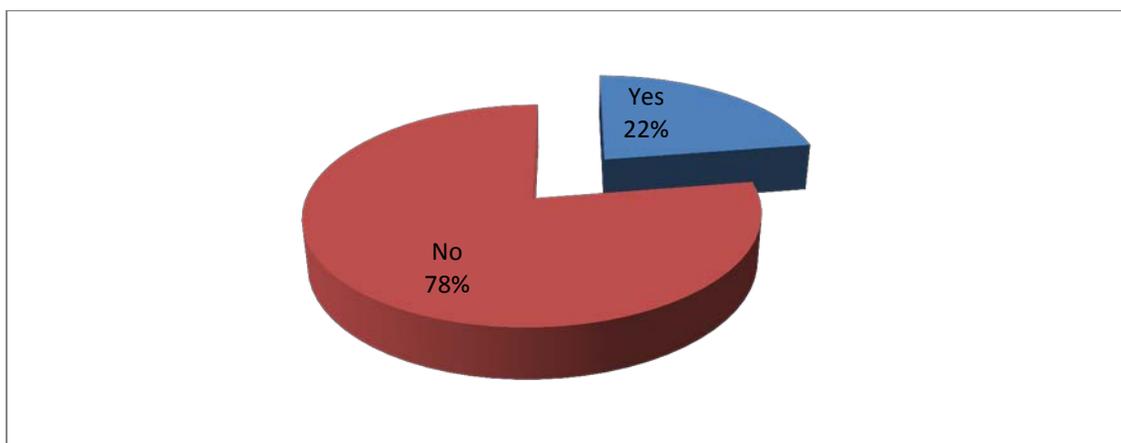
**Yes** ( )

**No** ( )

Options	N	%
Yes	18	22
No	62	78
<b>Total</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 4.11**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Doing Class project.



**Figure 4.11**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Doing Class project.

78% of the students answered "No". This leads us to assume that the majority of the teachers do not give class projects to be done by the students. But, there are 22% who answered "Yes" classified as "Kinesthetic students" need to be involved to experience things (projects viewed) as the most appropriate task for those students to learn best.

**Question 12: Does your teacher provide opportunities for the whole class to participate?**

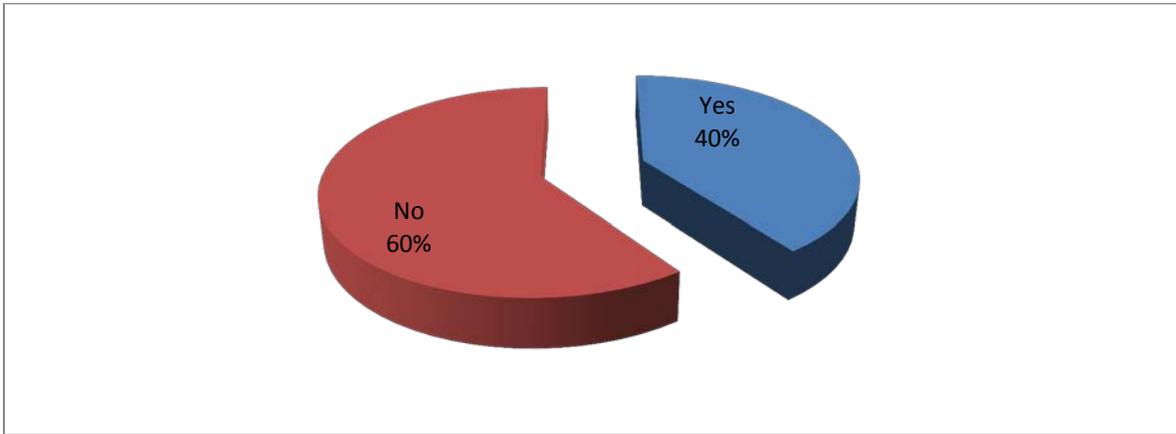
**Yes** ( )

**No** ( )

Options	N	%
Yes	32	<b>40</b>
No	48	<b>60</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 4.12**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Providing Opportunities to Participate.



**Figure 4.12**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Providing Opportunities to Participate.

From the answers obtained from this question, we find that 40% respondents have confirmed that, their teachers are providing chances for the whole class to contribute. However, 60% of our sample choose the answer "No", that means their teachers talk only with the active students. It is known that, reflective students need to think first, and then give their answers. Therefore, teachers should take this into consideration in order to give the same opportunity for the whole class to participate.

**Question 13: Does your teacher support lectures with pictures and diagrams?**

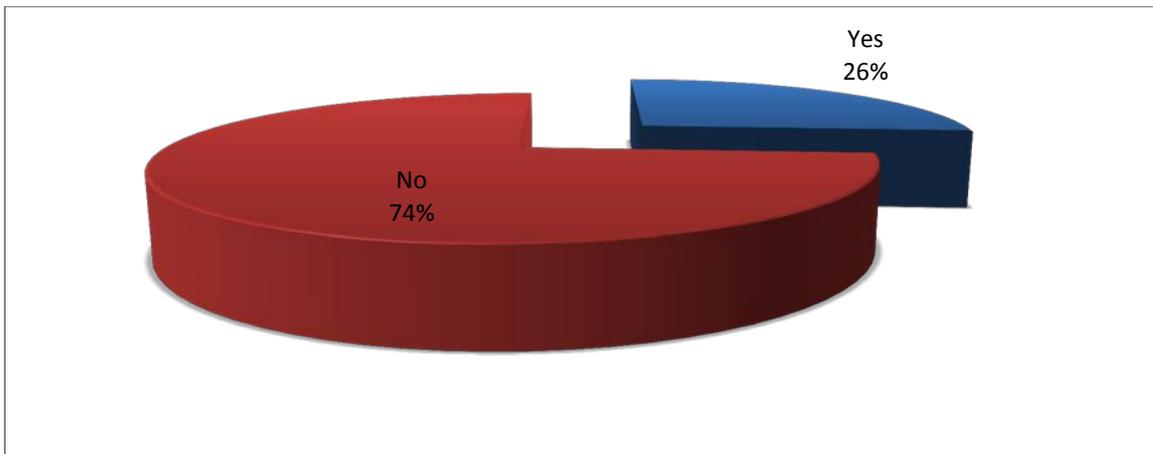
**Yes** ( )

**No** ( )

Options	N	%
Yes	21	<b>26</b>
No	59	<b>74</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 4.13**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Using of Pictures and Diagrams.



**Figure 4.13**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about Using of Pictures and Diagrams.

The information illustrated in table and **Figure 4.13**, a about 74% of the subjects denote that, most of the teachers do not, or do rarely use visual aids such as pictures, diagrams, demonstrations and projectors, whereas, only 26% of the answers are "yes". The results showed a clear mismatch between teaching and learning styles.

**Question 14: Are you willing to attend your class?**

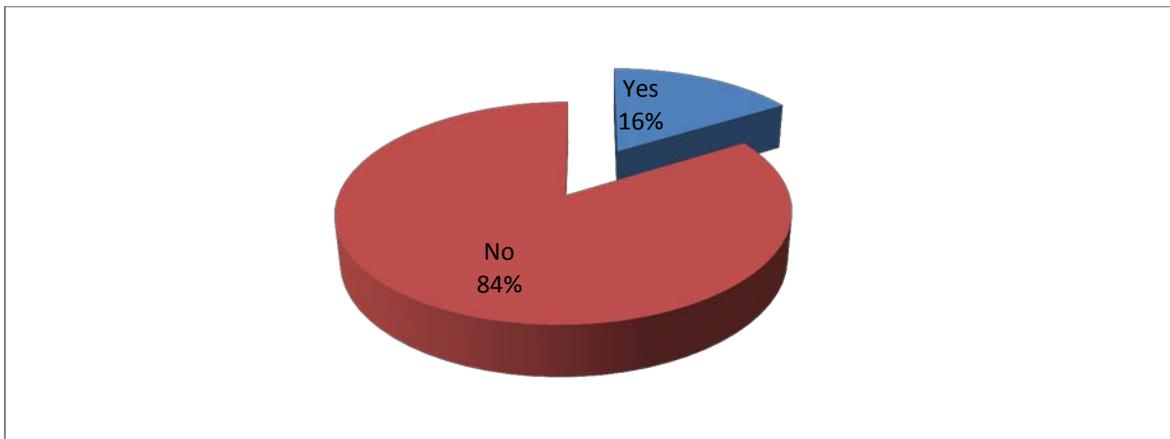
**Yes** ( )

**No** ( )

Options	N	%
Yes	13	<b>16</b>
No	67	<b>84</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 4.14**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about their Willing to Attend the Class.



**Figure 4.14**

The Frequency Distribution for the Students' Answers about their Willing to Attend the Class.

As the results shown in table and **Figure 4.14**, we find that the majority of the students are not willing to attend their class, whereas only 16% of the subjects are yes. This results lead to consider motivation when teaching, to enhance students' desires.

### **Findings From Student's Questionnaire**

1. About 80% students are females. This results indicated that, females learners are more interested in learning faculty of languages than males. According to the information showed in table 01, actually, we have noted just 16 male subjects 20% whereas 64 female subjects have been noted 80%.
2. All of the students spent more than seven years studying English, but their level in the spoken English is rather low. The results in table 02 revealed that, English is taught in the Sudanese curricula and is one of the subjects that qualifies its learners to join the Sudanese universities and higher institutes. Teaching English starts at the fifth level of primary school and continues until

the third class of secondary school level with an average of about four instruction hours per week.

3. The visual style is the most dominant style which is represented by a percentage of 65%, and the next higher percentage is the auditory and the visual-auditory styles with 15% for each of them, this information illustrated that most of the students who learn English as a second language are visual learners, their attitudes towards the necessity of seeing visuals teaching materials and authentic language.
4. About 62%, students are the intuitive-concrete style. it means, most of the students have stretched their styles to be intuitive and concrete at the same time. Whereas, just 24%, represent the concrete style and only 14% for the intuitive style. The results illustrated that the teachers must give enough space to the intuitive-concrete styles than the intuitive and concrete separately.
5. About 61% students have adopted both the deductive and the inductive styles, while from the remaining 28% of the students prefer the deductive style to deal with language rules, and 11% feel comfortable with the inductive style. The results illustrated that, most of the students agreed that, they are familiar with the teachers using of deductive-inductive styles, to give them opportunities for interaction and discussion during the classroom lectures.
6. About 71% of the students are both active and reflective. On the one hand, it might be considered as a negative feature for the students to stretch their style instead of restricting themselves to merely one style. On the other hand, we find that the reflective style is represented by 25%, and

the active style is represented by 04%. These two rates might indicate the reason behind the silent moments in the classrooms.

7. About 63% of the students are representing the analytic-global style. Then, we find that 20% are analytic while 17% are global. The results illustrated that, the analytic-global style is suitable for the students to improve their abilities to use the language in oral situation.
8. About 55% of the students are finding difficulties in understanding their lectures. These problems might be the consequence of the lectures' difficulties, and the mismatch between the students' learning styles and teacher's teaching styles. However, 45% of our sample do not find problem in grasping what is presented in the classroom.
9. About 61% of the answers were "yes" , while 39% were "no". This might indicate that most teachers tend to alter their ways of explaining in order to get students understand well. This question item is a follow-up to the previous one because those who answer "yes". This might indicate that, the teachers are using different ways in transmitting the information.
10. About 76% have chosen the answer "No". This might reveal the fact that most teachers do not organizing group / pair work activities during lessons. However, 24% of the respondents have chosen the answer "Yes". These students may find that the group / pair work activities that given in the classroom are sufficient for them.
11. A bout 77% of the students correspond to the answer "No". This leads us to assume that the majority of teachers do not give class projects to be done by the students. But, there are 23% who

answered “Yes” classify as "kinesthetic students" need to be involved to experience things (projects viewed) as the most appropriate task for those students to learn best.

12. About 60% of the students confirmed that their teachers do not providing chances for the whole class to contribute. However, 40% of the students have chosen the answer “Yes”, to illustrate that, their teachers talk only with students they know. It is known that reflective students need to think things first, and then give their answers. Therefore, teachers should take this into consideration in order to give the same opportunities for the whole class to participate.

13. About 74% of the students denoted that, most of the teachers do not, or do rarely use visual aids such as pictures, diagrams, demonstrations and over-head projectors, whereas visual aids assist visual students to learn more effectively.

14. About 84% of the students are not willing to attend the class, whereas only 16% of the students are yes. This question lead us to match or mismatch between learning and teaching styles since motivation is not involved to be correlated with leaning styles. This results support the first hypothesis in this research, "If the university teachers understand their students' learning preferences, to be matched with teaching styles, the problem of speaking would be solved"

#### **4.4. Overall Analysis and Interpretation of the Results of the Students' Interview and the Students' Questionnaire**

In the interview survey, the students felt in the speaking activities. The three diverse instructional activities which given to participants in a form of spoken topics were beneficial in helping them to

develop their speaking if teaching styles would be matched their learning styles. On the other hand when the interviews introduced for the second time to different leaning styles groups (auditory-visual-kinaesthetic) of participants according to their leaning styles, the results will be different because of matching students' styles.

The interview has shown that the different groups have taken the same assignment match their leaning styles, 90% of the students who identified themselves as visual learners identified the visual assignment as the easiest. However 60% of auditory, verbal and kinaesthetic learners felt in the oral visuals interview. Ninety percent of visual learners reported the concept mapping assignment as the easiest. Thirty-nine percent of auditory learners reported the visuals activity is so difficult. In the same time 78% of the kinaesthetic learners selected the visual activity and the kinaesthetic activity, multimedia technology module, as the easiest. No statistically significant differences were found for final grades among the groups when we introduced activities matched their learning styles. Overall, most of the students reported that all the assignments were engaging and helped them to learn.

Sixty-five (65%) percent of the students were primarily visual learners, (15%) were primarily auditory learners, (15%) were visual-auditory learners, (05%) were kinaesthetic learners. Means and standard deviation for learning style are provided in Appendix 1 "Students' questionnaire".

The analysis of the students' questionnaire leads us to note that: A foreign language learning classroom is mainly based on the learner-teacher interaction which is affected by many aspects; among them, we find the learning and teaching styles through which the students will show certain preferred

styles that the teacher will respond to. The majority of the first year bachelor students at Nyala University have stretched their styles and chosen to be both styles of each dichotomy: intuitive-concrete, deductive-inductive, active-reflective and global-analytic. However, from the three sensory preferences (visual, auditory and kinesthetic), we notice that the most dominant style is the visual one. From the students' views, the majority of teachers tend to alter their ways in order to gain success in transmitting the information, and then, a great number of students will understand their lectures.

Opportunities for the whole class to participate, class projects and group pair-work are given by teachers for the reason of providing the appropriate conditions for the reflective, active and kinesthetic students to learn the way they prefer. Yet, little visual aids are provided in spite of the fact that most students are visual and the majority of students may be not motivated to learn English.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences to the respondents' answers in the first table is **65%** which is greater than the other answers. According to what is mentioned in table no. (4-1), there are statistically significant differences in students' learning styles among the answers of the respondents, which supports most of the respondents who cannot speak English fluently because most of them are visual and the teaching styles is not match their learning preferences. The calculated value also indicates to equal results presented **15%** of each auditory and visual-auditory learners and only **5%** for the kinaesthetic learner. This results explain the differentiate of the students' learning styles that shown clearly in the tables below,

No	Statements	Results
1	Visuals materials in the lecture attract my attention.	<b>65%</b>  <b>represent the visual style</b>
2	I have to look at people to understand what they say.	
3	I highlight the text in different colors when I read.	
4	I am good at spelling but forget names.	
5	I have to think awhile or before understanding the lecture.	

**Table: 4.15, the Visual Style**

No	Statements	Results
1	I like listening to news from the radio.	<b>15%</b>  <b>represent the Auditory style</b>
2	When I listen, I see pictures and words in my head.	
3	I remember something better if I write it down	
4	I like lecturers of Grammar.	
5	I am good at explaining, enjoys music.	

**Table 4.16, the Auditory Style**

No	Statements	Results
1	I like listening to news from the radio.	<b>15%</b> <b>represent the</b> <b>Visual-auditory</b> <b>style</b>
2	When I listen, I see pictures and words in my head.	
3	I remember something better if I write it down	
4	I like lecturers of Grammar.	
5	I am good at explaining, enjoys music	
6	Visuals materials in the lecture attract my attention.	
7	I have to look at people to understand what they say.	
8	I highlight the text in different colors when I read.	
9	I am good at spelling but forget names.	
	I have to think awhile or before understanding the lecture.	

**Table: 4.17, the Visual-auditory Style**

No	Statements	Results
1	I like role- playing.	<b>5%</b> <b>represent</b> <b>the kinaesthetic</b> <b>style</b>
2	I like to take breaks when studding.	
3	When I write something, I don't have good hand writing.	
4	I like to ask teacher to diagram things out.	
5	I like to use memory games, flash cards to memorize.	

**Table 4.18, the Kinaesthetic Style**

There are preferred learning styles that affect speaking English among Sudanese university students such as visual style, auditory style, kinesthetic style, verbal style and visual auditory style. The aim of this hypothesis is to show that the mismatch between teaching and learning styles as the main causes that hinder university students to speak English. The results showed that, for every 80 students we find: **52** visual learners, **12** auditory learners, **04** kinesthetic, **12** visual auditory, Yet **90%** of all teaching is auditory. That means we shortchange 8 out of ten students!

## **Conclusion**

From the discussion of the students' opinions about their teachers teaching styles, the researcher concludes that, the first hypotheses is confirmed. "If the university teachers understand their students' learning preferences, to be matched with teaching styles, the problem of speaking would be solved".

The results obtained from the students' questionnaire represent a clear mismatch between teaching and learning styles, at the same time, teachers do not understand their students' learning preferences to be matched with the teaching styles to solve the problem of oral fluency practice.

## ***Chapter Five: The Teachers' Opinions about their Teaching Styles***

<i>Introduction</i>	<b><i>Page</i></b>
<b><i>5.1. Description of the Teachers' Questionnaire</i></b>	<b><i>179</i></b>
<b><i>5.2. Analysis and Interpretation of the Results of the Teachers' Questionnaire</i></b>	<b><i>182</i></b>
<b><i>5.3. Summary of the Results of the Teachers' Questionnaire</i></b>	<b><i>212</i></b>
<i>Conclusion</i>	

## **Introduction**

The main interest of this part of the study is to show "to what extent the mismatches between teaching and learning styles affect in speaking English as a foreign language, through identifying them and to see where they are matched or mismatched". This chapter discussed teachers' questionnaire that designed to identify the teaching styles, the teachers' awareness of learning styles, and whether they take them into consideration.

Data on the teaching styles was obtained randomly from a sample of 40 English teachers of the English Languages Department at Nyala University "Sudan". We tried to submit this questionnaire to teachers who differ in terms of level of proficiency (the obtained degree), and their experience ( number of years teaching English) in order to get how these aspects are influencing the way these teachers teach their students.

### **5.1. Description of the Teachers' Questionnaire**

This questionnaire involves five questions that are introduced by Felder, and Silverman, (1988, p:118), through which teaching styles may be defined, and the other six questions are under the form of yes/ no questions, or open-ended ones. These questions attached with twenty statements divided into four tables related to teaching styles each table consist of five statements.

#### **Part One: Personal Questions "1 and 2"**

Through this part, teachers indicated their gender in Q1, degree in Q2.

#### **Part Two: How you present information in your classroom "From 3 to 7"**

This part seeks information about the teachers' teaching styles. It is divided into five questions: the first one is about the type of information that the teachers emphasize in Q1.(concrete or abstract-conceptual), the second has to do with what mode of presentation the teacher uses ( visual or verbal) instructions in Q2. Then the third one is concerned with the ways through which the teacher is organizing the lesson's content( deductive or inductive) in Q5. what type of students that the teacher

prefers in teaching second language (active or reflective) in Q6. While the last question deal with the type of perspective that the teacher provides on the content (global or sequential) in Q7.

**Part Three: The Consideration of Students Learning Styles "From 8 to 12"**

This part provides the teachers consideration about the students preferred learning styles "information presented, Students' preferred ways to learn, students' learning styles ,re-explaining the unclear points in different ways and identify students' preferences to be matched with teaching styles.

**Part Four: The Teachers' Awareness of Learning Strategies "From 12 to 16"**

Teachers in this section, were required to provide learning strategies in Q.12 the teachers asked to identify students learning preferences to matched with teaching styles, in Q.13 the teacher asked about creating reading and listening activities, then they moved to Q.14 which attempts to Identify possible correlation between teaching and learning preferences whether they know their students' learning styles. Q.15 is concerned with motivation in order to motivate students to make required changes in their speaking, Q.16 is deal with classroom management is a follow-up with the using of anger management strategies to attract students' attention.

**Part Five: The Teachers' Approaches in Teaching "From 17 to 21"**

Teachers in this part, were required to provide approaches to teaching in Q.17 the teachers asked about how far they introduce more information, to enhance students' ideas through direct instructions. In Q.18 they asked about presenting topics in the form of materials, objects, and events as nearly authentic learning environment,, then they moved to Q.19 which attempts to develop free interactive dialogue and discussion to promote students' speaking confidence, Q.20 helping students to develop reasoning and problem-solving skills, Q.21 is deal with assisting students' participation through translating difficult words into Arabic.

**Part Six: The Teachers' Techniques in Teaching "From 22 to 26"**

Teachers in this part, were required to provide techniques to teaching in Q.22 the teachers asked about the using of imaginary stories to enhance students' strategies in solving problems during discussion, In Q.23 they asked about promoting the respect of cultural differences to motivate shy students to share their ideas. then they moved to Q.24 which attempts to discussing topics with students according to their academic background, Q.25 express the set up classroom seating according to students' learning styles (groups),Q.26 is deal with motivating learners through using instructional media. (Data show, computer, laboratory)

**Part Seven: The Teachers' Using of Activities "From 27 to 30"**

Teachers in this part, were required to provide using of activities to develop speaking skill. In Q.27 the teachers asked about the using of discussion through introducing a topic of reading or listening to develop speaking. In Q.28 they asked about introducing an oral report where students present topics from notes, then they moved to Q.29 in which activities of simulation and role-play are introduced where students interact to solve problems. Q.30 is cover conversation as an objective to develop conversational competence. The last question explain the role of interview in a form of interaction question or situation in order to attract students' attention.

All the questions in these sections strive at getting an idea about the different ways the teachers use in explaining a certain point after identifying whether these teachers are altering their ways in the case of any misunderstanding.

## 5.2. Analysis and Interpretation of the Results of the Teachers' Questionnaire

In this section, all statements, presented in the questionnaire, will be proved statistically one by one based on the mutual frequencies and percentages. Each statement provided with a table and a figure reveals the frequency and percentage.

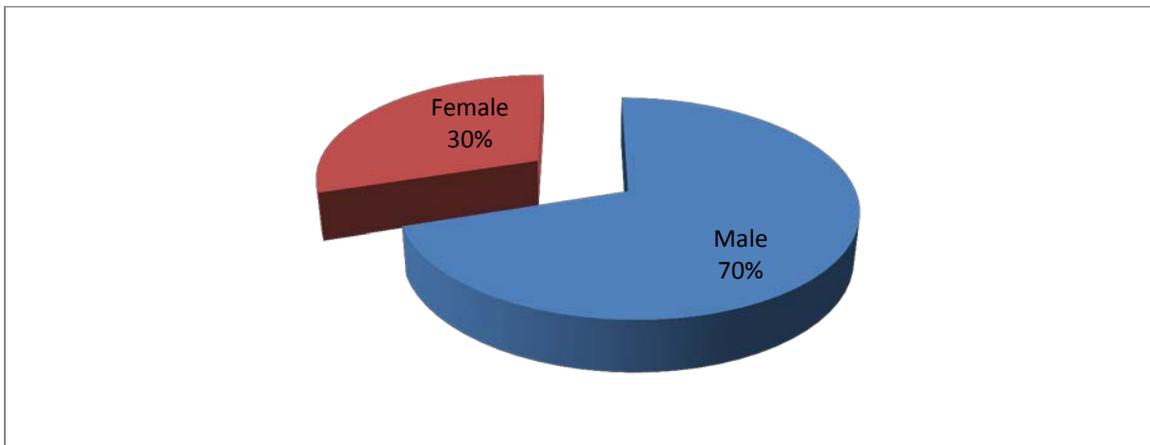
### Question 01: Gender

a. Male

b. Female

Gender	N	%
Male	28	70
Female	12	30
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.1**  
**Gender**



**Figure Table 5.1**  
**Gender**

According to information shown in table and figure **Table 5.1**, that females teaches are less than males ones. Actually, we have noted just 12 female subjects 30%, whereas 28 male subjects have been noted 70%. This results illustrate that females are rather less than males in teaching English at tertiary level.

**Question 02: Degree (s) held**

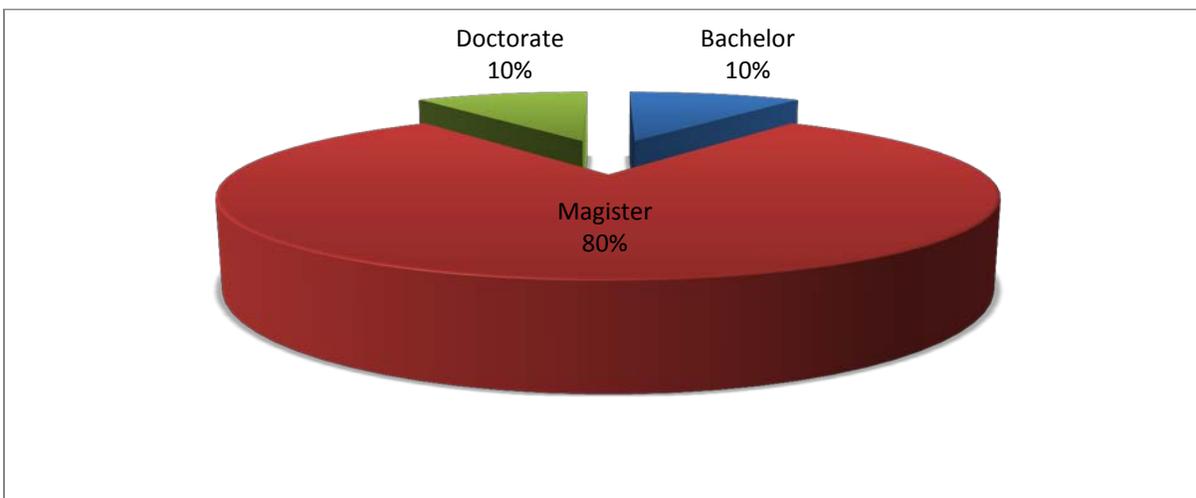
**a. Bachelor**

**b. Master**

**c. Doctorate**

<b>Degree</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Bachelor	4	<b>10</b>
Master	32	<b>80</b>
Doctorate	4	<b>10</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.2**  
**The obtained degree**



**Figure 5.2**

**The obtained degree**

The information illustrated in both table and figure 5.2, It is clear that most of the teachers held a Magister degree 80% whereas only 10% of our sample is representing each of the Bachelor and Doctorate degrees. This leads us to assume that most them have amount of knowledge about how to gain more effective teaching.

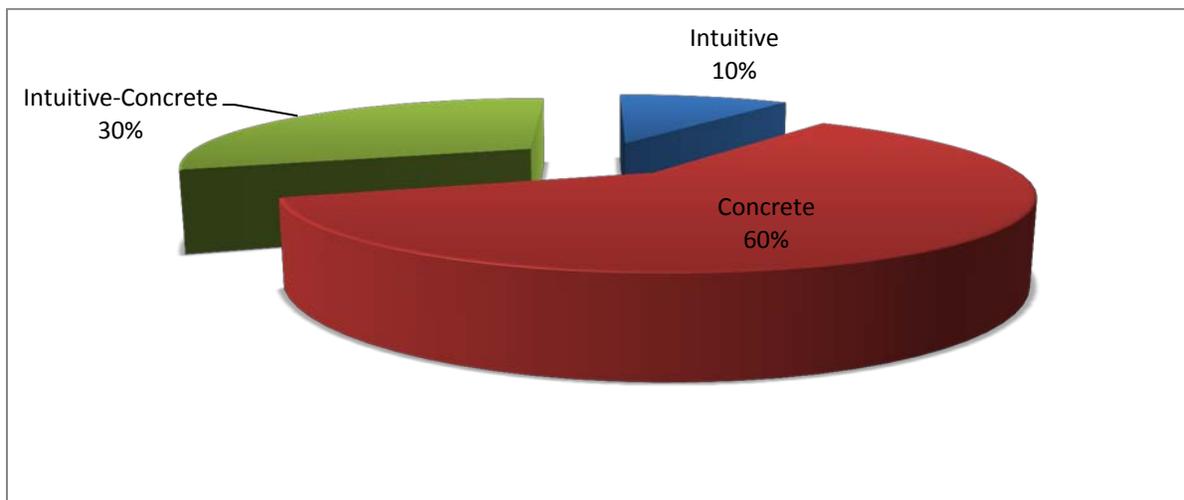
**Question 03: What type of information are you emphasizing ?**

- a. Intuitive**
- b. Concrete**
- c. Intuitive-concrete**

Styles	N	%
Intuitive	04	<b>10</b>
Concrete	24	<b>60</b>
Intuitive-Concrete	12	<b>30</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.3**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(3)**



**Figure 5.3**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(3)**

As shown in table and figure 5.3, above, the majority of teachers 60% use concrete information, whereas only 10% of our sample represent the intuitive style. Yet, there is a percentage of 30% of the respondents who use both styles. This result illustrates that, the teachers are not using different styles in their classrooms with the students of different learning styles.

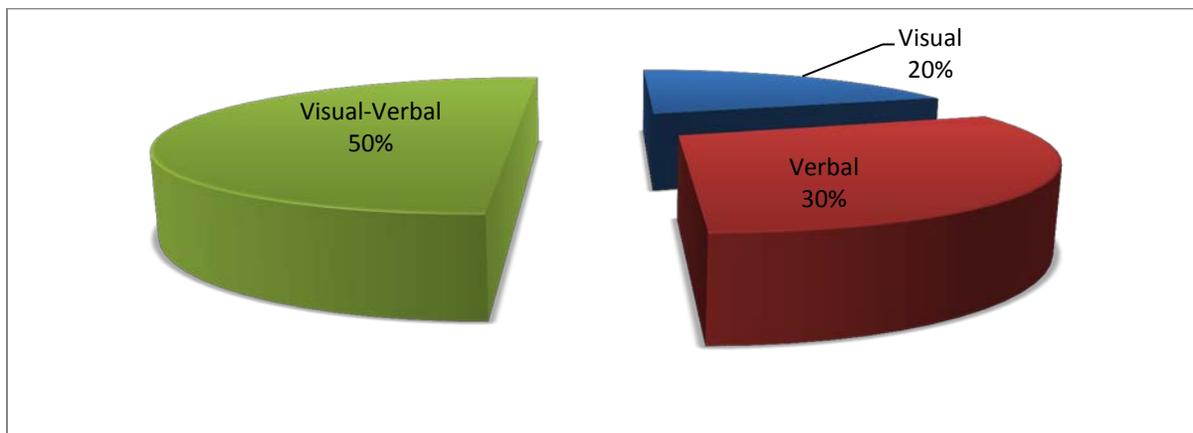
**Question 04: What Mode of Presentation do You use?**

- a. Visual
- b. Verbal
- c. Visual-verbal

Styles	N	%
Visual	08	20
Verbal	12	30
Visual-Verbal	20	50
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.4**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(04)**



**Figure 5.4**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(04)**

According to information correspond in both table and figure 5.4, the responses to this question reveal that 50% of the teachers who prefer both visual and verbal styles. and 20% prefer visual presentation for their lessons. However, 30% of our sample present their lessons through lectures, discussions and readings. So, the results is support learning interaction and develop students' speaking skill.

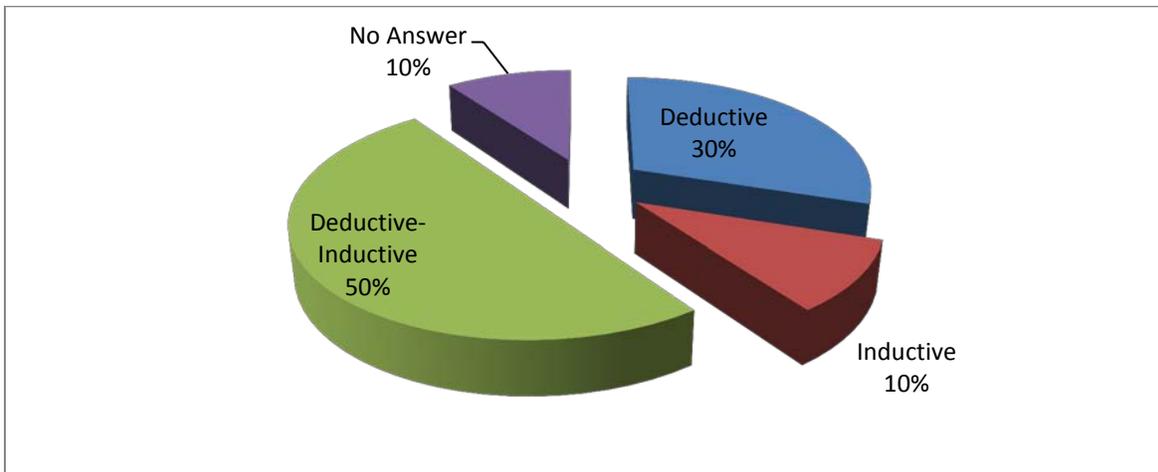
**Question 05: How do you organize the presentation of the content?**

- a. Deductive
- b. Inductive
- c. Deductive-Inductive

Styles	N	%
Deductive	12	30
Inductive	04	10
Deductive-Inductive	20	50
No Answer	04	10
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.5**

**The Frequency Distribution** for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(05)



**Figure 5.5**

**The Frequency Distribution** for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(05)

From table and figure 5.5, we notice that the majority of teachers 50% used both the deductive and inductive styles. This may be considered as a positive feature because teachers do not find difficulty in moving from one style to another. In contrast, there are 30% of the subjects who prefer the deductive style, and 10% feel at ease with presenting their lectures inductively.

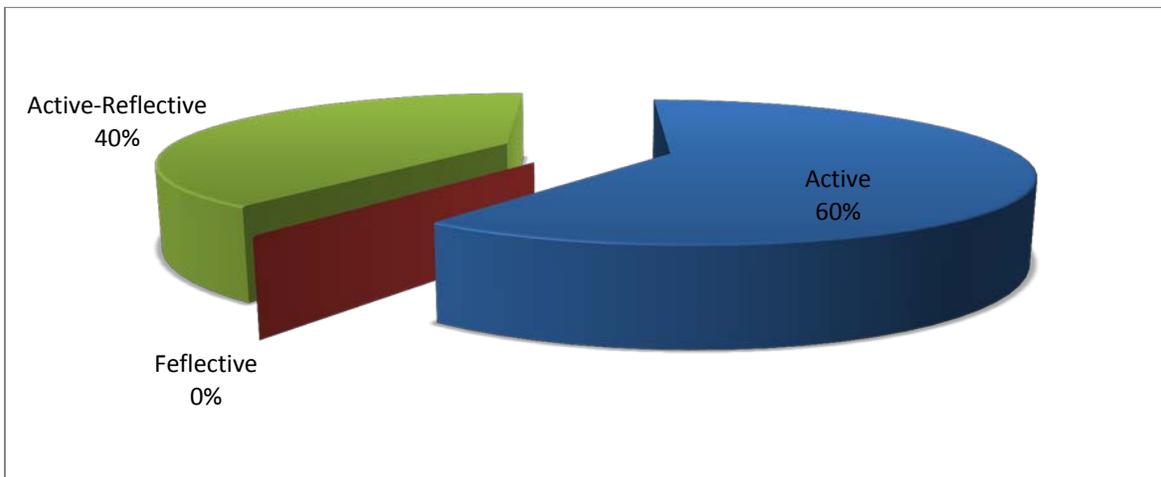
**Question 06: What kind of students do you prefer?**

- a. Active
- b. Reflective
- c. Active reflective

Styles	N	%
Active	24	<b>60</b>
Reflective	00	<b>00</b>
Active-Reflective	16	<b>40</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.6**

**The Frequency Distribution** for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(06)



**Figure 5.6**

**The Frequency Distribution** for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(06)

The information illustrated in table and figure 5.6 shown that most teachers 60% prefer active students, whereas 40% prefer both of them prefer active-reflective students. These two rates might indicate the reason behind the silent moments in classrooms.

**Question 07: What type of perspective do you provide on the Information presented**

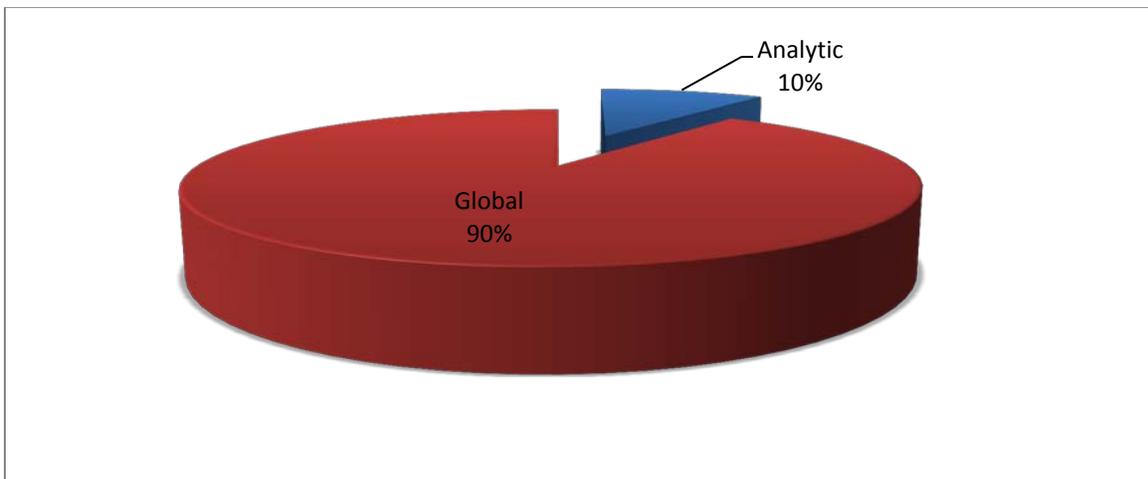
**a. Analytic**

**b. Global**

Styles	N	%
Analytic	04	10
Global	36	90
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.7**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(07)**



**Figure 5-7**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(07)**

We notice from table and figure 5.7, that, the majority of teachers 90% use the global style; they prefer to give first the general purpose, and relationships between aspects, while 10% of the respondents are analytic teachers.

**Question 08: Do you know your students' preferred ways to learn?**

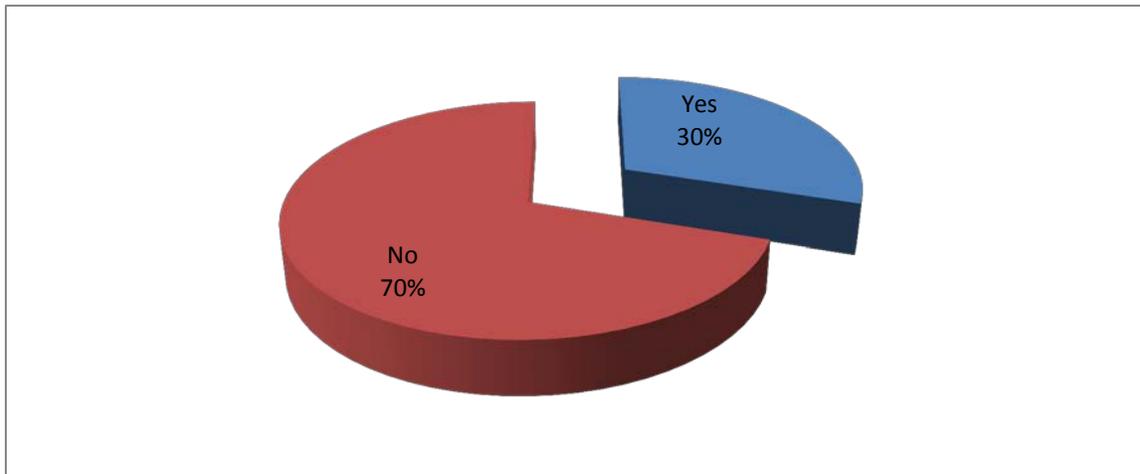
**Yes** (     )

**No** (     )

Options	N	%
Yes	12	<b>30</b>
No	28	<b>70</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.8**

**The Frequency Distribution** for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(08)



**Figure 5.8**

**The Frequency Distribution** for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(08)

The results shown in table and figure 5.8, Being aware about students' learning styles is not taken in teachers' consideration. So, from the obtained data, we find that, 70% of the teachers, do not take in their consideration students' learning styles because of the large number of students. But, there are a rate of 30% that represent teachers who are aware about their students' learning styles. This may be considered as negative feature to ignore learning preferences.

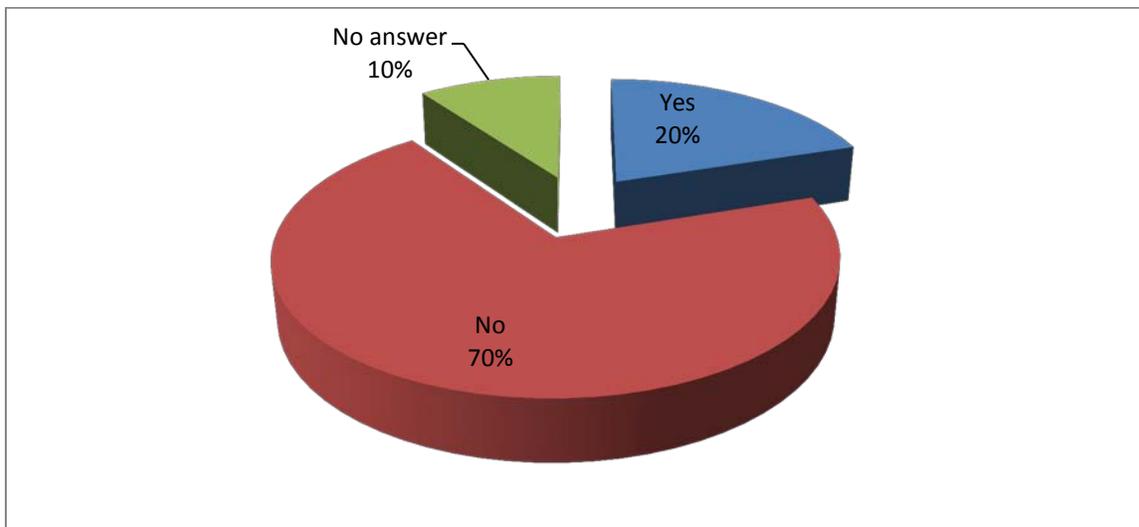
**Question 09: Do you consider students' learning styles?**

**Yes** ( )

**No** ( )

Options	N	%
Yes	08	<b>20</b>
No	28	<b>70</b>
No Answer	04	<b>10</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.9**  
**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(09)**



**Figure 5.9**  
**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(09)**

From the table and figure 5.9, the responses to this question indicate that 20% of the answers were “yes” it corresponds to those teachers who consider their students’ learning styles; however, 70% of the answers were "no". This results describe the large number of the teaches who do not take learning styles into account during lectures.

**Question 10:**

**Do you re-explain the unclear points in different ways?**

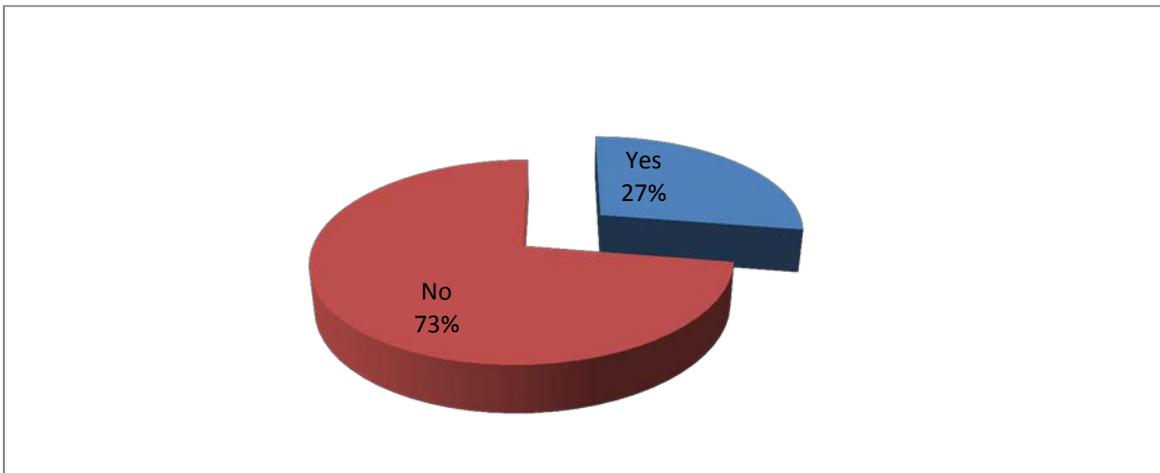
**Yes** (     )

**No** (     )

Options	N	%
Yes	11	27
No	29	73
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.10**

**The Frequency Distribution** for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(10)



**Figure 5.10**

**The Frequency Distribution** for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(10)

Hence, from table and figure 5.10, we see that 27% of the respondents re-explain the unclear points in different ways while 73% of them keep explaining once, twice, and more in the same way. The teachers represent more than one way to explain certain aspects, it reveal the ability to alter their techniques and styles to get a large number of students understand well.

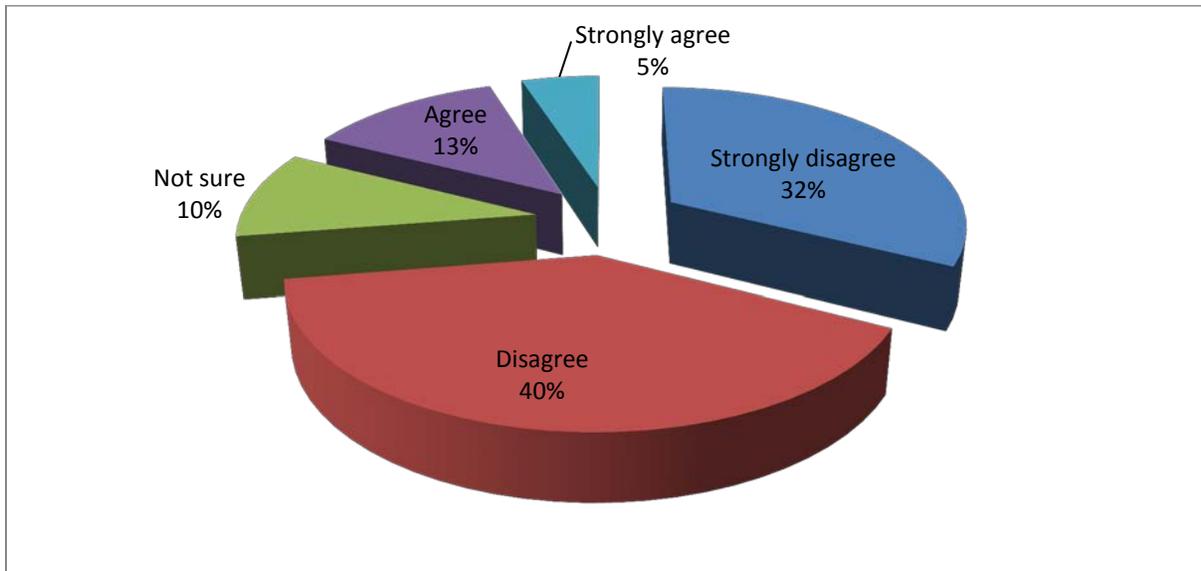
**Question 11:**

**In my classroom, I identify students' preferences to be matched with teaching styles**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	13	32
Disagree	16	40
Not sure	04	10
Agree	05	13
Strongly agree	02	05
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.11**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(11)**



**Figure 5.11**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(11)**

The data obtained from the answers to this question in both table and figure 7.11 indicated that teachers are not aware of identifying students' learning preferences to be matched with teaching styles as shown in the result more than 70% answers are "disagree" and "strongly disagree". This leads us to assume that most teachers are not aware to engage effective teaching styles.

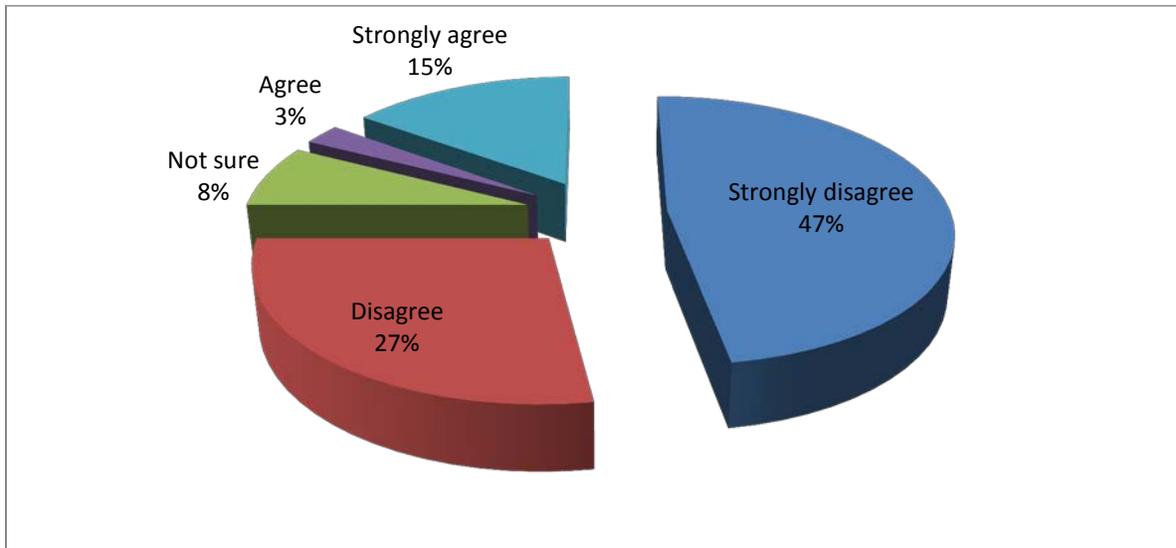
**Question 12:**

**In my classroom, I create listening and reading activities.**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	19	47
Disagree	11	27
Not sure	03	08
Agree	01	03
Strongly agree	06	06
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.12**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(12)**



**Figure 5.12**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(12)**

The information based in table and figure 5.13, It's clear that 19 of the teachers represent 47% and 11 represent 27% are "strongly disagree" and "disagree" with creating listening and reading activities whereas only 15% are "strongly agree" and 3% are "agree". This results lead that, most of the teachers ignore creating listening and reading activities to promote their classrooms interaction.

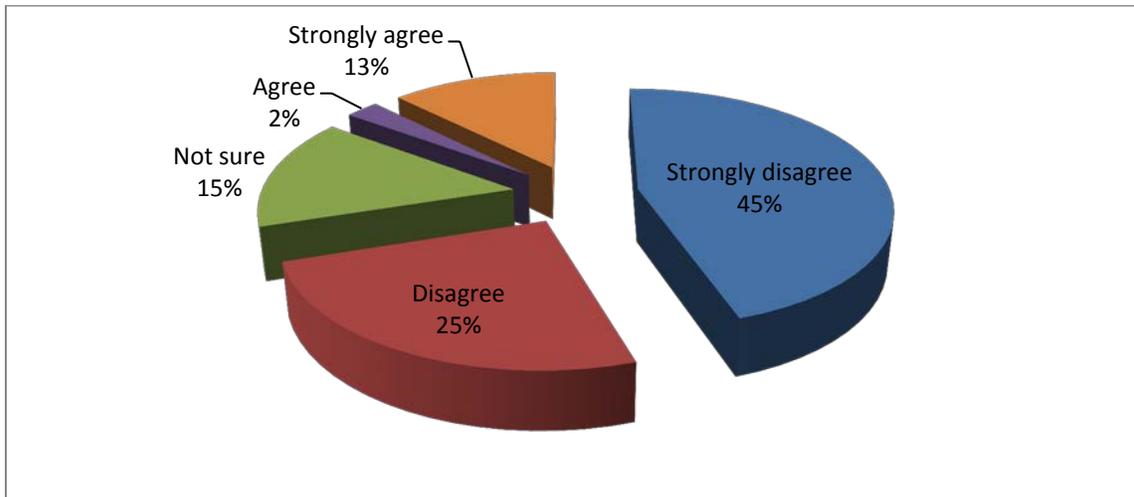
**Question 13:**

**In my classroom, I identify correlation between teaching and learning preferences**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	18	45
Disagree	10	25
Not sure	06	15
Agree	01	02
Strongly agree	05	13
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.13**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(13)**



**Figure 5.13**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(13)**

From table and figure 5.13, we notice that, the majority of the teachers 45% and 25% are not aware of identifying possible correlation between teaching styles and learning preferences. In contrast, there are 02% and 13% of the subjects who prefer the possible correlation between teaching and students' preferences.

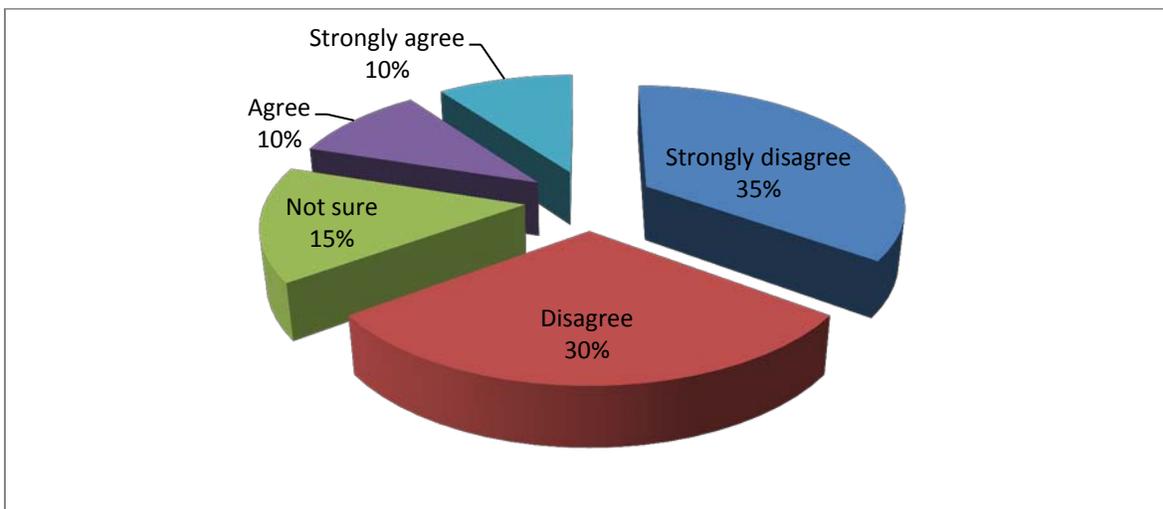
**Question 14:**

**In my classroom, I motivate students to learn.**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	14	<b>35</b>
Disagree	12	<b>30</b>
Not sure	06	<b>15</b>
Agree	04	<b>10</b>
Strongly agree	04	<b>10</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.14**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(14)**



**Figure 5-14**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(14)**

We notice from the table and figure 5.14, about 65% of the teachers do not motivate students in order to make require change in their speaking, whereas, only 08 represent 10% "agree" and "strongly agree" for each. That means teachers do not handled leaning styles through effective teaching styles and motivation is not taken in their account.

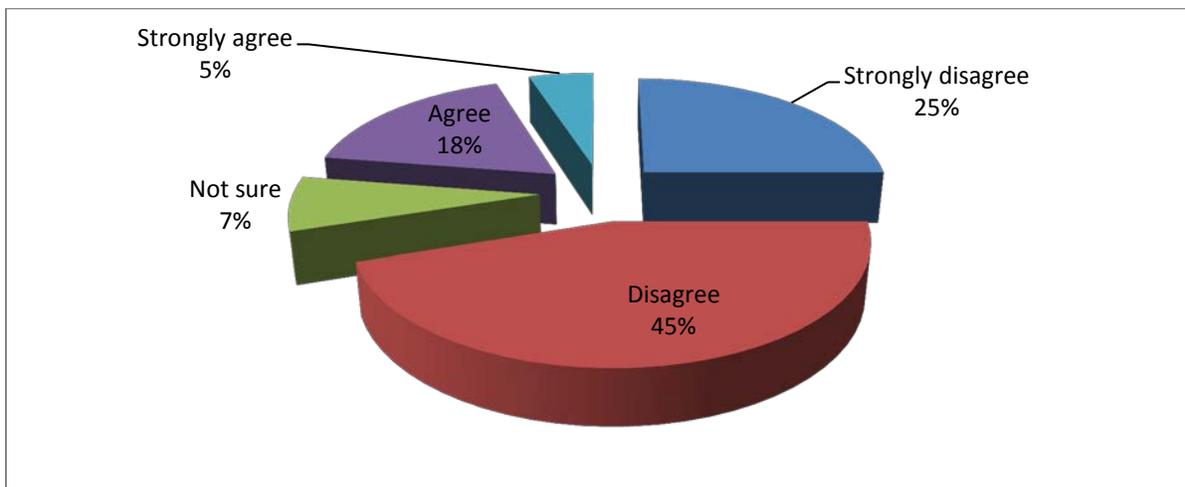
**Question 15:**

**In my classroom, I use anger management strategies**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	10	25
Disagree	18	45
Not sure	03	07
Agree	07	18
Strongly agree	02	05
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.15**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(15)**



**Figure 5.15**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(15)**

From table and figure 5.15, the responses to this question indicate that 45% of the answers are “disagree” and 25% are "strongly disagree". The results correspond to the teachers who do not aware of using anger management strategies to attract students' attention; however, 18% and 5% of the answers were “agree" and "strongly agree”.

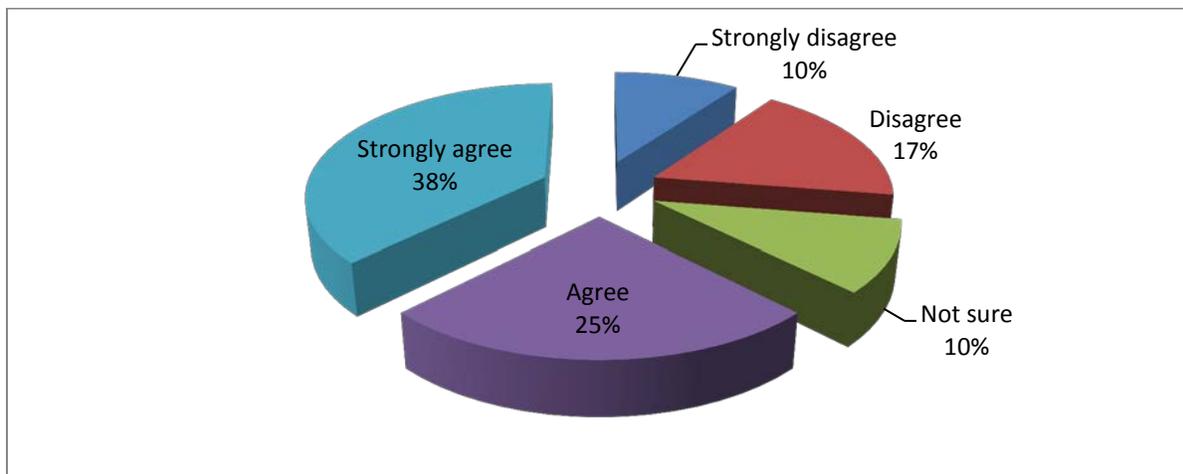
**Question 16:**

**In my classroom, I introduce information through direct instructions**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	04	10
Disagree	07	17
Not sure	04	10
Agree	10	25
Strongly agree	15	38
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.16**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(16)**



**Figure 5.16**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(16)**

From table and figure 5-16, we notice that the majority of the teachers 63% agreed with introducing more information to enhance students' ideas through direct instructions. The result is positive and makes students' interaction.

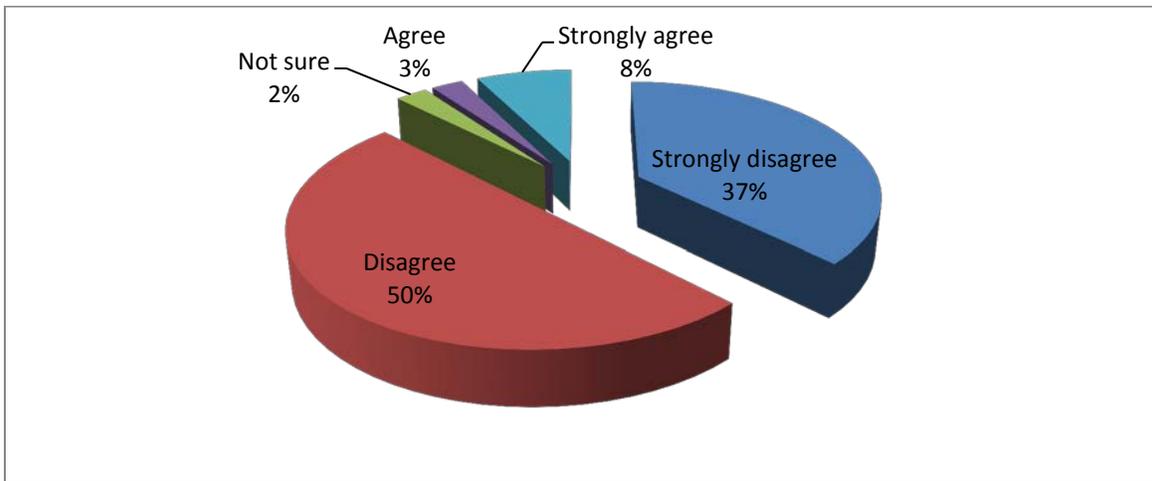
**Question 17:**

**In my classroom, I present topics in a form of authentic learning environment.**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	15	<b>37</b>
Disagree	20	<b>50</b>
Not sure	01	<b>02</b>
Agree	01	<b>03</b>
Strongly agree	03	<b>08</b>
Total	40	<b>100</b>

**Table 5-17**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(17)**



**Figure 5.17**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(17)**

From table and figure 5.17, we notice that the majority of teachers 20 representing 50% "disagree" and 15 representing 37% "strongly disagree" with presenting topics indifferent ways than authentic leaning environment like deductive and inductive styles. This may be considered as a negative feature if compared with the results of students' questionnaire that most of learners are visuals learners.

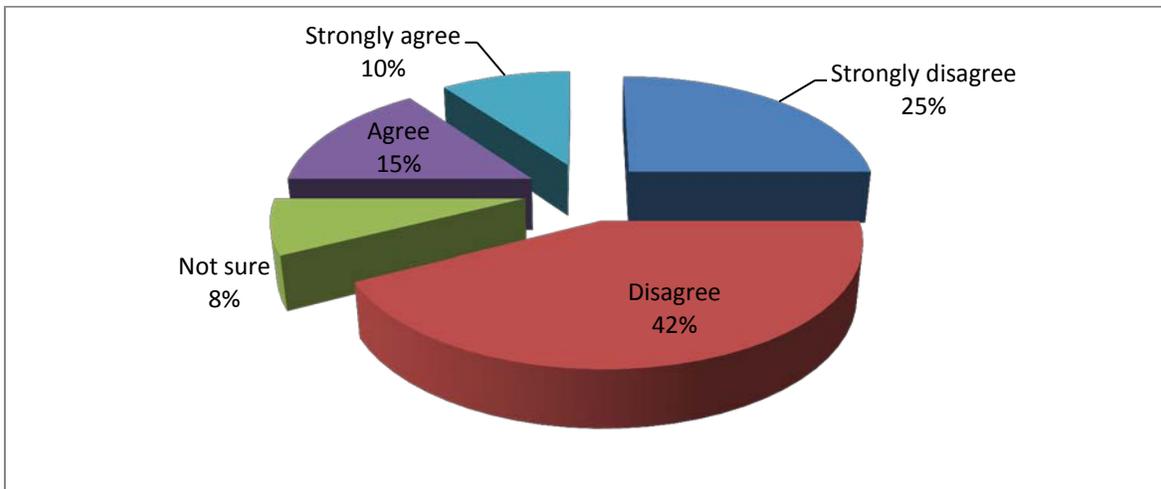
**Question 18:**

**In my classroom, I develop free interactive dialogue and discussion.**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	10	<b>25</b>
Disagree	17	<b>42</b>
Not sure	03	<b>08</b>
Agree	06	<b>15</b>
Strongly agree	04	<b>10</b>
Total	40	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.18**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(18)**



**Figure 5.18**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(18)**

As it shown in table and figure 5.18, that, less teachers representing 15% and 10 "agree" and "strongly agree" with developing free interactive dialogues and discussion in their teaching, whereas the majority number of the subjects representing 42% and 25% "disagree" and "strongly disagree". This may be considered as a negative feature that the students became only listeners.

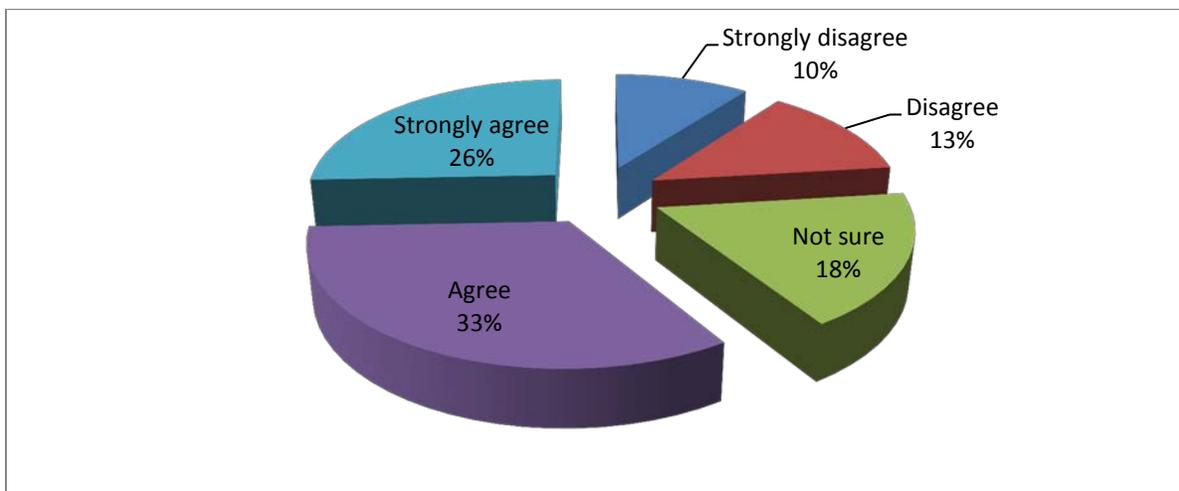
**Question 19:**

**In my classroom, I help students to develop reasoning and problem-solving skills.**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	04	10
Disagree	05	13
Not sure	07	18
Agree	13	33
Strongly agree	10	26
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.19**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(19)**



**Figure 5.19**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(19)**

From table and figure 5.19, the results shown that the majority of the teachers 33% and 26% are agree and "strongly agree" with developing reasoning and problem-solving skills, however 13% and 10% are disagree and strongly "disagree". The results support the development of the oral proficiency.

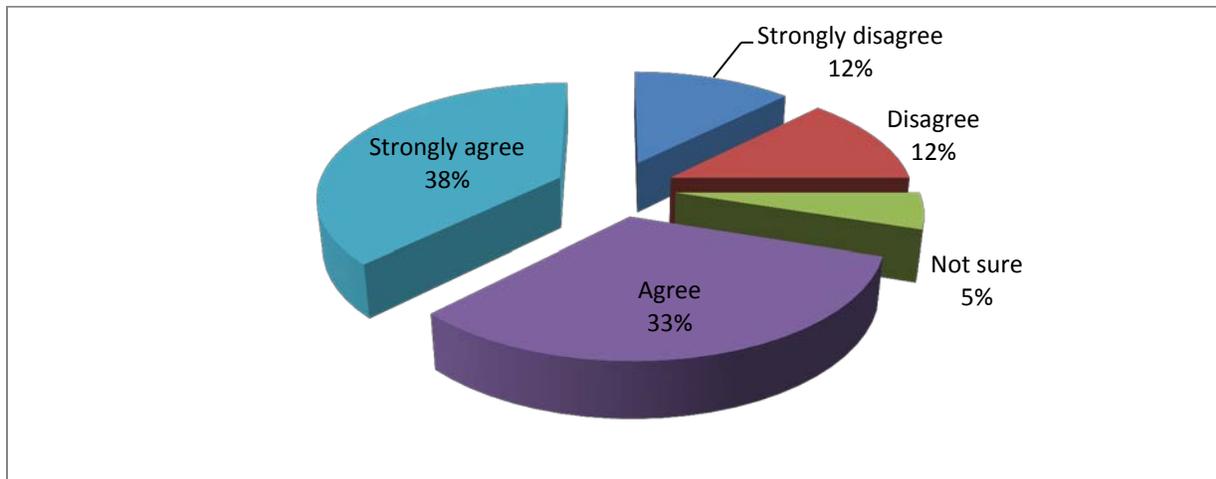
**Question 20:**

**In my classroom, I use Arabic in translating difficult words.**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	05	12
Disagree	05	1
Not sure	02	05
Agree	13	33
Strongly agree	15	38
Total	40	100

**Table 5.20**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(20)**



**Figure 5.20**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(20)**

From the table and figure 5.20, the responses to this question indicate that 38% of the answers are “strongly agree” and 33% are "agree" it corresponds to those teachers who translating the difficult words using the students' own language. This may lead us to think that students may become active and interact with the teachers who translating the difficult words into Arabic language.

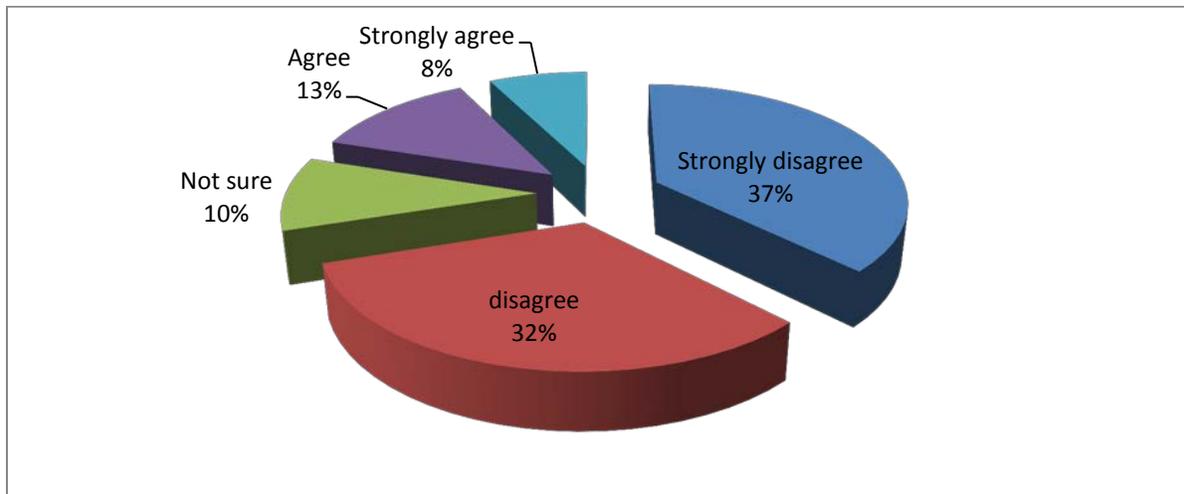
**Question 21:**

**In my classroom, I use imaginary stories in solving problems during discussion**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	15	37
disagree	13	32
Not sure	04	10
Agree	05	13
Strongly agree	03	08
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.21**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(21)**



**Figure 5.21**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(21)**

From the table and figure 5.21, the responses to this question indicate that 37% of the answers are strongly disagree and 32% are "disagree" it corresponds to those teachers who do not aware of using imaginary stories to solve problems during classroom discussion. however, 13% and (8%) of the answers are "agree" and "strongly agree". It's clear that the result support developing speaking skill.

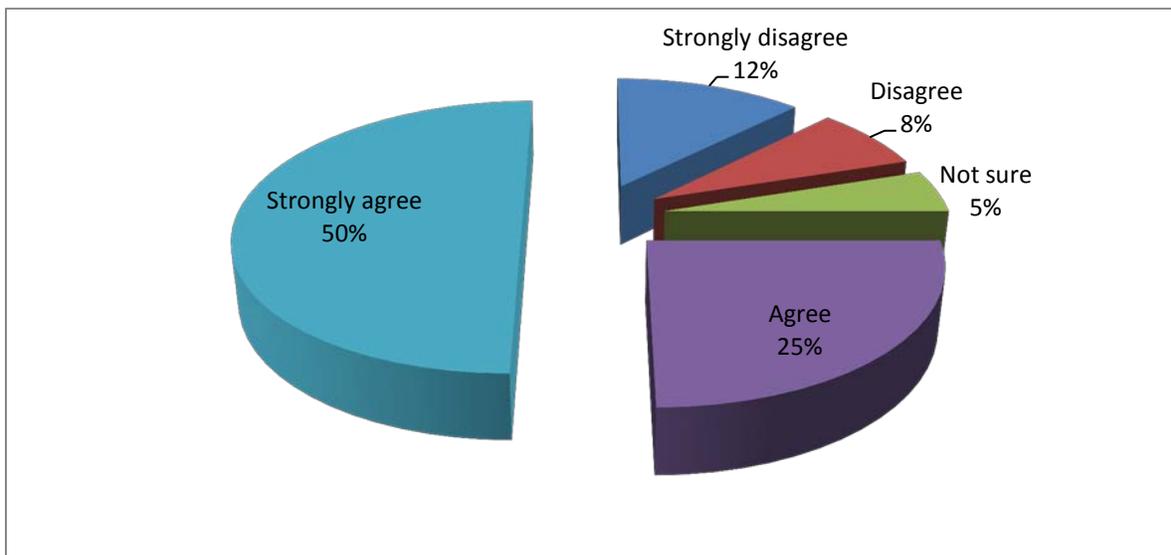
**Question 22:**

**In my classroom, I promote the respect of cultural differences.**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	05	12
Disagree	03	08
Not sure	02	05
Agree	10	25
Strongly agree	20	50
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.22**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(22)**



**Figure 5.22**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(22)**

According to what is shown in table and figure 5.22, it seemed that most of the teachers representing 50% and 25% are "agree" and "strongly agree" in respecting cultural differences, however only 25% of subjects are answered "disagree" and "strongly disagree". The result shows that student may not feel shyness or they are unmotivated towards speaking English in the classroom. Classroom climate also affect students speaking skills.

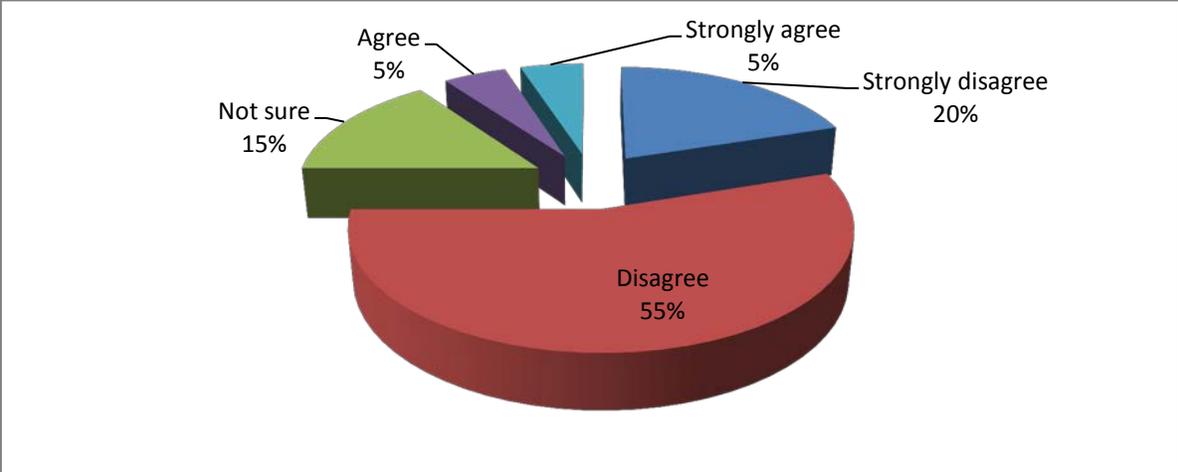
**Question 23:**

**In my classroom, I discuss topics according students' academic background**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	08	20
Disagree	22	55
Not sure	06	15
Agree	02	05
Strongly agree	02	05
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.23**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(23)**



**Figure 5.23**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(23)**

According to what was showed in table and figure 5.23, it seemed that most of the subjects answered disagree and strongly disagree which representing 75% of the teaches do not discussing topics due to students' background or their level in high secondary school. The result illustrate to the language of teaching is rather difficult than students' level.

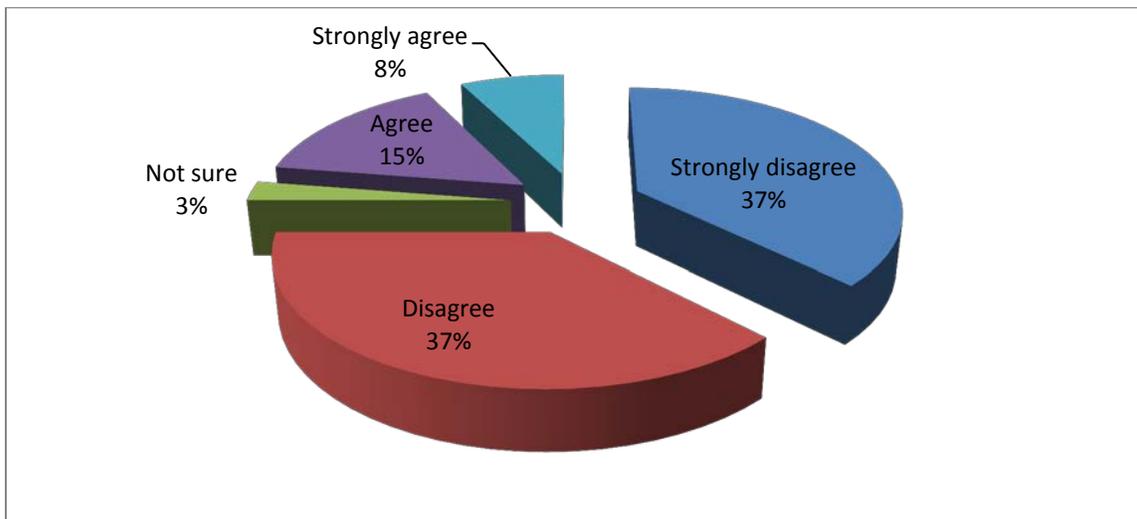
**Question 24:**

**In my classroom, I set up classroom seating according to students' learning styles**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	15	37
Disagree	15	37
Not sure	01	03
Agree	06	15
Strongly agree	03	08
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.24**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(24)**



**Figure 5.24**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(24)**

According to what is shown in table and figure 5.24, it seems that most of the subjects answered "disagree" and "strongly disagree" represent equally 37% for each. It means the teachers do not aware of set up classroom seating according to students' learning styles i.e.(visual-auditory-kinesthetic and verbal) however, 15% of the subjects answered "agree" and 8% "disagree". This results clearly explain, why speaking skill is rather weak among Sudanese University students.

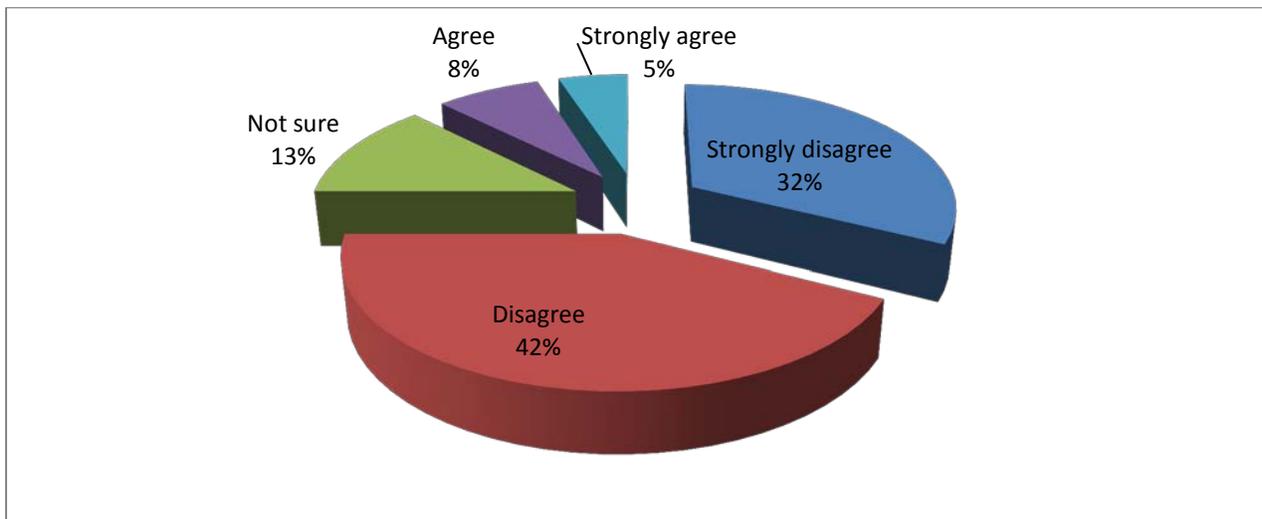
**Question 25:**

**In my classroom, I motivate learners through using instructional media?**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	13	32
Disagree	17	42
Not sure	05	13
Agree	03	08
Strongly agree	02	05
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5-25**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(25)**



**Figure 5.25**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(25)**

According to what is shown in table and figure 5.25, it seems that 42% and (32%) answered "disagree" and "strongly disagree" that means most of the teachers do not motivate learners through using instructional media in their teaching, whereas only 08% and 5% of the subjects answered "agree" and "strongly agree". This result consider as negative feature to develop speaking.

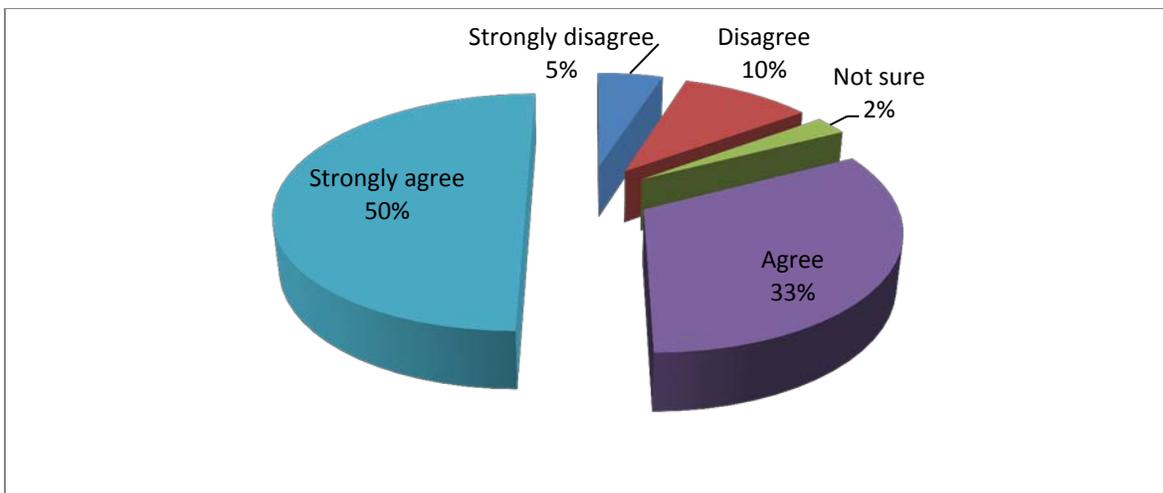
**Question 26:**

**In my classroom, I introduce topics of reading through discussion lectures**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	02	<b>05</b>
Disagree	04	<b>10</b>
Not sure	01	<b>02</b>
Agree	13	<b>33</b>
Strongly agree	20	<b>50</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.26**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(26)**



**Figure 5.26**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(26)**

The data obtained from the answers to this question in both table and figure 5.26, indicate that most of the subjects answered 50% strongly agree with introducing topics of reading and listening through discussion to enhance students' motivation. This leads us to assume that most teachers put in their account the importance of discussion in teaching speaking.

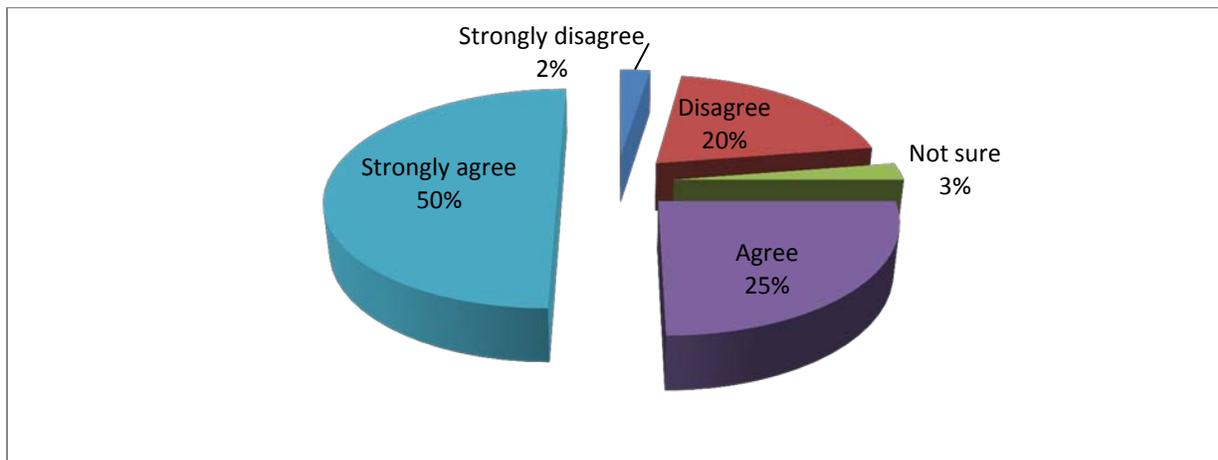
**Question 27:**

**In my classroom, I present oral report where students present topics from notes**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	01	<b>02</b>
Disagree	08	<b>20</b>
Not sure	01	<b>03</b>
Agree	10	<b>25</b>
Strongly agree	20	<b>50</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.27**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(27)**



**Figure 5.27**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(27)**

Hence, we find in table and figure 5.27, about 75% of responses to are "strongly agree" and "agree". This might reveal the fact that, most of the teachers are presenting oral discussion topics, however, 20% of the respondents have chosen the answer disagree. In view of the results obtained to this question, teachers are already put in their account that discussion is develop speaking.

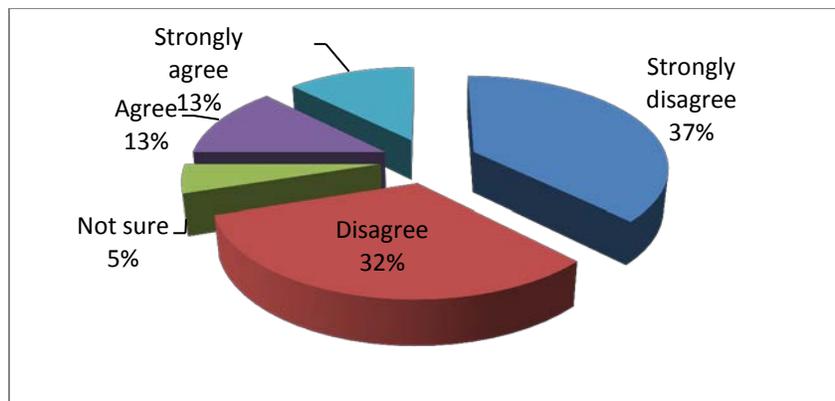
**Question 28:**

**In my classroom, I use simulation and role-play to solve problems**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	15	37
Disagree	13	32
Not sure	02	05
Agree	05	13
Strongly agree	05	13
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.28**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(28)**



**Figure 5.28**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(28)**

Hence, we find in both table and figure 5.28, about 37% of responses to this question are "strongly disagree" and 32% are "disagree". This might reveal the fact that most teachers do not use simulation and role-play in their teaching, however, 13% of both respondents have chosen the answer "agree" and "strongly agree". In view of the results obtained to this question, teachers do not put in their account the using of this technique in teaching English.

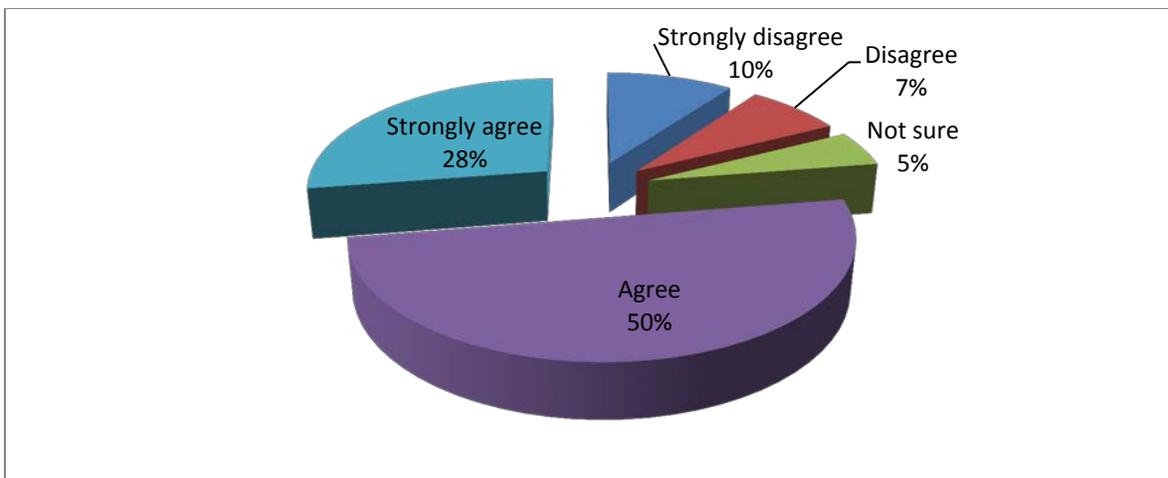
**Question 29:**

**In my classroom, I use conversation to develop conversational competence**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	04	<b>10</b>
Disagree	03	<b>07</b>
Not sure	02	<b>05</b>
Agree	20	<b>50</b>
Strongly agree	11	<b>28</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.29**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(29)**



**Figure 5.29**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(29)**

According to what is shown in table and figure 5.29, it seemed that most of the subjects answered "agree" and "strongly agree" which representing 50% and 28% of the teachers that using conversation in the classroom, however only 10% and 05% are "agree" and "strongly agree", whereas. The results illustrate that, teachers put in their mind conversational competence as a strategy to develop speaking.

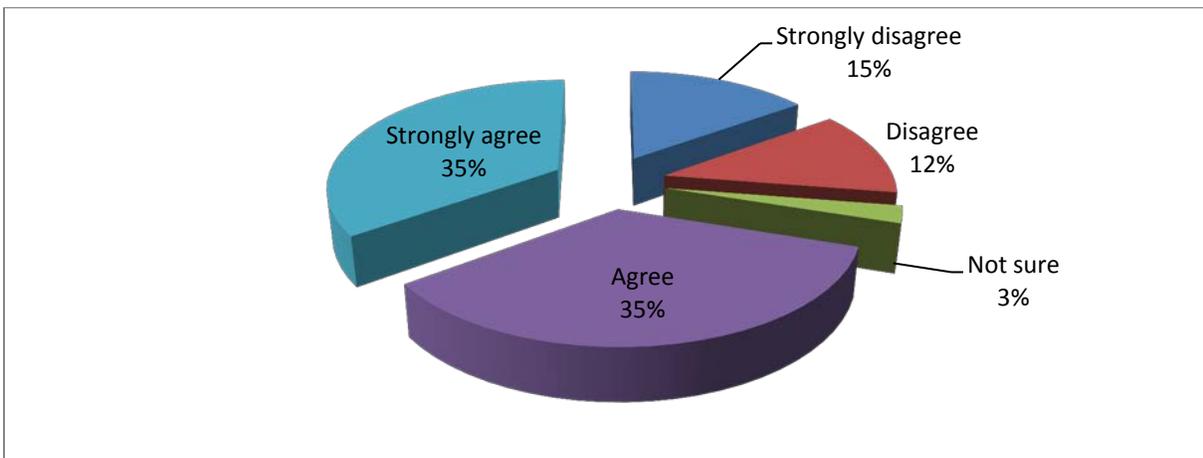
**Question 30:**

**In my classroom, I use Interview in a form of interaction question or situation**

Choices	N	%
Strongly disagree	06	15
Disagree	05	12
Not sure	01	10
Agree	14	35
Strongly agree	14	35
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 5.30**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(30)**



**Figure 5.30**

**The Frequency Distribution for the Teachers' Answers about Statement No.(30)**

According to what was showed in table and figure 5.30, it seem that most of the subjects answered "agree" and "strongly disagree" which representing 35% for each, however, only 12% and 15% for "disagree" and "strongly disagree", whereas 03% of the subjects answered "not sure". The results illustrated that, teachers use interview in a form of interaction questions.

### **5.3. Summary of the Results of the Teachers' Questionnaire**

1. About 70% of the teachers are males according to information showed in table 01, whereas 30% are females. This results supports the ideas that females are not interested in teaching University students.
2. About 80% of the teachers have a Magister degree whereas only 10% of our sample is representing each of the Bachelor and Doctorate. This leads us to assume that most teachers have amount of knowledge about how to gain more effective teaching
3. Half of the teachers with the less experiences score 50% this fact leads as to question number 2 in the recent study "To what extend do student learning styles are considered by university instructors" however, we find 20% of our sample corresponds to those teachers who have spent a long period of time in teaching English as a second language. This reveals that less experienced teachers may find lacking in accommodating to their students' learning styles.
4. About 60% of teachers use concrete information, whereas only 10% of our sample represent the intuitive style. Yet, there is a percentage of 30% of the respondents who use both styles. This result indicates adequate in using different styles in a classroom of students with different learning styles.
5. About 50% of the teachers who prefer both visual and verbal styles. and 20% prefer visual presentation for their lessons. However, 30% of our sample present their lessons through lectures, discussions and readings. So the result is positive and makes students' interaction
6. About 56% of the teaches get used both the deductive and inductive styles. This may be considered as a positive feature because teachers do not find any difficulty to move from one style to another. In contrast, there is 30% of the subjects who prefer the deductive style, and 10% feel at ease with presenting their lectures inductively.

7. About 60% of the teachers prefer active students whereas 40% of them prefer both active and reflective "students are doing something in class".
8. About (90%) of the teachers are agreed that they use the global style; they prefer to give first the general purpose, and relationships between aspects, while (10%) of the respondents are analytic teachers.
9. About 70% of the teachers didn't know how their students preferred learning styles, whereas the teaches sure that the academic environment not allowed them to put in their consideration students' learning styles because of the large number of students. But, there is a rate of 30% that represents teachers who are aware about their students' learning styles. So, the lazy technique and methods that mismatching students' preferred leaning styles influence in their bad speaking.
10. About 70% of the students answer "no" : this rate identifies the number of teacher who do not take learning styles into account during lessons, and 04 teacher 10% from our sample did not answer the question. This may lead us to think that he is not obliged to care about learning styles. So in addition consideration of students' learning styles is not enough to develop speaking skill in the same time motivation activities were not done in the classroom.
11. About 73% of the teachers has more than one way to explain certain aspects, they reveal that they have ability to alter his techniques and styles to get a large number of students understand well. So the different techniques motivate students to optimize speaking and encourage students to discuss topics when teaching styles met their learning styles, i.e. to re-explain the information in different ways.
12. About 70% of teachers are "disagreed" and "strongly disagreed" to be aware of identifying students' learning preferences to be matched with teaching styles.

- 13.** About 47% of the teachers are "strongly disagree" and "disagree" with creating listening and reading activities whereas only 15% are "strongly agree" and. This result leads us that most of the teachers ignore creating listening and reading activities to promote their classrooms activities in speaking skill.
- 14.** About 45% of the teachers and are not aware of identifying possible correlation between teaching styles and learning preferences. This may considered as negative feature to ignore learning preferences.
- 15.** The majority of teachers are not motivate students to make require change in their speaking. According to this fact teachers do not handled leaning styles through effective teaching styles and motivation is not involved in their account.
- 16.** Half of the teachers are not aware of using anger management strategies to attract students' attention. If it is true, teacher-student interaction may improve the speaking skills of students but it depends upon teachers own speaking competency also.
- 17.** The majority of teachers 38% "strongly agreed that they get used to introduce more information to enhance students' ideas through direct instructions. If it is true, teacher-student interaction may improve the speaking skills of students but it depends upon teachers own speaking competency also.
- 18.** Half of the teachers disagreed in using both deductive and inductive styles. they do not present topics in other different ways. This may considered as a negative feature if it compared with the result of students' questionnaire that most of the students are visual learners.
- 19.** About 42% of the teachers do not developing free interactive dialogues and discussion. If it's true the students became only listeners and they do not able to develop their oral proficiency specially speaking skill.

- 20.** About 33% of the teachers agreed with developing reasoning and problem-solving skills. This result support the development of the oral proficiency.
- 21.** About 38% of the teachers are agreed" that they translating the difficult words using the students' own language rather than using English. whereas 12% of them disagreed with using mother tongue while teaching English. This may lead us to think that students may become active and interact with the teachers who translating the difficult words into Arabic language.
- 22.** Half of the teachers representing 50% and 25% are "agreed" and "strongly agreed" in respecting cultural differences. Therefore teachers have started English as a medium of instruction and as result English speaking culture is promoting in University level.
- 23.** According to what was showed in table 24 and graph 24 it seemed that most of the subjects answered disagree and strongly disagree which representing About 55% of the teaches do not discussing topics according to students' background or due to their level in high secondary school.
- 24.** Half of the teachers do not set up classroom seating according to students' learning styles i.e.(visual-auditory-kinesthetic and verbal). This information clearly explain why speaking skill is rather weak among Sudanese University students.
- 25.** About 64% of the teachers do not motivate leaners through using instructional media in their teaching. This result consider as appositive feature to develop speaking.
- 26.** About 83% of the teachers introduced topics of reading and listening through discussion to enhance students' motivation to speak. This leads us to assume that most teachers put in their account the importance of discussion in teaching speaking.
- 27.** About 72% of the teachers presented and oral report where students presents topics from the notes. In view of the results obtained to that question, teachers are already put in their account that discussion is develop speaking.

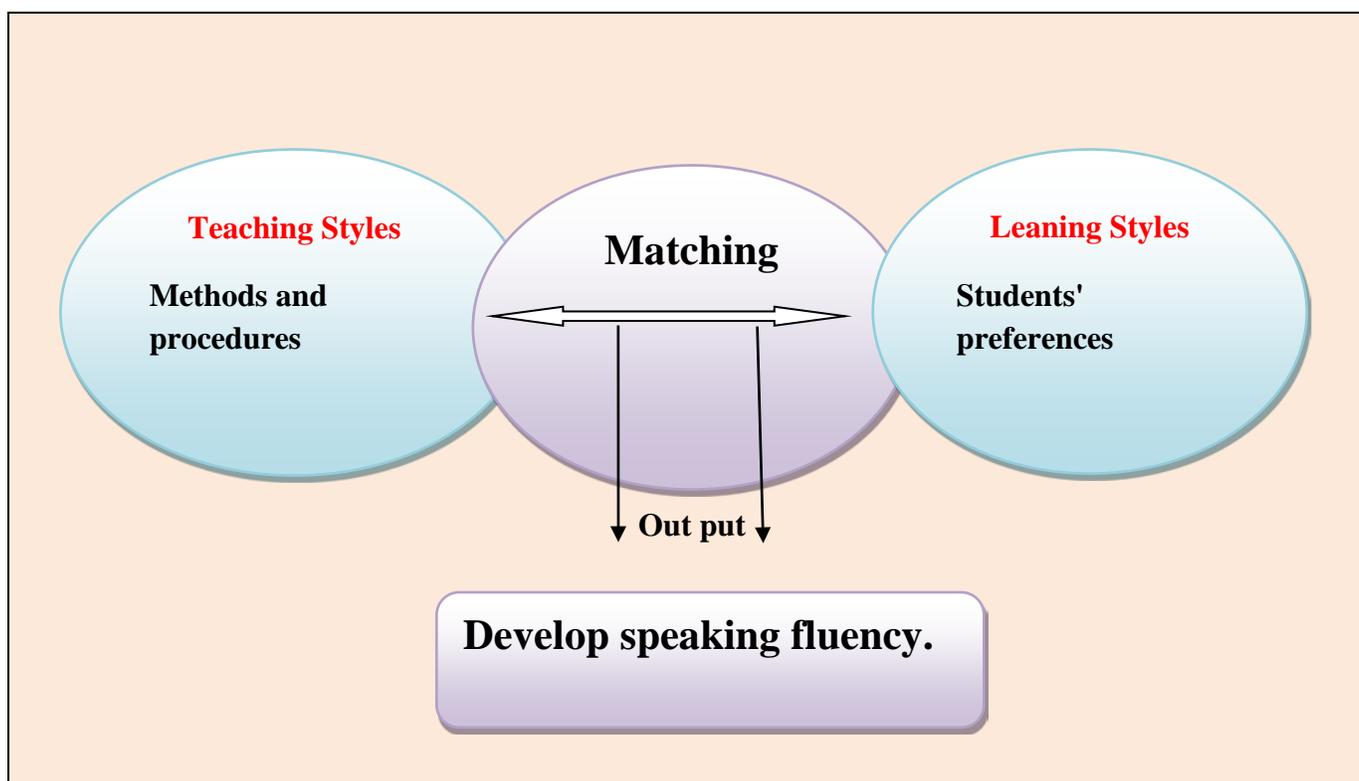
- 28.** About 69% of the teachers disagreed with using simulation and role-play in their teaching styles. In the view of the results obtained to that question, teachers put in their account that using simulation and role-play as technique in teaching English is a time consuming.
- 29.** About 78% of the teachers agreed with using conversation to develop speaking. The result illustrate directly that teachers put in their mind conversational competence as a strategy to develop speaking English language fluently.
- 30.** About half of the teachers actually used an interview in a form of interaction questions. The result leads us to apposite feature that help students to develop their oral proficiency specially speaking skill

There is a mismatch between teaching and learning styles that affect speaking English among Sudanese university students such as strategies competence and methods of teaching that used in the classroom. The aim of this hypothesis is to show the mismatch between teaching strategies and students' preferred learning styles as the main causes that hinder university students to speak English. To test this hypothesis, the researcher introduce a questionnaire of thirty statements to the teachers to describe the phenomena.

The results obtained validate this hypothesis. On the basis of the interview, the majority of the students were found unaware of most of the aspects of the spoken language. This lack of awareness was reflected through the students aspects of preferred learning styles and oral performance.

Learning styles of most first year students, and teaching styles of most English university lecturers are almost compatible in several dimensions. Many or most English students are visual, sensing-intuitive, inductive-deductive, active-reflective, and global-analytic; most English teachers are visual-auditory, concrete (sensing), inductive- deductive, active, and global. These matches lead to a good student performance, professional success, and motivation to learn.

Yet, we can find certain mismatches between the minor group of students whose styles differ from those of the majority, and teachers' styles. So, tutors are provided, in this chapter, are techniques to be used: for each session, he has to pick the most suitable ones and drop others. In this method, teachers will respond to a wide diversity of learning styles, and get more effective learning with good results. See the figure 5.31.



**Figure 5.31 Recursive Relationship Between Teaching and Learning Styles in Developing Speaking Fluency (McMahon 1999).**

## **Conclusions**

From the discussion of the teachers' questionnaire, the study concludes that there is a clear correlations between the results obtained in the students' questionnaire and the teachers' questionnaires to show the mismatch between teaching styles and learning styles in which motivation do not involved in teaching. At the same time teachers do not understand students' leaning preferences to be matched with teaching styles in order to solve the problem of the speaking skill.

Due to the evidence in teachers' and students' questionnaires, the mismatch between teachers' styles and learners' styles do not empower effective learning, and do not develop students' oral fluency.

## ***Chapter Six: Pedagogical Implication and Recommendations***

<i>Introduction</i>	<b><i>Page</i></b>
<b>6.1.</b> <i>Main Results of the Study</i>	<b>220</b>
<b>6.2.</b> <i>Matching Teaching Styles and Learning Styles</i>	<b>222</b>
<b>6.3.</b> <i>Suggestions for Further Studies</i>	<b>223</b>
<i>Conclusion</i>	
<b><i>General Conclusion</i></b>	<b>225</b>

## **Introduction**

Uttering both terms, teaching and learning, infer that they are isolated activities. However, the term lifelong learning faces up to this isolation. "We are all learners, just as we are all teachers" (Hughes 2004, p.34). Teaching can be the occupation of some people, but at the same time, they are learning more about how to teach best ;and learners also teach themselves how to learn more effectively. So, we find that teaching and learning are no more separate activities. It is claimed that attaining an effective teaching and learning is related to the individual learner's tactic to learn and the teacher's consciousness and response to this tactic, as they are important in determining success in the classroom. The learner's tactics are the preferred ways for solving problems and accomplishing tasks. In other words, these are learning styles that are mostly defined as approaches of perceiving, remembering, thinking, problem solving and decision-making, which differentiate one individual from another. In addition, teachers also have their own teaching styles, as teaching is a matter of style. Hence, on to one hand, we have learning styles and on the other, we have teaching styles: both have to go hand in hand in order to get good results in teaching.

## 6.1. Main Results of the Study

Our results suggest that Instructors need to match teaching styles to learning styles and enhance learning by using motivation and that designing instructional activities that allow learners of every learning style to engage in active learning during the semester have positive effects on learning outcomes and satisfaction. Having different activities that focus on different learning styles, significantly affect learning or efficiency in learning the material of any specific group. This, supports previous findings. (Rubin & Hebert, 1998, p:23), suggesting matching teaching and learning styles promote the use of diverse learning styles and may enhance speaking, students' satisfaction and retention of information.

Although there were no significant differences in grades by learning style preference or instructional activity, all students received high grades in the course. Students with the same learning styles clearly preferred activities that matched their learning styles, but this did not influence how they performed on the assignments. Students identified activities that matched their primary learning modality as the easiest. These findings further support the ideas of Ogden (2003, p:88), who suggested that modifying the traditional lecture to engage students with different learning styles in different instructional activities enabled students to learn by their own strengths while providing opportunity for developing related strengths in other areas.

Our results do not imply that using different teaching styles is important, but instead suggest that revising teaching style to be matched with students learning styles is necessary. This study provides

preliminary information to set the stage for more extensive investigations of this nature. There are a number of limitations to this study that may account for the lack of a relationship between teaching and learning groups as the previous researches have recommended that instructors continue to incorporate teaching performance that meet diverse learning styles in order to create speaking fluently in the classroom. This should result in higher student satisfaction and less passive learning from students in large lecture-style classrooms.

Based on the results obtained in both the students' and the teachers' questionnaires, we found that: the majority of the teachers are sensors when most students develop both intuitive and concrete styles. Thus, students do feel comfortable with the concrete style as they are able to be intuitive as well as concrete depending on the teaching style that is applied.

Whilst the visual style is the most dominant style among students, the auditory and visual-auditory styles are both used by teachers through which they move from auditory presentation to kinesthetic, that not depending on what is needed. However, most students claim that the amount of time that is allocated for auditory presentations is not sufficient for them, especially in the sessions of oral expression when the audiovisual aids are never or rarely used. A complete compatibility between the learning and teaching preferences concerning the deductive, and inductive styles since both teachers and students feel at ease to use both.

The majority of students have the choice to be active or reflective depending on the situation they face as they are found to have the ability to stretch themselves into both styles. Moreover, if they

are observed to be reflective in a certain situation, they would have the opportunity to contribute since most teachers give first few minutes to think, and then answer in spite of the fact that the great number of teachers prefer active learners. Teachers have chosen to be global through providing first the general purpose behind a certain aspect, and then move to deal with each element separately in order not to make global students get lost.

There is a clear mismatch between the students' learning styles, and the teachers', the student is found to be able to use both styles, and vice versa. This might be the reason behind noticing that most students are not motivated to speak the language.

## **6.2. Matching Teaching Styles and Learning Styles**

In the light of the results of this study, the researcher would like to make the following recommendations to improve the Sudanese English spoken language.

1. The English spoken language must be taught through using good teaching materials, techniques, tools and equipment such as language laboratory, video and CDs.
2. Teachers should try to create a positive atmosphere to increase the classroom interaction.
3. They should help to maximize their students' preferred learning styles.
4. They should try to use different teaching styles inside the classroom to avoid boring lessons.
5. They should inform their students according to their learning styles to improve speaking fluently.
6. We need to fulfill the lack of the target language environment with modern textbooks.
7. There should be presentations as well as English societies for students to practise speaking.

8. Teachers must give the student the opportunity to make real conversation inside the classroom.
9. There should be English language clubs for students to practise real conversations in a relaxed atmosphere.
10. The teacher talking time should be far less than the students talking time to avoid lecturing.

All the above mentioned recommendations have emphasized the importance of matching instructor performance and learner preferred learning styles to develop fluency

### **6.3. Suggestions for Further Studies**

Many issues seem to emerge from the responses expressed in the study. There are other factors than matching teaching and learning styles which still need to be investigated within the area of learning spoken English. More research in this area should be undertaken in-depth and detailed studies to fill the gaps that this study points out.

- The teachers who wish to improve their students' oral performance have to consider matching teaching and learning styles.
- Future studies should evaluate the use of instructional activities in a variety of teaching styles and in a variety of disciplines to evaluate speaking fluently.

## **Conclusion**

The present study has reached at results similar to other results although they were conducted at various environments. All the previous studies agreed that the mismatching between teaching and learning styles affect students' oral performance specially in the speaking skill. The present study differs from the previous studies that it focuses on certain factors related to students' motivation. The current study points out that instructor performance and learner preferred learning styles have more impact on speaking than any other language skills. It also points out that students' preferences and teaching styles are the most influential factors that hinder Sudanese university students when speaking English.

## General Conclusion

This study proposed to investigate the relationship between teaching styles and learning styles to develop students' oral fluency and competence. The first three chapters are discussed the literature reviews of the previous decades. In the light of the previous work of authors and writers, the current study concerned with the development of the oral fluency in the speaking skill and the role of competence in leaning. This study investigated students' preferences and teachers' performance to see whether they match or not.

Eighty Sudanese university students studying English as a foreign language constituted the final sample. The data collected by the students' questionnaire is presented in details in chapter four. It is also distinguished the students according to their learning styles. The first hypothesis, that states "If the university teachers understand their students' learning preferences, to be matched with teaching styles, the problem of speaking would be solved, is confirmed and it has the first largest value of chi-square **(253.41)**. Besides that, the second hypothesis, which states that "If learning styles are handled through effective teaching styles, and motivation is taken into account, the problem of lack of speaking would be reduced", is also confirmed due to the high score obtained in chi-square **(189.46)**. The results in chapters four and five show a clear mismatch between teaching styles and learning styles. Finally, the study concludes that the process of speaking English is affected by many factors, one of them is teaching styles.

## References

1. Abu Ghararah, H (2005). Teaching English as a Foreign Language: Procedures, Techniques and Activities, Tawbah Press.
2. Abdalla Hammed (1999), Developing Speaking Skill through Communicative Teaching Approach. M.A. Thesis, Khartoum University.
3. Alexis Cullerton and Ines Torres, (2015), English language teaching forum number four, volume 53.
4. Alrabaa, S (July, 1991). Games in Speaking- English Teaching Forum, Vo.22, No.3.
5. Allwright, D (1991). Focus on the Language Classroom: An Introduction to classroom research for language teacher. New york: Cambridge University Press.
6. Ahmed, Khalid (2004). Receptivity, Defensiveness, And Certain Affective Factors In communicative Language Learning and Teaching. (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Khartoum).
7. Al Busairi, M (1990). Needs, Attitudes and Motivation in Foreign Language Learning: A case study of Kuwait University students Studying ESP. (unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, University of Lancaster).
8. Brown, (2003)." Teaching style vs. learning style". Center on Education and Training for Employment, EIC Document. No. 26.
9. Brown, H. D. 1994. Principles of language learning and teaching. Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
10. Brandes and Ginnis (1986). In their book 'Guide to Student-Centered Learning', they present the main principles of student-centered learning as: British Journal of Arts and Social Sciences ISSN: 2046-9578 39

11. **Brown, H. D.** (2007). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. San Francisco:
12. **Bowen, T** (2005). *Methodology: Shy Students; An Article Offering Suggestions and Advice on Teaching Shy Students.* (Online) [onestopenglish.com/support/ask-the-experts/methodology-questions/methodology-shy-students/146385.article](http://onestopenglish.com/support/ask-the-experts/methodology-questions/methodology-shy-students/146385.article) (March 15, 2011).
13. **Brown, G and Yule. G** (2001). *Teaching the Spoken Language- An approach based on the analysis of conversational English*, Cambridge University Press, 25.
14. **Brown, H** (2001). *Teaching by Principles. An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy.* Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.
15. **Baldwin, C** (2011). *How to Overcome Shyness During an Oral Presentation.* (Online): <http://www.ehow.com/how-overcome-shyness-during-oral-presentation.html>(2011).
16. **Bailey, K. M.** (2002). *Issues in teaching speaking skills to adult ESOL learners.* 113- Diane Larsen-Freeman, “Techniques and Principles in language Teaching” second edition (2010)
17. **Babu, R** (2010). *Teaching Spoken English for Non-native Students: Problems, Solutions and Techniques.* (Online): <http://www.eltweekly.com/elt-newsletter/2010/06/60-article-teaching-spoken-english-for-non-native-students-problems-solutions-and-techniques-by-a-ramesh-babu/>. (March 15, 2011).
18. **B.Kumaravadivelu,** (1991). *Language-learning tasks: teacher intention and learner interpretation.* *English Language Teaching Journal*, 45(2), 98-107.
19. **Bloom, B. S., Engelhard, M. D., Furst, E. J., Hill, W. H., & Krathwohl, D. R.** (Eds). (1956).
20. **Bygate, M** (1987). *Speaking.* Oxford. Oxford University Press.
21. **Cohen, A. D.** (1997). *Developing pragmatic ability: Insights from the accelerated study of Japanese.* In H. M. Cook, K. Hijirida & M. M. Tahara (Eds.), *New trends and issues in*

- teaching Japanese language and culture (pp. 133-159). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i at Manoa, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.
22. Canals and Michael 1983 "From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language pedagogy.
  23. Chomsky, N. (1965), Aspects of the theory of syntax. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press. Retrieved on February20, 2014
  24. Chaney, L, and Lusk (1998). Teaching Oral Communication On Grades K- 8. Boston: Allyn & Bacon
  25. Cameron, L (2011). Teaching Languages to Young Learners. Cambridge University Press, 54.
  26. Cook, V. linguistics and second language Acquisition. London: Macmillan press (1993).
  27. Carroll, J (1981). Twenty-five years of research on foreign language Aptitude. Newbury House, Rowley, Mass, 84.
  28. Chen, R. (1993). Responding to compliments: A contrastive study of politeness
  29. Dornyei, Z (2011). Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom, Cambridge University Press, 77-89.
  30. Donough, M and Shaw, J (1993). Materials and Methods in ELT. Teacher's Guide. Oxford UK and Cambridge USA.
  31. D.A.Kolb, (1981). " Learning Styles and Disciplinary Differences". In A.W. Chickering (ed.) The Modern American College, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
  32. Ellis, R. (Communication Strategies and the evaluation of Communicative performance). ELT (1984)
  33. Ellis, G (2000). Learning to Learn English. Cambridge University Press.

34. Elhadi, Omya (1999). *The Role of Attitudes and Anxiety in Foreign Language Learning*. (unpublished M.A thesis, University of Khartoum).
35. Fatima-Zahra SEMIKJDI, Ph.D. thesis (2014)
36. Field and Morse (1996) *Introduction to Qualitative Research*. Blackwell publishing.
37. Finocchiaro, M., & Brumfit, Ch. (1983). *The Functional-notional approach: From theory to practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
38. George Yule, *the study of language*, (2007)
39. Grice, H. P. (1975). *Logic and conversation*. In P. Cole & J. L. Morgan (Eds.), *Syntax and Semantics*, vo. 13: *Speech acts* (pp. 41-58). New York: Academic Press.
40. Garton, B.L., Spain, J.N., Lamberson, W. R., & Spiers, O'Neill and Tim.(1999) p.210.
41. Gardner, R (1985). *Social Psychological and Second Language Learning: The Role of Attitudes and Motivation*. Great Britain: Edward Arnold.
42. Gebhard, G (2000). *Teaching English as a Foreign or Second Language*. USA: The University of Michigan Press.
43. G.Keri, (2007), "Degrees of congruence between instructor and student styles regarding satisfaction". *Radical Pedagogy*, 4(1), 32.
44. Grasha, A. (1996), *Teaching with style*. Pittsburgh, PA: Alliance.
45. Griffiths, C (2009), *Lessons from Good Language Learners*. Cambridge University Press, 142.
46. Grove (2003), PHD thesis, *Understanding Nursing Research* Authors publisher Saunders.
47. Harmer, J (2001). *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, Longman. Hieu, T (2011). *Students Lack Confidence to Use English*. (Online): <http://vietnamnews.vnagency.com.vn/Talk-Around-town/212262/Students-lack-confidence-to-use-English.html> (July 15, 2011).

48. Horwitz, K, and Horwitz, B (1986). Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety. Joann Cope  
Source: The Modern Language Journal, Vol.70, No. 2 (Summer, 1986), 125-130.
49. Holloway (2002), Qualitative Research in Nursing, UK, Oxford University Press.
50. Huxland, M, & Land, R.(2000). Assigning students in group projects. Can we do better than random. *Innovations in Education and Training International*, 37(1), 17-22.
51. Johnson, M.H., Karmiloff-Smith, A., Parisi, D. and Plunkett, K. 1987: Rethinking innateness: a connectionist perspective on development.
52. J.Hayes, &C.W. Allinson, (1984). "Learning Styles and Training and Development in Work Settings": Lessons from Educational Research. *Educational Psychology* 17(1,2), 185-193.
53. Jack's. Richards and Theodore's. S. Rodgers. 2001. Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Cambridge University Press.
54. Jane Revell (1990). Teaching Technique for communicative English, London Macmillan: Press Ltd, 27.
55. John, L. (2002). Language and Linguistics: An Introduction (15th ed.). Cambridge University Press.
56. J.M.Lee, & A.Rawls, (2010). "The College Completion Agenda" Progress Report. The College Board. Retrieved from <http://completionagenda.collegeboard.org>
57. Juhana (2012). Psychological Factors Hinder Students from Speaking in English Class: A Case Study in a Senior High School in Indonesia, Indonesia Open University.
58. Jan Hulstijn 2002; 18; 193 Second Language Research,.
59. Jensen, G.H. (1987). *Learning styles*. In Provost, J.A. & Anchors, S. (Eds.), Application of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicators in higher education (pp. 181-205). Palo Alto, GA: Consulting Psychology Press.

60. Keri, G. (2002). Degrees of congruence between instructor and student styles regarding satisfaction. *Radical Pedagogy*, 4(1), 32.
61. Knight, P. (2003). The development of EFL methodology. In Christopher N. Candlin and Neil Mercer (Eds.), *English language teaching in its social context* (pp. 147–166). New York: Taylor & Francis Group.
62. Kurtus, R (2001). Overcome the Fear of Speaking to Group. (Online): <http://www.school-for-champions.com/speaking/fear.htm>(June 20,2010) (June 20, 2010).
63. Lottie Baker (scientific paper) *English teaching forum* number four, volume 53. (2015)
64. Littlewood, W (1984). *Foreign and Second Language Learning. Language-acquisition research and its implications for the classroom.* Cambridge University Press, 57.
65. Littlewood, W (2008). *Foreign and Second Language Learning, Language-acquisition research and its implications for the classroom* Cambridge University Press, 62.
66. Luoma, S (2011). *Assessing Speaking.* Cambridge University Press, 9- 10
67. Lovelace, M. K. (2005). Meta-analysis of experimental research based on the Dunn and Dunn model. *The Journal of Education Research*, 98(3), 176-183.
68. Leech, G. (1983). *Principles of pragmatics.* New York: Longman.
69. Mai, Lee (2010). An investigation into factors that hinder the participation of university students in English speaking lessons. (published M.A Thesis, University of Languages and International Studies in Vietnam).
70. Middleton, F (2009). Overcome Your Fear of Speaking Foreign Languages. (Online): <http://www.eslteachersboard.com> (March 17, 2010).
71. McMahon D. E. (1999). Learning styles, teaching performance, and student achievement: A relational study. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 40(3), 11-20.
72. Muriel Saville – Troike, (2008) *Introduction to Second Language Acquisition.*

73. Nunan, D (1999). *Second Language Teaching and Learning*. USA. Heinle and Heinle Publisher.
74. Nascente, M (2001). *Practical Ways to Help Anxious Learners*. (Online): <http://www3.telus.net/linguisticsissues/anxious.html> (June 20, 2010).
75. Paul Davies, *Success in English Teaching*, (2010)
76. Ortega, L (2009). *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. University of Missouri Press, 145-165.
77. Omya, (1999) PHD thesis, Sudan University of Sciences and Technology.
78. Ogden, W. R. (2003). Reaching all the students: The feedback lecture. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 30(1), 22-27.
79. Rhodi Jones (1989). *Speaking and Listening*. London the Bath Press, 14.
80. Richard, J (2008). *Teaching Listening and Speaking: From Theory to Practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
81. Richard and Rerandya (2002). *Methodology in Language Teaching- An Anthology of Current Practice*. Cambridge University Press, 205-210.
82. Richard, J (2002). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*. Longman, British library, 31.
83. Rod Ellis. *Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford University Press, 1997. Pp. x + 147.
84. R.Felder, (1988). Applications, reliability and validity of the index of learning styles. *International Journal of Engineering Education*, 21(1): 103-112.
85. R.Oxford,, M Ehrmann, & R.Lavine, (1991). Style wars: "Teacher-student style conflicts in the language classroom". In S. Magnan, (Ed.), *Challenges in the 1990's for College Foreign Language Programs*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.

86. Prahoo, (1997), Principles, Process, and Issues. UK, Oxford University Press.
87. Robby, S (2010). Conquer Your Fear of Making Mistakes when Speaking English. (Online): <http://englishharmony.com/Conquer-fear-of-mistakes-when-speaking-English/> (March 15, 2011).
88. Robinson, (2001) Cognition and second language instruction. Cambridge University Press.
89. Richards, J. C., & Sukwiat, M. (1983). Language transfer and conversational competence.
90. Ranney, S. (1992). Learning a new script: An exploration of sociolinguistic competence. *Applied Linguistics*, 13, 25-50.
91. Reid, J (1987). The learning styles preference of ESL students. *TESOL Quarterly*, 21(1), 87-11.
92. Reid, J. (1995). The learning styles of ESLEFL classroom. (Report Heinle and Heinle Publishers, Florence, KY. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 396587.
93. L.Rubin, & C.Hebert, (2003). Model for active learning. *College Teaching*, 46(1), 25-31.
94. Tanveer, M (2007). Investigation of the Factors that cause language Anxiety for ESL/EFL learners in learning speaking skills and the Influence it casts on communication in the target language. (published M.A Thesis, University of Glasgow).
95. Tiono, I and Sylvia, A (2004). The Types of Communication Strategies Used by Speaking Class Students with Different Communication Apprehension Levels in English Department of Petra Christian University, Surabaya. A Thesis. Petra Christian University.
96. Solahudin, M (2008). Kiat-Kiat Praktis Belajar Speaking. Diva Press. PT. Gramedia Pustaka Utama.
97. Saurik (2011). Learning English The Easy Way! (Online):<http://guides.wikinut.com/Learning-English-The-Easy-Way> (March 15, 2011).

98. Scarcella, R. C. and R. L. Oxford. (1992), *The tapestry of language learning: The individual in the communicative classroom*. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle Publishers
99. Skehan, P.(1998), *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford University Press. *Second Language Acquisition*.
100. Rod Ellis, Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1997. Pp. x + 147.
100. Simon, H.A. (1992), What is an 'explanation' of behavior? *Psychological Science* 3, 150–61.
101. Steven D. Krashen, *Second Language Acquisition* (2009). UK. Oxford University Press.
101. Streubert and Carpenter, (1999), *English book- Illustrated Qualitative Research Methodology*, Philadelphia Press.
102. Scarcella, R. C. and R. L. Oxford. 1992. *The tapestry of language learning: The individual in the communicative classroom*. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle Publishers
103. Vivian Cook, (2008) New Castel University.
104. Van Dijk, T. A. (1981). *Studies in the pragmatics of discourse*. New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
105. Willingham,D.B., and Goedert-Eschmann, K. 1988:The relation between implicit and explicit learning: evidence for parallel development. *Psychological Science* 10, 531–34.
106. William Little wood 1983. *Communicative Language Teaching "An Introduction"*. Cambridge University Press.
107. Widdowson, H. G. (1978). *Teaching Language as Communication*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
108. Widdowson, H.G. *Teaching Language and Communication*) Oxford University Press (1978) Prentice-Hall, Inc.
109. Wagner, J. (1997). On discourse, communication, and (some) fundamental concepts in SLA research. *The Modern Language Journal*, 81, 285-300

110. Wierzbicka, A. (1985). Different cultures, different languages, different speech acts: Polish vs. English. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 9, 145-178.
111. Wierzbicka, A. (1994). "Cultural scripts": A semantic approach to cultural analysis and cross-cultural communication. In L. F. Bouton & Y. Kachru (Eds.), *Pragmatics and Language Learning*, monograph series vol. 5 (pp. 1-25). Urbana-Champaign, IL: Division of English as an International Language, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign.

## ***APPENDICES***

*Appendix I: The Interview*

*Appendix II: The Students' Questionnaire*

*Appendix III: The Teachers' Questionnaire*

## **Appendix I**

### **The Students' Interview**

This oral interview is used to describe the phenomenon of lack of speaking among the Sudanese university students before the study start. In this interview, the researcher uses a tape recorder to collect the students' oral performance in using English about general topics they can talk about.

#### **Part One: Introduce yourself:**

1. What is your name?
2. How old are you?
3. Where are you from?
4. How many sisters and brothers do you have?
5. What is your favorite hobby?
6. Do you like English? Why? **Please, explain why.**

#### **Part Two: Your home, town or village:**

7. What kind of place is it?
8. What is the most interesting part of your town/village?
9. What kind of job do the people in your town/village do?
10. Would you say your place is a good place to live? Please explain Why?

#### **Part Three: Accommodation:**

11. Tell me about the kind of accommodation you live in?

**12.** How long have you been living there?

**13.** What do you like about living there?

**14.** What sort of accommodation would you most like to live in?

**Prepared by:**

**Ibrahim A.M. SALEH**

**Appendix II**  
**The Students' Questionnaire**

**Dear Student,**

I would be grateful if you answer this questionnaire. I assure you that the information will be dealt with confidentially, and will only be used for research purpose. This questionnaire is part of a Doctorate Research **“Matching Teaching Styles and Learning Styles in Developing Students’ Oral Fluency and Competence”**. A Case Study of First Year Students of English of Nyala University-Khartoum-Sudan).

**Thank you for your cooperation**

**Ibrahim A. M. SALEH**

**Part One: Personal Information: Tick (√)**

**1. Gender**

- a. Male (    )
- b. female (    )

**2. Numbers of years of study of English:**

- a. Seven (    )
- b. Eight (    )
- c. Nine (    )
- d. Ten (    )

## Part Two: Learning Styles

### 3. How do you use your physical senses?

Tick (✓) one or two groups (A-B-C)

	Statements	Check (✓)
<b>Group (A) The visual Learners</b>		
3.1	Visuals materials in the lecture attract my attention.	
3.2	I have to look at people to understand what they say.	
3.3	I highlight the text in different colors when I read.	
3.4	I am good at spelling but forget names.	
3.5	I have to think for a while or before understanding the lecture.	
<b>Group (B) The Kinesthetic Learners</b>		
3.6	I like role- playing.	
3.7	I like to take breaks when studying.	
3.8	When I write something, I don't have good hand writing.	
3.9	I like to ask the teacher to diagram things out.	
3.10	I like to use memory games, flash cards to memorize.	
<b>Group (C) The Auditory Learners</b>		
3.11	I like listening to news from the radio.	
3.12	When I listen, I see pictures and words in my head.	
3.13	I remember something better if I write it down	
3.14	I like lessons of Grammar.	
3.15	I am good at explaining, enjoying music.	

#### 4. How do you use your possibilities?

	Statements	Yes	No
4.1.	I move my hands a lot when I speak.		
4.2.	During my free time, generally enjoy playing sport.		
4.3.	When I go practice speaking, I tend to repeat words loudly.		
4.4.	In a lecture, I am interested in doing something.		
4.5.	When I have to revise for an exam, I generally practice topics directly.		

#### 5. How do you deal with language rules?

	Statements	Yes	No
5.1.	I like to go from general patterns to specific examples in learning a target language.		
5.2.	I like to start with rules and theories rather than specific examples		
5.3.	I like to learn language rules indirectly through being exposed to a lot of examples of grammatical structures and other language features.		
5.4.	I do not really care if I hear a rule stated since I do not remember rules very well anyway.		
5.5.	I easily remember rules that I hear from my teacher.		

**6. How do you deal with response time and expose yourself to learning situations?**

	Statements	Yes	No
6.1.	I learn better when I study with others than by myself.		
6.2.	I meet new people easily by jumping into the conversation.		
6.3.	I learn better in the classroom than with a private tutor.		
6.4.	It is easy for me to talk to strangers.		
6.5	Talking with other students in class give me energy.		

**7.How do you deal with multiple inputs?**

	Statements	Yes	No
7.1.	When I produce an oral or written message in a target language, I make sure that all the grammatical structures are in agreement.		
7.2.	I do not only attend to grammar, but check for appropriate level of formality and politeness.		
7.3.	It is a challenge for me to focus on communication in speech or writing while paying attention to grammatical agreement (for example, person, number, tense, or gender).		
7.4.	When I use lengthy sentences in a target language, I get distracted and neglect aspects of grammar and style.		
7.5	I understand things better when the teacher writes on the board.		

## Part Thee: Teaching Styles

### 8. How do you deal with teaching styles?

1. Do you find difficulties in understanding your lecture ?

Yes (    )

No (    )

2. Does your teacher re-explain the points in different ways ?

Yes (    )

No (    )

3. Does your teacher provide group/pair work activities ?

Yes (    )

No (    )

4. Does your teacher give class projects to do ?

Yes (    )

No (    )

5. Does your teacher provide opportunities for the whole class to participate ?

Yes (    )

No (    )

6. Does your teacher supports lectures with pictures and diagrams ?

Yes (    )

No (    )

Are you willing to attend your class ?

Yes (    )

No (    )

**Thank you for your cooperation**

## **Appendix III**

### **The Teachers' Questionnaire**

**Dear teacher,**

I would be grateful if you answer this questionnaire. I assure you that the information will be dealt with confidentially and will only be used for research purposes. This questionnaire is part of a Doctorate Research being prepared for the Study of **“Matching Teaching Styles and Learning Styles in Developing Students’ Oral Fluency and Competence”. A Case Study of First Year Students of English of Nyala University-Khartoum-Sudan**). In that regard, we have developed a questionnaire to learn more about the teaching styles and learning styles processes used in the classroom. To gain an accurate understanding of these processes in developing the speaking skill, it is critical that we learn from you about your approach to teaching.

**Thank you for your cooperation**

**Ibrahim A.M. SALEH**

## **Part One: Personal Information**

### **1. Gender:**

- a. Male ( )
- b. Female ( )

### **2. Qualifications**

- a. Bachelor ( )
- b. Magister ( )
- c. Doctorate ( )

## **Part Two: Teaching Styles**

### **3. What type of information do you emphasize ?**

- a. Intuitive
- b. Concrete
- c. Intuitive-concrete
- d. No answer

### **4. What mode of presentation do you use?**

- a. Visual
- b. Verbal
- c. Visual-verbal

### **5. How do you organize the presentation of the content?**

- a. Deductive
- b. Inductive
- c. Deductive-Inductive

**6. What kind of students do you prefer?**

- a. Active
- b. Reflective
- c. Active reflective

**7. What type of perspective do you provide on the information presented?**

- a. Analytic
- b. Global

**8. Do you know your students' preferred ways to learn?**

Yes (     )

No (     )

**9. If "yes", Do you consider them?**

Yes (     )

No (     )

**10. You re-explain the unclear points differently from the first time?**

Yes (     )

No (     )

### Part Three: Learning Styles

	In my classroom, I sometimes:	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree
11	Identify the students' learning preferences to be matched with the teaching styles.					
12	Create listening and reading activities to develop the speaking skill.					
13	Identify possible correlation between teaching and learning preferences					
14	Motivate the students to make required changes in their speaking					
15	Use anger management strategies to attract the students' attention					

**Part Four: Approach to Teaching**

	<b>In my classroom, I:</b>	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Not sure</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
<b>16</b>	Introduce more information to enhance the students' ideas through direct instructions.					
<b>17</b>	Present topics in the form of materials, objects, and events as nearly authentic learning environment.					
<b>18</b>	Develop free interactive dialogue and discussion to promote the students' speaking confidence.					
<b>19</b>	Help the students develop reasoning and problem-solving skills.					
<b>20</b>	Assist the students' participation through translating difficult words into Arabic.					

**Part Five: Teaching Techniques**

	<b>In my classroom, I generally:</b>	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Not sure</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
<b>21</b>	Use imaginary stories to enhance the students' strategies in solving problems during discussion.					
<b>22</b>	Promote the respect of cultural differences to motivate shy students to share their ideas.					
<b>23</b>	Discuss topics with the students according to their academic background.					
<b>24</b>	Set up classroom seating according to the students' learning styles (groups).					
<b>25</b>	Motivate the learners through using instructional media. (Data show, computer, laboratory...)					

**Part Six: Activities to Develop Speaking**

	<b>In my classroom, I use:</b>	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Not sure</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
<b>26</b>	Discussion through introducing a topic of reading or listening to develop speaking.					
<b>27</b>	Presentation and oral report where the students present topics from notes.					
<b>28</b>	Simulation and role-play where the students interact to solve problems.					
<b>29</b>	Conversation as an objective to develop conversational competence.					
<b>30</b>	Interview in the form of interaction question or situation					

**Thank you for your cooperation**

## مستخلص الدراسة

تهدف الدراسة الي توضيح آراء الطلاب في استخدام الانجليزية كوسيلة للاتصال بين الشعوب ، وذلك من خلال تجربة اهمية اساليب التعلم التي تتوافق مع رغبات الطلاب الجامعيين , وذلك بغرض تطوير وتمكين الطلاب في الجامعات السودانية من تكلم الانجليزية بطلاقة كما يتحدثها أصحابها. لتحقيق اهداف الدراسة استخدم الباحث نظام المعاينة لفحص طلاقة الطلاب قبل بدء الدراسة ثم استخدم الاستبانة، وشارك عدد 80 طالب وطالبة من الطلاب السودانيين الذين يتعلمون الانجليزية كلغة اجنبية في الإجابة علي الاسئلة, كذلك قدم الباحث استبانة اخري لأساتذة الجامعات السودانية وشارك فيها عدد 40 أستاذا جامعيًا. أظهرت نتائج الدراسة أن الطلاب لديهم آراء إيجابية حول استخدام الإنجليزية كوسيلة للتواصل وصياغتها في المواقف الحقيقية المختلفة داخل وخارج قاعة الدراسة في حال مماثلة اساليب التعليم والتعلم في التدريس . افترضت الدراسة ما اذا اخذنا اسلوب تعلم بعناية من خلال اسلوب تدريسي فعال لمهارة الكلام, لانتهت مشكلة صعوبة تحدثا لإنجليزية بطلاقة , وكذلك اذا وضع الاستاذ الجامعي في مخيلته الفروق الفردية بين الطلاب, وانهم من بيئات لغوية مختلفة, فان طريقة اكتسابهم للمعلومات الاكاديمية داخل قاعة الدراسة سيكون مختلف, وهذا يساهم بشكل واضح في تنمية مهارة الكلام بطلاقة. اظهرت نتائج الدراسة بان هناك تنافر تام بين مدخلات التدريس الجامعي وميول ورغبات الطلاب الجامعيين مما أثر علي قدرة الطلاب في اجادة الانجليزية كلغة اجنبية. أخيرا يوصي الباحث بأهمية تصنيف الطلاب الجامعيين حسب ميولهم ورغباتهم واعادة النظر في الاستراتيجية التدريسية داخل القاعات وان الصورة دائما تنقل الواقع أكثر اذا أردنا تنمية مهارة الكلام.

## Résumé

Cette étude se propose d'étudier le degré de correspondance entre les styles d'enseignement et d'apprentissage et d'apprentissage stratégies pour développer la capacité de oral des étudiants Soudanais. Elle attiré l'attention des étudiants et des éducateurs au Soudan sur l'importance de parler comme l'une des compétences linguistiques les plus importantes. Le but de cette étude est de proposer des recommandations constructives pour les étudiants, les enseignants et les éducateurs afin d'enseignants et les éducateurs afin d'améliorer les processus de enseignement et d'apprentissage de la parole. En outre, elle visa à préciser l'inadéquation entre les styles de apprentissage et d'enseignement qui affectent utilisateur de l'anglais oralement. L'échantillon de l'étude est de 80 étudiants de première année au collège de l'éducation et des arts, Université de Nyala, au Soudan. Les' instruments utilisés dans cette étude est l'Interview orale des étudiants utilisée comme étude pilote et deux questionnaires. Un questionnaire a été administré pendant les cours magistraux aux étudiants, un autre questionnaire a été administré aux enseignant d'anglais au niveau tertiaire. lesle données ont été analysées "Statistical Package for Social Sciences" des résultats de l'étude indiquent qu' il existe un décalage entre les styles d'enseignement et d'apprentissage affectant les compétences. En outre, l'étude souligne que ces stratégies ont plus d'impact sur le parler que toute autre compétence linguistique. Elle suggère également que les enseignants qui souhaitent améliorer les compétences orales de leurs étudiants doivent considérer que ces stratégies correspondent aux styles d'apprentissage des étudiants.