

Міністерство освіти і науки України
Закарпатський угорський інститут ім. Ференца Ракоці II
Кафедра Філології

Реєстраційний № _____

Кваліфікаційна робота
ВЗАЄМОЗВ'ЯЗОК МІЖ ПЕРЦЕПТИВНИМИ СТИЛЯМИ НАВЧАННЯ,
СТРАТЕГІЯМИ ВИВЧЕННЯ МОВИ ТА ОБСЯГОМ СЛОВНИКОВОГО
ЗАПАСУ

ЧУРІ БАРБАРА ЙОСИПІВНА

Студентка 2-го курсу

Освітня програма «Філологія» (мова і література англійська)

Спеціальність 035 Філологія

Рівень вищої освіти: магістр

Тема затверджена на засіданні кафедри

Протокол №96 від 02.10. 2023

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Робота захищена на оцінку _____, «__» _____ 202_ року

Протокол № _____ / 202_

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Чурі Барбара Йосипівна

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Берегове

2024

Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine
Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education

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Qualifying paper

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENTS' PERCEPTUAL LEARNING
STYLE PREFERENCES, LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES AND
VOCABULARZ SIZE**

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Berehove

2024

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INTRODUCTION

In the dynamic field of education, understanding the way students learn best has become a critical area of interest for educators and researchers alike. Among the several variables influencing learning outcomes, learners' perceptual learning styles (LS), language learning strategies (LLS), and vocabulary size stand out as one of the most important factors of academic success, specifically in the paradigm of language acquisition. The goal of the current thesis is to clarify the complex interactions between these essential components and how they affect language learning proficiency as a whole.

The present thesis builds upon a rich body of academic literature that delves into the definitions, classification, and the possible correlation between these notions. Notable works include those done by Rubin and Oxford (1990) in the field of language learning strategy use, who defined this concept as "the techniques or devices which learners may use to acquire knowledge" (Rubin, 1975, p.8). Gardner's (1985) seminal work and Nation's (2001) studies exploring vocabulary acquisition and related strategies are also considered. Furthermore, Reid's research (1987) provides significant background on the role of perceptual learning styles, serving as a theoretical framework that determined the direction of the present research. By putting forth the definition of the learning styles as „the modalities of receiving information" (Reid, 1995, pp. 4-5) and dividing them into visual, auditory and kinaesthetic, he created a framework for understanding how different learners engage in the learning process.

Accordingly, the object of the present thesis is the language learning styles and strategies used by English as a foreign language (EFL) learners.

The **subject** of the thesis is the relationship between students' language learning styles and strategies and their vocabulary size. In particular, the study focuses on the EFL learners' perceptual styles, encompassing visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic modalities, and their correlation with the use of language learning strategies in the educational context. Additionally, the study delves into how these factors shape the development of vocabulary among language learners thereby offering an insight into the language learning process. Through empirical analysis and examination, the study purports to identify patterns, correlations, and possible areas for intervention to improve language learning efficiency and effectiveness.

Hence, this study aims to clarify the complex relationships that exist between students' vocabulary size, language learning strategies, and perceptual learning styles, with a particular emphasis on how these relationships affect language acquisition results as a whole.

The tasks of the thesis are as follows:

- critical assessment of the academic literature;
- developing the theoretical and conceptual framework to the study;
- analysis of the language learners' Perceptual Style preferences and Learning Strategy use, and the effect of these key aspects on the vocabulary size.

The study employs both theoretical and empirical methods, including analysis, synthesis, comparison, survey, and testing. The main focus of this investigation is to examine the correlations between key aspects using a quantitative research paradigm and a specifically designed questionnaire. Based on the literature analysis, the research questions were the following:

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between perceptual learning styles and language learning strategies?

Research Question 2: Is there any relationship between the students' learning style, language learning strategies, and vocabulary size?

Research Question 3: Are there any differences in learning style preference among the participants?

Research Question 4: Which learning strategies are most frequently used by the participants?

To answer the above research questions, two hypotheses were stated:

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive correlation between learners' perceptual learning style and learning strategies.

Hypothesis 2: There is a relationship between learners' preferred learning styles, learning strategies, and vocabulary size.

The **theoretical value** of the thesis lies in its potential to extend existing ideas and theories, as well as to deepen our understanding of the complicated relationship between learning styles, strategies, and vocabulary acquisition.

The **practical value** of the study consists in providing relevant evidence proving the correlation between the two key variables and the EFL vocabulary size. The results of

this study can help design focused treatments and resources that will improve language learning outcomes for students with different origins and skill levels.

The **novelty** of the study lies in its comprehensive analysis of the relationship between perceptual learning styles, learning strategies, and vocabulary size, the three factors that haven't been widely studied together. By focusing on this combination, the research fills a significant gap in the literature, and offers new insight into the language acquisition process.

The thesis consists of an introduction, four parts, conclusions, a resume, references, and an appendix. The first part covers the issues of definitions and the nature of learning styles. It also provides an understanding of the classification and models associated with different learning styles. The second part describes the characteristics of language learning strategies, the challenges in defining them, and the taxonomies developed by scholars who have contributed significantly to the field of language learning studies. The third part focuses on the vocabulary, including types of vocabulary, strategies for acquiring vocabulary, and the importance of concepts such as size, depth, and breadth. The fourth part presents the methodology, findings, and discussions of the empirical investigation.

Part 1
THE THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF LANGUAGE LEARNING
STYLES

The first part is based on the theoretical background of language learning styles. It deals with the issues of definition and classification, as well as the models proposed by various researchers to give an insight into the nature and essence of the aforementioned styles. Furthermore, information related to the instruments applied in Learning Style assessment is provided in this section.

1.1 Defining the term “learning style”

Language learners differ in a number of ways when it comes to foreign language acquisition, often categorized as language learning styles. It is crucial to emphasise that despite their relationship, learning styles and abilities are not synonymous because they differ in how individuals choose to approach a task. According to Grigorenko and Sternberg (1995) styles are the product of intelligence and personality interactions: “they are not abilities, but rather how these abilities (and the knowledge acquired through them) are used in day-to-day interactions with the environment. Simply put, styles are not how much intelligence we have, but how we use it (205).

The definition of learning styles cannot be accurately done without distinguishing between the terms “cognitive style” and “learning style”. The notion of cognitive style was proposed by Allport in 1937. His perspective was founded on Jung’s theory of psychological types. Although since then the term “style” was revised and redefined, its fundamental meaning of favoured approaches of doing something that persisted for a longer period of time has remained the same. The whole concept was initiated by cognitive psychologists who by means of investigation of questions related to problem solving and perceptual abilities, proposed a term that represents individual ways of processing, organising and perceiving data. However, the focus of attention has shifted to the role of styles in the education process, and the concept of “learning style” has been put forth to

denote both an equivalent and a substitute of the existing term “cognitive style” (Kaminska, 2014).

As it was discussed earlier, in some cases the two notions are viewed as interchangeable term, while some theorist assert the contrary. According to Riding and Chema (1991), the central distinction between them is the quantity of components taken into account, as cognitive styles are considered to be bipolar, while learning style encompass much more elements (p. 194). The term "learning style" was primarily meant to serve as a type of stand-in for cognitive style. Those who used the term did take cognitive styles into consideration, but their main focus was on how these styles were put into practice. In his discussion of these phenomena, Brown (1994) noted that when cognitive styles are applied in an educational setting, where affective and psychological variables influence the setting, we speak of "learning styles." Accordingly, they “mediate between emotion and cognition” (pp. 104-105). Additionally, as previously discussed, learning styles are more complex and the components that make them up cannot be viewed as opposites, whereas cognitive styles are more bipolar in character. There is no evidence of a dualistic nature when it comes to learning styles, a person either possesses a certain element or does not. Consequently, it can be said that one of the primary differences between cognitive and learning styles is the absence of a certain feature. (Brown, 1994)

Willing (1988) further emphasised a distinction, stating that whilst "cognitive style" is a feature of the mind and is unseen, it has little to no relevance to the performance of daily tasks. In contrast, "learning style" is more "visible" and can be observed during everyday tasks (Kaminska, 2014).

As it was discussed earlier, “learning style” is a cover term to refer to the different manners of approaching learning that can be observed in various disciplines like educational psychology and second language acquisition. Theorists and researchers made an attempt to provide comprehensive definitions to the term, although each of them approached the concept by focusing on different aspects of personality, type of task, etc. Oxford (2013), for example, defined learning styles as “the general approach preferred by the students when learning a subject, acquiring a language, or dealing with difficult problems” (273). According to this viewpoint, a number of learners enjoy

listening to lectures, someone prefers reading books or listen to music, while there are those who move around while studying. The before mentioned ways of learning are viewed as constant patterns that give the directions to the learning process (Oxford, 2011).

There are more than twenty dimensions of learning styles distinguished in the academic literature, and all of them are based on other main research traditions namely the study of perceptions and Gestalt psychology, Carl Jung's theory of personality and ego psychology (Ehrman & Oxford, 1990). Another insightful definition of the term was proposed by Dunn and Griggs (2001) who emphasised the biological nature of learning style. According to their view, "learning styles are the biologically and developmentally imposed set of characteristics that make the same teaching method wonderful for some and terrible for others" (Oxford, 2001, p. 359). In accordance with this view, when considering learning styles, we talk about relatively stable features of learners that are hard to manipulate (Oxford, 2001).

Reid (1995) put forward another significant definition of learning styles as being "an individual's habitual and preferred ways of absorbing, processing, and training new information and skills" (Reid, p. 8). Furthermore, there is an important notion related to this concept that distinguishes learning styles from learning strategies for example, as styles are usually denoted using adjectives (visual, communicative, kinaesthetic), or sometimes nouns like conformist, etc., whilst strategies are expressed as verbs, as they are what learners do (e.g. taking notes, eating words out, etc.).

Overall, several significant definitions were suggested by different researchers and all of them highlighted the importance of the students' preferred ways of dealing with learning and retrieving newly acquired information (Kaminska, 2014).

1.2 The nature of learning styles

Learning styles have been defined in various ways and all of these definitions focus on the cognitive, affective and psychological nature of this notion. Based on the proposed views of the term, it can be stated that learning styles are

perceived as patterns that indicate how a learner deals with the learning environment. However, there is a debate based on the nature of strategies, more precisely whether styles are determined at birth or shaped exceptionally by the environment. Sternberg (1994) believes that styles can be developed by the environment, type of tasks and situations, but they are not features of one's personality (Kaminska, 2014).

Furthermore, learning styles may vary according to the stage of life, for example, which supports Sternberg's view of the styles not being predetermined. Environment plays a key role in shaping the learning style, as learners approach certain tasks in particular ways, with certain styles. This viewpoint can be supported by the role of rewards for using a preferred style in a certain task. On the other hand, there is an observation of the use of less rewarded styles, which suggests that some predetermined characteristics may play a role and are extremely difficult to change (Sternberg, 1994, p. 174).

Although the debate on the nature of styles began long ago, it is still not clear which one influences preference more. According to some research, these notions influence the presence of certain styles. For example, the preference for food intake while studying, the positioning of light, etc., is biologically determined—it is a biological need. However, the preference to study alone or in groups can result from previous exposure to these methods when dealing with practical tasks. Furthermore, the fact that siblings differ in their learning styles also suggests the "teachable" nature of styles (Kaminska, 2014).

In their research, Kinsella and Sherak (1998) argued that learning styles cannot be defined as completely unchangeable and inherent; rather, they are acquired through experience gained in the classroom, influenced by roles and norms (p. 88). For instance, when using a questionnaire to gather information about style preferences, respondents tend to select alternatives that have helped them succeed in completing learning tasks, while unfamiliar options may be disregarded (Kinsella & Sherak, 1998). One conclusion drawn from this information is that learning styles, like other aspects of cognitive behavior and learning, are highly complex phenomena, involving the methods learners employ when encountering, processing, and retaining new information (Kinsella & Sherak, 1998). Additionally, Kinsella and Mariani (1995)

described key characteristic features of learning styles using three words: natural, habitual, and preferred (p. 171).

Even though a lot of research has been done in the field of learning styles and their nature, there is no single established system of learning styles to denote the ones which could be considered inherent, and those learnt in the process of exposure. Learning styles are generally ranged on the basis of their component, so there are cognitive, psychological, affective styles, etc., all of the being treated equally.

1.3 Learning style models

There exist a great number of learning style models developed and proposed by different theorist and researchers in order to provide an insight into the types of strategies and classify them in accordance with particular components. Within (1961) for example came up with a distinction between field dependent and field independent models. The whole concept was first based on the visual perception and people were classified into one of two types in accordance with their response. The whole model is based on the extent to which people are “dependent on the structure of the prevailing visual field or are free or independent of the influence of the whole field when they look at the parts” (Dörnyei, 2005, p.136). On the basis of this observation, it can be concluded that field dependent people view new information altogether, they prefer to make use of the learning context when dealing with unfamiliar information. On the other hand, field independent people like to “decompose” information to its smallest components, they prefer to learn step by step.

Another system established by Riding and Chema (1991) has two separate style dimensions: verbal-imagery and holistic-analytic. The first dimension asks whether people prefer to approach knowledge in its entirety or in smaller pieces. As the name implies, holistic learners approach a topic without dividing it into smaller chunks and instead opting to adopt a broad viewpoint on the context. Analytical people prefer to break down a situation into its component and look for patterns. The aforementioned aspects are further separated into learning style dichotomies. Te holistic dimension includes learning styles as

innovators and adapters, where innovators approach a problem by introducing new concept while adapters make use of the existing ones (Kaminska, 2014).

Drawing on the works of Swiss psychologist Carl Jung, who viewed learning styles as manifestations of people's preferred means of adapting to their environment, Kolb (1984) developed a model. Based on a four-stage learning cycle, the model encompasses various learning styles. These stages include concrete experience, thoughtful observation, and active experimentation. The model operates on the premise that learners can engage in observation and reflection after directly experiencing the real world. In other words, learning commences with practical experience, providing learners with a foundation for alternative modes of thinking. Subsequently, learners observe and contemplate their experiences to draw specific conclusions. Following this process, they formulate abstract hypotheses based on their reflections. Kolb's model posits that perception and processing, represented as two opposing dimensions along two continua, give rise to various learning styles. The first dimension concerns the perception and comprehension of experience, encompassing both concrete and abstract concepts. The second dimension relates to how individuals encounter, process, and adapt to events. By combining these two dimensions, four learning style groups emerge: converger, diverger, assimilator, and accommodator (Kolb, 1984).

Myers and her daughter utilized Carl Jung's theory of psychological types to classify learning styles according to personality types. The model consists of four fundamental dimensions: thinking-feeling, judging-perceiving, sensing-intuiting, and extraversion-introversion. Extroverts derive their energy from the external world, actively seeking social engagement and maintaining numerous friendships. Conversely, introverts draw energy from within, preferring introspective thought and solitude, typically maintaining a few close friendships (Oxford, 2001b). Sensing individuals focus on details and utilize their senses to perceive their environment, favoring systematic, well-organized instruction grounded in facts rather than theories, and often expect clear guidance from instructors. Intuitive individuals rely on intuition, seeking connections and patterns and preferring to direct their own learning. Reasoners employ logic and rules in decision-making, prioritizing rationality over emotions. Conversely, feelers often base decisions on personal considerations

(Oxford, 2001b). Furthermore, individuals categorized as "judging" are closure-oriented, making quick decisions and focusing on task completion, sometimes acting hastily but prioritizing necessary actions. Conversely, those identified as perceivers or open are flexible and spontaneous, often initiating tasks but struggling to complete them.

Ehrman and Leaver (2003) proposed another complex model, introducing two superordinate style dimensions: ectasis and synopsis. These dimensions relate to the desired level of conscious control over learning. Synopsis emphasizes unconscious or preconscious processing, perceiving phenomena as wholes, while ectasis seeks conscious control over processing, perceiving phenomena as composites (Ehrman & Leaver, 2003, p. 404).

Among these divisions, the one between analogue and digital learners is a relatively new one. Stories, parables, analogies, and metaphors are preferred by analogue learners, who also frequently employ deep learning strategies like association and elaboration. Digital learners, on the other hand, prefer to hear things straight, without any unnecessary or fantastical elaboration. Their primary methods are surface-level ones like word lists and memorization (Kaminska, 2014).

1.4 Perceptual learning styles

There were various attempts to define and classify learning styles in accordance with the way people react to the learning environment. One of the outstanding classifications is called the "perceptual learning style" model developed by Reid (1984). The word perceptual refers to the ability of a person to realise something through his/her senses. Therefore, every learner has a preferred way of being exposed to language. However, it is important to note that there are no absolute modes of learning. It means that a person can benefit from two or even three types of learning styles at the same time. According to Davis (2007), perceptual learning styles are "the means by which learners extract information from their surroundings through the use of their five senses" (p. 46). Oxford defined the concept of "perceptual preferences" as "the

physical, perceptual channels with which the student is most comfortable” (Oxford 2001, p. 360). Four primary categories of learners are distinguished: visual, auditory, tactile and kinesthetic ones.

Visual learners. The term “visual” refers to our ability to see things. Accordingly, visual learners are those who make use of visual aids. Davis (2007) described visual learners as those who have vivid imagination. This type of learners actively use flashcards, maps, handouts, diagrams, as these aids help them to remember the material in the best possible way. When it comes to classroom learning, they prefer to take notes, use textbooks and the information written on the boards, furthermore the role of the teacher, more specifically the body language and facial expression also significantly influence the performance of these learners (Kaminska, 2014).

Another interesting notion connected to the classification of perceptual styles is whether the type of learner that prefers reading books is a visual or auditory one. Montemayor (2009) suggests that those who enjoy reading books should be considered auditory ones, as they learn words, the sounds of a language by reading them out loud not because they can see the information (Kaminska, 2014).

There is a further subdivision of visual learners into two main types: visual\verbal and visual\nonverbal. Because they like reading printed materials like textbooks, handouts, and their notes, visual/verbal learners are "print-oriented" learners (Marcia, 1995). However, in order to process the information being presented, visual/nonverbal learners transfer information into a mental picture (Marcia, 1995). To put it briefly, learners who are visual/verbal interpret written materials, whereas learners who are visual/nonverbal interpret drawn ones.

Auditory learners. The predisposition for learning by hearing and listening to words is known as auditory learning. In contrast to visual learners, auditory learners find lectures and debates to be pleasant and beneficial. Auditory learners "interpret the underlying meaning of speech through listening to the tone of voice, pitch, speed, and other nuances" with ease, according to Montemayor (Renou et al., 2009 p. 61). Videos, audios are materials they are comfortable with. In a nutshell, auditory learners pick up knowledge through listening to others or themselves. There are two categories of auditory learners:

auditory/verbal learners and auditory/nonverbal learners. As they listen to others speak, auditory and nonverbal people are also referred to as "listeners."

Tactual Learners. According to Dunn, Beaudry, and Klavavas (2002), "Tactile suggests learning with hands through manipulation of resources" (p. 53). Tactile learners like creating models, creating artwork, conducting experiments in the lab, simply put, they like to move and use their hands to produce new things. When studying, tactual learners feel as though they must do something and use their hands during the learning process. For example, during lectures in the classroom, students take notes and highlight key points as they read.

Kinesthetic Learners. This type of learners benefit from body movements. According to Davis (2007) these students concentrate the best when moving around the classroom. In the learning process they engage in lively activities like role-playing, pantomime, field trips and any other thing that involves physical activity. However, there is one downside of this ability to learn, i.e., the struggle to remain motionless for a long time. There was a debate based on the differentiation of the two styles, namely the tactile and kinesthetics, as both require the learners to use movement. However, Lauridsen (2007) provided an explanation, according to which kinaesthetic learners use their whole body in the learning process, whereas tactual learners use particular parts of their bodies (Kaminska, 2014).

1.5 Instruments applied in Learning Style assessment

A number of assessment tools were designed in order to get an understanding of people's style preferences. The most commonly used method of assessment is a questionnaire survey where respondents are asked to locate their answers in accordance with a particular learning style. The most widely used instruments are the Perceptual Learning Style Preference (PLSP) designed by Reid in 1998, the Style Analysis Survey (SAS) proposed by Oxford and Nam, and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) (Kaminska, 2014).

The Perceptual Learning Style Preference Survey. Reid created the Perceptual Learning Style Preference (PLSP) Survey, which asks participants

to select their favourite learning style from six categories: tactile, visual, auditory, kinesthetic, individual and group learning. The first four categories focus on how pupils take in information using their physical senses and the final sections address the preferences from autonomous versus social learning. Reid (1998) described a large-scale study with 1300 pupils from nine distinct mother languages backgrounds that used the present survey. The following is the summary of the primary findings concluded by Reid:

1. The majority of English language learners in the US have high kinaesthetic and tactile learning style preferences.
2. Most students detest group instruction.
3. Learners with varying linguistic and cultural background exhibit variations in their selection of the learning styles.
4. Certain study domains tend to favour particular learning styles over the others, for example science students enjoy visual learning, whilst engineering students make use of tactile learning more.(Davis 2007)

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. Based on Carl Jung's psychological types, Isabel Briggs Meyer and her mother Katharine Cook Briggs created the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). The main idea of the concept was based on the everyday functioning of a person and the importance of underlying stable preferences for particular ways of functioning. It is a well known fact that personality types are also strongly correlated with language learning and the level of success in the learning process. Among the personality characteristics assessed by the tool are: the sense of humour, an emphasis on accomplishment, assertiveness, extroversion, impulsivity, risk-taking, adaptability, etc. The MBTI is based on Jung's four personality dimensions: extraversion vs. introversion, sensing vs. intuition, thinking vs. feeling, judging vs. perceiving. People's level of energy and orientation are described by the extroversion and introversion scale. Extroverts are interested in activities in the outside world, whereas an introvert finds energy in solitary pursuit. The sensing vs. intuition model explains how individuals process information and view the environment. An intuitive person prefers novel ideas, while a sensing person views the world objectively. The thinking vs. feeling scale explains how individuals choose what to do. Reasoners base their conclusions on standards of cause and consequence; feelers on the other hand, make decisions based on

their subjective opinion. The judging vs. perceiving scale gives explanation to the way people interact. Judgers value control and organization, whilst sensitivities include independence and self-governance.(Davis 2007)

With then four polar scales operating independently of each other, sixteen different preference combinations referred to as “types” can be made. An acronym made up of the first letters of the previously mentioned preferences is used to encode a kind. Therefore, the term ISFP designates a personality type that values introversion, sensing, feeling, and perceiving.

The Style Analysis Survey. This assessment tool was developed by Oxford (1993) who highlighted three primary categories of learning style dimensions: sensory style aspect, such as hands-on, visual and auditory, social dimensions, namely extrovert and introvert, and cognitive style dimensions, which include analysing\synthesising, global\particular, closure-oriented\open, concrete-sequential\random-intuitive, and global\particular. For every style dimension, there is a continuum that each learner finds themselves on. The original SAS addressed five learning style characteristics, recently however, the Learning Style Survey (LLS) was developed by Cohen et al in 2005, using the SAS as a basis and further developing it by adding Ehrman and Leaver’s comprehensive cognitive styles. This resulted in six more cognitive dimensions that were incorporated into the SAS: impulsive\reflective, field-dependent\field-independent, analysing\synthesising, sharpener\leveller, deductive\inductive, impulsive\synthesizing, and metaphorical\literal (Kaminska, 2014).

In sum, the term Language Learning Styles refers to all the preferred ways of learners to absorb and process information. A great range of research has been conducted on this topic by scholars like Reid (1984), Oxford (2001). etc., who tried to categorize the aforementioned variables. The most widespread classification distinguishes visual, auditory and kinaesthetic learners. These types refer to the senses the learners favour to retain information. Understanding these variables is crucial in order to enhance student’s engagement and foster a more effective learning environment.

PART 2

THE CONCEPT OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

THE SECOND PART provides data related to the difficulties of definition and classification of the second variable that influences language and vocabulary acquisition - the language learning strategies. This section discusses taxonomies and the nature of strategies, as well as the main tendencies of research methodologies and tools applied in the field of these strategies.

2.1 The role of learning strategies in language acquisition research

Learning a language is a complicated process that calls for a variety of actions and tailored strategies to accomplish certain learning objectives. Given the vast amount of information that language learners must acquire, language learning strategies are extremely important. Language learning strategies are defined as the methods by which students manage the learning process to better comprehend and remember new information even when they cannot be directly observed (Naiman & Fröchlich, 1978).

Learning strategies are specific ideas or behaviours people use to understand, absorb, or remember new information. Learner strategies are intentional attempts made by the learner to assimilate knowledge; they might be conscious or potentially conscious. The behaviours or actions that learners use to help the learning process become more effective, efficient, self-directed, and pleasurable are referred to as learning strategies. The difficulty of identifying, characterising, and categorising these tactics is shown by this and other definitions (Naiman & Fröchlich, 1978).

While much valuable work has been done on the subject of how language is developed, learned, and acquired, for a number of years, a great deal of substantial effort has gone into developing methods, theories, and approaches to teaching language. Significantly less attention has been paid to language acquisition from the learner's perspective.

A significant portion of the research on language education moved from teaching strategies to the students and their learning experiences between the late 1960s and the early 1970s. Regarding how students complete their assignments when learning a language, there was some worry. The purpose of the study was to identify commonalities and universals in the learning processes among students (Oxford, 1999).

The aforesaid research interest in the individual variance among learners correlates with classroom teacher' question: why are some learners more successful than others even if they are learning under the same circumstances and experience the same teaching methods in the same classroom? Although identifying and categorising language learning strategies is a difficult endeavour, it is important to understand where they are positioned in the theoretical descriptions of how a language is learned. Learning strategies have the capacity to influence the process of foreign language acquisition. Learning strategies are "the techniques which learner may use to acquire knowledge," according to Rubin (1975), one of the first researchers (p. 43).

Rubin (1975) highlighted that, although most individuals learn their first language with success, everyone is successful in learning other languages. A language learning theory has been advanced on the basis of which success in learning other languages can to some extent be ascribed to the strategies used by learners themselves. Alongside other assumptions, methods and approaches in language learning and teaching emerged in order to determine how these theories and methods are significant in understanding learning strategy theory (Dörnyei, 2005).

For a long period of time the Grammar-Translation Method was the standard way for student to acquire the knowledge of a language other than their first language. Employing this method, students simply learned grammar and vocabulary, and translated from one language into another. However, this method does not advocate the opportunity to use language learning strategies to promote learning. Although the importance of the learner's own operations for performing have been presented, for example, in suggestions for how to effortlessly recall vocabulary lists which were common in Grammar-Translation classrooms, such suggestions were commenced by the teacher and not by the learners (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

The cognitive approach to language acquisition allowed students to take an active role in their own education and resulted in the creation of learning strategies that students could utilise to support and advance their language learning. According to this perspective, learners were capable of contributing positively and effectively to the learning process; they were neither translators nor passive communicators. In order to comprehend the new language and apply their information with careful consideration, learners employed cognitive processes. This point of view influenced studies that sought to identify the methods that language learners use to successfully acquire a language that differs from their native tongue.

The researchers' goal was to raise awareness of the ways in which other students could improve their language learning skills by utilising the tactics employed by successful students. According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), when learning is seen as a cognitive talent, everyone can potentially improve their language acquisition potential and acquire proficiency in the tactics utilised in the process. Much of the study and writing on language learning strategies has been prompted by the assumption that information obtained about learning strategies may be useful to other students to help them learn more effectively and efficiently (Maiman & Fröchlich, 2017).

The teachability of language learning strategies is not generally acknowledged, despite the fact that a cognitive perspective on these strategies suggests that they are teachable and there are arguments that strategy instruction is a crucial aspect of the teacher's role (Cohen & Macaro, 2013). Rees-Miller (1993) listed age, educational background, life experience, cognitive styles, and learner ideas regarding language acquisition as potential reasons why teaching tactics fail (Oxford, 2017).

2.2 Taxonomy of language learning styles

Defining language learning strategies has been a challenging task. One of the earliest investigators in this regard, Rubin (1975) came up with a general definition of learning strategies as “the techniques or devices which learner may use to acquire knowledge” (Kinginer, 2013). By observing classrooms, reflecting on her own experiences, and engaging in conversations with proficient language learners, she identified seven distinctive strategies characteristic of effective language learners:

- guessing/infering;
- communicating (for example, by means of gestures, etc.);
- managing inhibitions;
- attending to form (for example, by looking for patterns);
- practising (for example, pronunciation);
- monitoring one's own and the speech of others;
- attending to meaning (for example, by attending to context) (Kinginer,2013)

Almost simultaneously as Rubin published her good learner study, a list of 10 language learning strategies employed by good language learners was generated by Stern (1975). He

suspected that good language learners are characterized by positive learning strategies. He specified them as indirect and direct strategies:

- experimenting;
- planning;
- developing the new language into an ordered system;
- revising progressively;
- practising;
- using the language in real conditions;
- self-monitoring;
- developing the target language into a separate reference system;
- learning to think in the target language (Oxford, 2017).

During the same period, in his survey Naiman and his colleagues (1978) also attempted to determine what qualities people known to be good at languages transmission. They specified the following strategies fundamental for successful language learners:

- coming to grips with the language as a system;
- using the language in real communication;
- monitoring the interlanguage;
- coming to terms with the affective demands of language learning;
- coping with ambiguity (Naiman & Fröchlich, 1978).

However, challenges such as limited agreement among these three influential early studies and the lack of theoretical rigor prompted Macaro (add year) to develop a comprehensive definition. He defined characteristics according to:

- location of strategies;
- size, abstractness and relationship to other strategies;
- explicitness of goal orientation;
- transferability.

O'Malley and his colleagues (1985) advanced a taxonomy of their own, recognizing 26 strategies which they separated into three groups:

- metacognitive (being aware of learning);
- cognitive (specific to distinguish learning activities);
- social (relating to cooperation with others) (Cohen & Macaro, 2013).

According to this study, the metacognitive and cognitive categories are equivalent to indirect and direct strategies recognized by Rubin, however, the definition of the social

category was a prominent move in the direction of acknowledging the vital role of strategies in language learning process.

As stated in Oxford's (1990) LLS study, a learning strategy cannot be considered good or bad, it is neutral until the circumstances of its use are modified. A strategy is considered to be advantageous if it meets the particular student's learning style preference to a certain degree, and the student employs the strategy in practical terms and links it with other strategies. Strategies that satisfy these conditions make it faster, much easier, enjoyable and more transfer to new situations, they enable students to become more independent and self-governed (Cohen & Weaves, 2006). Correct this publication

Students are not always acquainted with the power of using learning strategies for learning purposes, but experienced teachers can help their students develop an awareness of learning strategies and enable them to use a wide range of strategies that make learning more effective (Grenfell & Harris, 2017). Language learning strategy use is not always promoted by the teachers.

When students are left to their own devices, they often employ learning tactics that reflect their learning style. However, teachers can become involved in selecting their styles and experimenting with tactics outside of their core style orientation. This approach is carried out through strategic instruction. Learners utilise and regulate learning strategies, and their use is related to student achievement. Research has demonstrated that in light of this link between learning strategy use and favourable learning performance, students who frequently employ learning strategies have a high level of effectiveness as learners (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990).

Oxford (1990) outlined six primary groups of language learning strategies:

- Cognitive strategies which empower students to manipulate the language material in straightforward ways, for example, through reasoning, examination, note-taking to produce knowledge structures, practising in naturalistic settings.
- Metacognitive strategies like the determination of one's own learning style preferences and needs, planning for the task, collecting and organizing materials, desposing the study place, monitoring mistakes, evaluate the success of learning strategy, they are employed for managing the learning process overall. As specified by Purpura (2014), metacognitive strategies substantially affect the cognitive strategy use.
- Memory-related strategies promote the learners' ability to compare one language unit with another, but do not necessarily involve profound understanding. Memory-related strategies enable students to learn and retrieve information in an orderly arranged chain,

while other strategies generate learning retrieval with the assistance of sounds, images, a combination of sound and images, mechanical means, location (on a page or blackboard). However memory-related strategies are not always positively associated with language proficiency. The application of this type of strategies in a test-taking situation had a significantly negative relationship to the learner's accomplishment in grammar and vocabulary. The reason for this is that memory strategies are often used for memorizing vocabulary and located in basic stages of language learning, but that learners need such strategies much less when their vocabulary and knowledge of structures has expanded.

- Strategies like guessing from the context in listening and reading, using synonyms and try to guess the missing word to aid speaking and writing, using gestures or pause words, are called compensatory strategies. Their task is to enable the learner to compensate the missing knowledge. As stated in Cohen's (1998) study, this type of strategies are used for speaking and writing and are intended only for language use, consequently they cannot be considered as language learning strategies. Nevertheless, Oxford (2013) asserts that compensation strategies, even though they might be used for language use, are used in language acquisition as well.

- Affective strategies, such as identifying one's mood, talking about feelings, rewarding for good performance, and using positive self-talk, have a remarkable effect on language proficiency. However, research is available that has shown the negative effect of this type of strategies. The reason may be that as students progress toward proficiency, they may not rely on affective strategies as much as they did previously (Oxford, 1990).

- Social strategies which embrace asking questions to get verification, asking for help in doing a language task, talking with a native-speaking partner and exploring cultural and social norms, help the learner work with others and understand the target language as well as the culture (Weinstein & Mayer, 1986).

While the six categories utilized by Oxford and others in language learning strategy research are frequently referenced in academic literature, questions persist regarding the distinction between memory strategies and cognitive strategies. This is because memory inherently involves mental or cognitive processing, suggesting that memory and cognitive strategies could be classified within the same group of strategies (Littlewood, 1984).

On the contrary, a recommendation was offered by Cohen and Dornyei (2002) regarding reducing this group to four components:

- cognitive
- metacognitive

- affective
- social

There is, however, some dispute over the social and affective tactics. According to some researchers, these strategies are used as metacognitive ones to govern social interactions, reducing the strategy categories to two groups: cognitive, which interact directly with the material to be learned, and metacognitive, which control the aforementioned interaction. As a result, social and successful strategies may be classified as a subsection of metacognitive strategies, whereas memory tactics become a subcategory of cognitive strategies. If this classification is valid, it follows that cognitive or metacognitive methods are more important than others. As reported by O'Malley (1990), learners who do not use metacognitive strategies cannot control their own learning and the possibility of achieving proficiency is very slight (Naiman & Fröchlich, 1978). It is evident that the ability to control our own learning process is an essential feature of a good learner. On the other hand, there are learners who organize themselves to take books out of the library yet never read them, or learners who plan their schedule but never stick to it, who select learning strategies but never apply them during the learning process. These learners are unlikely to achieve their goals, although they are aware of a repertoire of metacognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies and cognitive strategies are interrelated and cannot exist without each other. It is essential that when a learner plans his/her learning it should be followed by actions, meanwhile acting without planning is likely to be ineffective.

Another issue with learning strategy classification is that it is frequently impossible in practice to assign a specific strategy to one group or another; for example, strategies like reading books or listening to music are difficult to determine whether they are metacognitive or cognitive strategies (Macaro, 2001).

Taking everything into account, it is possible to define the core qualities of language learning processes and incorporate them into useful descriptions. Language learning strategies are defined by six important features that distinguish them from other learner traits or learning behaviours, including learning style, skill, and communication strategies.

2.3. The nature of language learning strategies

A key issue in defining Language Learning strategies focuses on their nature. The central point is whether strategies incorporate knowledge, intention, action, or all three. The questions connected to this issue are as follows:

- Can we learn and employ the strategy knowledge?
- Does strategy use essentially imply intentionality and consciousness?
- Are strategies observable actions or cognitions bound to the learner's brain (Muray & Gao, 2011)?

Weinstein and Mayer (1986) stated in the early stages of strategy research that learners use strategies with the intent of obtaining a goal, implying that their use is intentional. These strategy selections indicate that learners choose the proper strategies based on the context and task that they believe will result in the greatest potential outcome. Cohen (2001) asked academics in the field of language learning strategies to explain whether they agreed that strategies are goal-oriented, mental processes or not. The results were mixed. The majority of respondents believed there is a metacognitive component to the selection and monitoring of strategy use (Muray & Gao, 2011).

Although experts in the field of studying language learning strategies agree that they are conscious deliberate behaviours, there are two schools of thought on the level of consciousness and intentionality. According to the first statement, strategy implementation is always a conscious, purposeful, or deliberate act. Given that strategy use entails selecting applicable options following an assessment of a specific learning task or difficulty, a certain amount of consciousness appears to be required. The second line discusses the level of automaticity when employing language acquisition tools. The level of automaticity with which a method can be used is determined by a variety of factors, including context, task, and learner experience.

Some researchers even argue that to expand strategy knowledge, frequent application of LLS in context is needed. Macaro (2001) states that only through repeated practice can a particular action become automatic in a learning situation. Concerning learner autonomy, Oxford (2013) argues that to take more control of your learning you need to be able to consciously choose the appropriate strategies. Furthermore, students need to know which strategies are best for specific circumstances or tasks, they need to possess and develop strategy knowledge. O'Malley and Chamot (1994) in their Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) advocate building up declarative strategy knowledge utilizing explicit strategy training. When used with different degrees of automaticity, strategies require fewer working memory resources (Naiman & Fröchlich, 1978).

The research literature provides us with a great variety of alternatives describing the nature of LLS as actions, techniques, behaviours, or mental activities. One issue to take into consideration is whether strategies are mere mental processes, observable behaviour, or not. Stevick (1994) termed this as the “outside-inside problem” (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990). If strategies are used to achieve a certain goal then meta-cognitions are an essential part of establishing the goal, but if a situation or task demand increases other factors should be taken into account. For example, in group work cognitive strategies will not be adequate. Metacognitive strategies, such as planning and monitoring, as well as affective and social elements demand an approach to solve a given problem or task successfully.

The active nature of strategies was stressed by Rubin (1975). She mentioned that they are what learners do to reach a particular goal in the learning process. Although it needs to be accepted that there is a considerable degree of consensus that strategies are active, not all writers agree on the nature of the activity (Семенишин, 2011).

This activity component distinguishes strategies from style, which is closely similar yet often confused. This misconception began early in the literature when Stern (1975) created a list of ten language acquisition methodologies. According to him, this list covers the characteristics of a good language learner, which he referred to as "the personal learning style," thereby mixing the concepts of learning style and strategy and contributing to the challenges of defining (Griffits, 2013). Wenden (1991) draws a critical distinction between style and strategy. According to Naiman and Fröchlich (1978), a learner's style refers to their unique and consistent interactions with and responses to the learning environment. Styles cannot be changed, however strategies can. Because of this distinction, strategies are usually expressed using verbs (practicing, using), while learning styles are commonly expressed with the help of adjectives, such as:

- aural
- visual
- kinaesthetic

or as nouns, such as:

- converger
- accommodator
- assimilator
- diverger (Naiman & Fröchlich, 1978).

Learning styles and language learning procedures are similar yet distinct from one another. However, it is vital to note that approach selection might be influenced by learning style. For example, a student who favours an auditory style is likely to choose strategic activities that involve the sense of hearing, whereas a convener may choose strategies that synthesise information, and so on.

In conclusion, the notion of language learning strategies has garnered significant attention in literature because of its importance in foreign language learning. When scholars tried to define them, they were focusing on the ways used by the learners to deal with the information they receive. In sum, language learning strategies have a great potential to contribute to the process of learning, and it is beneficial to understand their importance in foreign language acquisition.

2.4. Research methods in the field of language learning strategies

Language Learning strategy research seeks to provide trustworthy insights into strategy implementation. Literature explains that a good language learner employs specific tactics. Furthermore, research attention switched from teachers to individual differences, such as biographical background and their impact on LLS (Wenden & Rubin, 1987). A large number of challenges arose as a result of the research on learning strategies. First and foremost, because strategies are mental activities that cannot be directly observed, LLS research has relied on self-report instruments, allowing researchers to improve their understanding of LLS use and better interpret data. On occasion, learners may have difficulty recalling how they approach specific learning activities or what tactics they use. Furthermore, researchers' perspectives on language learning strategy use may be distorted by unreliable data. Older learners may be at an advantage as they may be more conscious in planning their learning, drawing on past experiences, and transferring strategy knowledge. Younger learners may experience difficulties describing what exactly they were doing to solve the problem (Kinginer, 2013).

These aspects are especially crucial given that previous studies were conducted with various age groups and levels of schooling. However, strategy selection is influenced not only by learner preferences but also by characteristics such as the learning task, setting, and prior education level (Weinstein & Mayer, 1986). A wide range of quantitative and qualitative research methodologies are available to gather information about the use of

LLS. As previously indicated, the majority of researchers used self-report methods, such as written questionnaires, interviews, think-aloud protocols, diaries, learning blogs, or journals. Another frequent research strategy is to observe classes, groups, or individual learners as they complete a task (Lee, 2010).

Doubtless, each method has limitations, but each contributes significantly to the research on learning strategy utilization. While quantitative methods, such as structured self-report questionnaires, primarily describe the use of a wide range of predetermined strategies, qualitative methods, such as interviews, provide detailed information about the learner's individual strategy use, including explanations and descriptions of how and why they chose a specific strategy in a given task (Dörnyei, 2001). Even though both qualitative and quantitative methodologies have flaws, combined data-gathering methodology has gained popularity due to the shortcomings of studies that focused just on one aspect of the strategy implementation. Dörnyei (2005) considered himself to be more quantitative-oriented.

He advocated cooperation with researchers who used qualitative instruments to guarantee high standards and supplement his quantitative background. There are, however, methods which are the most frequent (Dufon, 2006):

- **Observation:** Naiman and Rubin (1975) have used this method since the inception of LLS research. They allow researchers to document the application and function of strategies in action and a familiar learning environment. Observational methods are effective research tools, especially when documented (Cohen & Weaver, 2006). However, relying only on this method without supplementary data is exceedingly challenging and may result in numerous unsolved problems. The bulk of tactics is thought to be primarily mental in nature and thus difficult to monitor. Even highly structured strategies may only derive certain behaviours, such as taking notes or asking for help, and cannot provide a complete picture of LLS use. Additionally, strategies such as reading a book or listening to music that learners use outside of the schools are neglected and can only be observed with the aid of methods such as interviews. To gain more elaborate data, observations can be complemented with verbal reports, such as thinking aloud while working on tasks (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2001).

- **Interview.** This method yielded detailed information about individual characteristics and preferences, as well as cultural variables that have a significant impact on strategy adoption and overall learning. It allowed researchers to emphasize a range of strategies. A well-planned structured interview gives the interviewer complete control of the situation and allows them to focus on data collecting to address specified research objectives.

Unstructured interviews, on the other hand, provide respondents the freedom to describe their plans; they allow them to speak freely. Although interview approaches have advantages in LLS research, they also have some drawbacks. The time necessary to acquire and adequately analyse data is huge. The main criticism regarding any form of self-report method is that the participants do not necessarily concentrate on what strategy they choose and why (Oxford, 2017).

- Verbal reports. A variety of verbal report approaches, such as think-aloud or stimulated recall, have been created to provide a better understanding of what students think when performing a certain task. This form of observation provides a complete picture of how learners employ LLS and why they choose a specific method to tackle an issue that arises during the learning process. Think-aloud strategies demand participants to communicate their decision-making process and thoughts while completing a task. They are employed in strategy research because they provide insight into the processes involved in problem-solving or task completion (Dörnyei& Usioda, 2001).

- Self-reported questionnaires. Questionnaires are completed by the respondents themselves. Questionnaires are the most widely used method in LLS research since they are simple to deploy. Self-report surveys are especially useful for collecting information regarding students' mental activity. Similar to interviews, questionnaires vary in their level of structure. Some questionnaires, such as the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, come with a predefined list of tactics. Participants may be asked to describe the frequency with which they use language learning tools. Learners can benefit from completing the questionnaire as it can increase their awareness of different learning strategies and provide a basis for reflection on their learning. Because questionnaires share many characteristics with written interviews, they also have similar drawbacks, such as the need for learners to think back and maybe forget things. There are issues specific to surveys, such as misunderstandings in item interpretation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2001). These research methodologies are prevalent in LLS research. They have provided thorough insights into strategies for foreign language learning. Each strategy has unique advantages and disadvantages.

2.5 Instruments used in language learning strategy research

Studying and categorising language acquisition strategies is a complex undertaking that requires comprehensive investigation, primarily because only a few of them lend themselves to direct observation, while the great majority can be derived from the conduct of language learners. Numerous principal studies of language learning strategies employed the SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning). It is a self-scoring survey that consists of statements to which learners are asked to respond on a five-point Likert scale alternating from one to five, according to the perceived frequency of use (Grenfell & Harris, 2017). As specified by Green and Oxford (1995), the reliability of the SILL is high; however, the validity – the degree to which the content is appropriate – can be compromised, if people do not answer honestly. There are two main reasons why people give dishonest answers: to please the researcher or to make the respondent appear in a more favourable light. Oxford (1990) admitted that the SILL might not be appropriate for all students because they may experience difficulties regarding understanding what given strategies involve. Some strategies commonly used were not classified among those mentioned in the SILL. These ‘missing’ strategies are as follows:

- looking up in a dictionary;
- referring to the teacher;
- using the library;
- keeping a notebook;
- listening to radio;
- reading newspapers (Weinstein & Rubin, 1987).

The Language Skill Development Survey was developed as an alternate tool for categorising strategies. This study focuses on skill development; hence, strategy items related to more general language learning, such as grammar learning strategies, were not included. This instrument is divided into four portions based on the four skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking, with statements to be answered for each skill. The LSD survey included statements such as:

- I plan in advance what I want to say;
- I plan my writing;
- I try to listen for keywords;
- I often summarize what I hear or read (Oxford, 2017).

Interviews are another prominent strategy utilised by researchers. Learners have unique learning styles; in interviews, they can share their opinions on expanding knowledge. Another advantage is that the best approach to learning and observing something is to

inquire about it; the researcher may then ask back and try to analyse the respondent's body language to determine whether the answer is honest or not (Weinstein & Mayer, 1986).

Overall, language learning strategies were approached from several perspectives, and they are characterized as the specific steps or behaviours that learners use to enhance their learning. According to the prior research in this field, we differentiate six major types of strategies: memory, cognitive, metacognitive, compensation, social, and affective ones. Each of the aforementioned strategies require self-organization and decision making in the learning environment. They enable learners to become more autonomous and independent in their language studies leading to confidence in language use.

PART 3

EFL VOCABULARY ACQUISITION

The third part of the thesis presents the issue of vocabulary acquisition as the cornerstone of language proficiency. This section deals with the definition and interpretation of terminology. Furthermore, it covers the types of vocabulary based on the management process of vocabulary knowledge, provides insight into vocabulary size and interprets the strategies related to vocabulary processing and production.

3.1. Defining Vocabulary

Vocabulary is a vital and inseparable part of foreign and second language learning since words are the building blocks of information and serve as the foundation for effective communication. But what exactly do words and vocabulary mean? Various researchers have given a variety of definitions. For example, Linse (2005) argued that vocabulary is the collection of words that an individual understands (p. 121).

The question of what constitutes a word and how to accurately measure the amount of items a person knows is an open one. When reading the literature on vocabulary knowledge, one thing we can discover is that, we often use the lexeme "word" to refer to some very specialised definitions of the term, like types, tokens, lemmas, and word families. This can be quite perplexing, as according to a research done by Seashore and Eckerson (1940), who designed a vocabulary test to measure the native speakers' vocabulary size, native English speakers know roughly 200,000 words. For those who learn EFL, it may be surprising and somewhat depressing, as the numbers seem quite inconvenient. What could be the rationale for these results? (Schmitt, 2020)

The reason for this is that previous assessments of native speakers' vocabulary, such as those made by Seashore and Eckerson (*ibid.*), relied on dictionary counts in which each variant of a word that was listed in the dictionary was treated as a separate word. Terms like "know," "knows," and "knowing" were all counted independently and handled as distinct words. Subsequent attempts, like those of Goulden et al. (1990), to systematise such counts and employ frequency data for improved accuracy involve treating all common inflections and derived forms of words as a single word family. This approach treats "know," "knows," and "knowing," among many other forms that are comparable, as

a single entity (Schmitt, 2020). Unsurprisingly, this counting technique yields a lower count than Seashore and Eckerson's (ibid.), yet the outcome is frequently still referred to as a word count.

What then is a word, and how are they counted? It can be fairly straightforward in one sense. We can count the amount of distinct words in a sentence if we have one. This kind of definition is helpful when determining, for instance, the word count of a section or the length of a student's essay. Additionally, dictionary publishers and compilers use this kind of definition to justify the size of the corpus, which they employ to locate actual instances of word usage. We may want to understand the number of distinct words used, as well as the size of a written or spoken work and the total number of words. The two categories of counts are distinguished by the phrases types and tokens. While types refer to the number of distinct words, tokens refer to the total amount of words in a text or corpus. Types are far more interesting when assessing learners' vocabulary knowledge, since it is much more important how many different words a student can generate than in finding out how much they can produce without repeating. (Schmitt, 2020)

3.2 Receptive and productive vocabulary

According to the distinction started by Henriksen (1999), we distinguish between two types of vocabulary: receptive and productive. They entail the management process of application of vocabulary knowledge, so vocabulary use either receptive or productive, is viewed as a component of vocabulary knowledge that will be discussed later. The two concepts of reception and production in vocabulary acquisition, according to Melka (1997), are never adequately or clearly defined, which may be the reason why so many other terms are used in their place, such as passive or active vocabulary and understanding vs. speaking (p. 84). The most useful distinction between the two types of vocabulary is based on their relation to four fundamental language skills - reading, listening, speaking, and writing. According to Nation (1990), it can be specifically useful for education reasons. In relation to his view, productive vocabulary stands for the language that students use appropriately in speaking or writing, whereas receptive vocabulary can be recognised in reading or listening (Pavičić, 2008).

There is a great deal of discussion started by Melka (1997), whether the two types of vocabulary would be viewed as separate notions or as a continuum where vocabulary knowledge is determined by the degree of familiarity. It is convenient to conceptualise

receptive and productive as distinct entities, as their respective titles indicate. Word knowledge itself is not a binary process as some uses of it may be productive, while other may just be receptive (Melka, 1997 p. 87). To conceptualise receptive and productive with varying degrees of familiarity or knowledge in between, a bipolar dichotomy is a feasible approach. Four separate stages that can be distinguished along the continuum are suggested by Melka: imitation, knowledge, assimilation by reproduction and production (Melka 1977, p. 89). In this model, imitation stand for the perceptual motor skills that is independent of cognition; knowledge is the understanding of the message; assimilation entails actively reconstructing the message, and production is the actual psychical manifestation of the vocabulary. According to Melka (1977), the fundamental tenets of the continuum of receptive and productive vocabulary are as follows:

1. Receptive vocabulary may come before productive;
2. The difference between receptive and productive vocabulary is not big and is flexible;
3. Receptive and productive vocabularies share an underlying system.

Laufer (1998) focuses on how two sets of secondary school pupils in the 10th and 11th grades build their receptive and productive vocabularies of English. Actually, receptive knowledge and two varieties of producing knowledge—controlled and free—are the four categories of vocabulary knowledge that are being studied. The continuum of receptive and productive vocabulary is amply reflected in this construct. Receptive knowledge is measured by the Vocabulary Levels Test (Nation, 1990), which defines it as understanding a word's basic meaning; controlled productive vocabulary is measured by a cued recall test, like this one: They'll restore the house to its original state (Laufer, 1998, p. 260); free productive knowledge is measured by having students write an essay of 200–300 words using the Lexical Frequency test. It should be mentioned that this study, which focuses on the distinctions between the three categories of receptive/productive knowledge of students in the 10th and 11th grades, is cross-sectional rather than longitudinal. The principal conclusions are as follows: One year of education increases receptive vocabulary significantly, two years of study widens the gap between receptive and controlled productive vocabulary, and three years of study does not affect the free productive vocabulary. She offers two potential reasons for this static free productive vocabulary: (a) the gains are insufficient to explain free productive vocabulary, and (b) it is probable that the learners were not required to produce the words they had been taught in class.

The relationship between receptive and productive vocabulary was examined in Laufer and Paribakht's (1998) study in two distinct learning contexts: EFL (learning English in a classroom setting in a language other than English) and ESL (learning English in a country where English is the primary language). The same three categories of vocabulary knowledge were examined using the same three types of measurements, and the process and tools were quite identical to those used in the first study (Pavičić, 2008).

The primary conclusions were as follows: (1) receptive vocabulary, controlled productive vocabulary, and free productive vocabulary all develop at different rates in both learning contexts, with receptive vocabulary developing the fastest, controlled productive vocabulary developing next, and free productive vocabulary developing the slowest; (2) EFL learners have significantly better knowledge in both controlled productive and free productive vocabulary than ESL learners, while ESL learners have a richer receptive vocabulary; (3) two years of living in an L2 environment leads to significant gains in controlled productive but not free productive vocabulary; (4) learning French, a related language, has a positive effect on controlled productive vocabulary for ESL learners when the receptive one is at the intermediate level but the effect diminishes as receptive increases; however, free productive vocabulary is unaffected by receptive vocabulary levels (Pavičić, 2008).

To sum up, both investigations verify that receptive vocabulary is consistently greater than the productive one and that the difference between the two varies as language learning progresses. There appears to be a significant difference between controlled productive and free productive vocabularies because it appears that the receptive one could enter controlled productive vocabulary rather readily whereas controlled productive vocabulary finds it difficult to enter free productive vocabulary. This suggests a change in language usage from cued recall to full free use. The two authors suggested that future research look into the process of converting regulated productive to free productive vocabulary (Pavičić, 2008).

3.3. Vocabulary knowledge

For many people, including native speakers, the answer to the question of what vocabulary knowledge means is simple: the understanding of the definition of the vocabulary item and the knowledge of its use. However, various theories have been put forward regarding the definition of a word. Some scholars including Henriksen (1999)

refers to this types of knowledge as “lexical competence”, while Wesche/Paribakht (1996) view it as “vocabulary knowledge scale”.

There has been a number of studies related to the requirements of word knowledge. Miller (1999) distinguished word meaning and contextual use as the two primary requirement of vocabulary knowledge. However, reaching an agreement on other components or requirements of word knowledge was extremely challenging. Drawing from the study findings of the 1960 and 1970s, Richards (1976) outlined eight classic assumptions regarding word knowledge while taking into account what modern theory could give for language classroom instruction. Frequency, syntax, semantics, polysemy, revelation and register are all covered under these presumptions (Eder, 2011).

These eighth components functioned as the primary framework for vocabulary description. Meara (1996) in his work criticised this view by arguing that this components are not meant to be reliable theoretical framework for characterising vocabulary knowledge, but rather to guide classroom instruction. He promoted a global approach, arguing that it is impossible to toggle an explanation of the learners’ knowledge rated to Second Language (L2) lexicon. In order to classify a learner’s lexical knowledge, he suggests using a three-dimensional model that consists of three main aspects, namely size, lexical structure, and lexical access. Chapelle (1998) developed this aspect further and designed a four-dimensional framework of vocabulary knowledge. It consists of the following: vocabulary size, knowledge of the properties, lexicon organization, and lexical access. In its essence it sounds a lot like Meara’s explanation, but Meara tried to omit some of the language-related elements that Chapelle included. Another three-part classification system for understanding words at the receptive and productive levels was proposed by Nation in 2001. According to this system there are three main levels: the level of the forms comprising written, spoken and word-parts (affixes) forms (Eder, 2011). The second one is the word meaning, which includes associations, concepts and referents, and the relationship between a word’s form and meaning. The last one is the word’s use, incorporating collocations, grammatical functions and usage restrictions.

A significant amount of research has been conducted to explain vocabulary knowledge and define the main components of vocabulary competence. It is clear, that even though various scholars approached the description of the notion of vocabulary knowledge from different aspects, the main elements that can be distinguished are the vocabulary size, structure and access which further include such important components as the forms, meaning and use of the word, as well as the relationship between these aspects.

However, it should also be noted that when discussing vocabulary knowledge, researchers occasionally confuse these aspects. As Nation (2001) concluded, complete word knowledge is a very difficult, frequently unachievable task that includes item knowledge, system knowledge and relationship knowledge. According to Kelly (1985), the first and most important step in L2 acquisition is to mentally associate the word form with one of its meanings, other meanings, usage, connotation, and so on. This view is supported by the gradual nature of L2 acquisition where knowing the word's meaning and form and making connections between them are the aspect gradually mastered at various times, comprise the first step in successful vocabulary learning and language acquisition (Eder, 2011).

3.4 Vocabulary knowledge: depth and breadth

According to Qian (2002), the breadth of vocabulary knowledge refers to the quantity of words that a language learner knows the meaning of only partially. It also refers to the amount of the learner's L2 mental lexicon. This suggests that understanding the meaning(s) of a lexical item alone, without having to be aware of additional lexical aspects, is a crucial component in defining the breadth of vocabulary knowledge. There are some issues with this definition. What are the standards by which "one has at least some superficial knowledge" (Qian, 2002, p. 515)?

When used in educational contexts, the term "breadth of vocabulary knowledge" is often used to describe the number of words or vocabulary size that language learners must acquire. For a very long time, language learning material writers underestimated the amount of vocabulary necessary for a learner to handle pertinent instances of communication with ease, whether speaking or reading. The concept in question dates back more than 70 years to Ogden's (1937) discovery that 850 words might convey millions of concepts. Given that the average size of a native speaker's vocabulary is approximately 20,000 word families (Nation, 2001), we could regard this as somewhat of a miracle and question if 850 words can truly meet the needs of a student in terms of productivity.

Scholars have taken a different stance. According to research done by Lado (1964), a learner of a foreign language requires a 3,000 word productive vocabulary and a 7,000 word receptive vocabulary. A comparable statistic was determined by Carroll et al. (1971), who determined that 7,000 words will occur at least five times for every million words of

English that are chosen at random. Keller (1978) also mentions in passing that 6,000–10,000 words are needed for daily communication. It is clear from the aforementioned studies that when authors discuss the number of words an L2 learner needs, they are referring to the vocabulary needed for a sufficient understanding of text reading. An L2 student is considered to have broad word knowledge if they can accurately define a word in a particular context (Milton, 2009).

Depth is associated with the qualitative aspect of vocabulary knowledge, whereas breadth is related to its numeric aspect. The standards used to evaluate vocabulary knowledge often consist of a list of several aspects of word knowledge, akin to the research previously mentioned (e.g. Nation, 2001; Chapelle, 1998a; Richards, 1976). As opposed to the simple meaning component of breadth of knowledge, Qian (1999, 2002) defines the depth dimension of vocabulary knowledge by taking into account a variety of word characteristics, including phonemic (pronunciation), graphemic (spelling), morphemic, syntactic, semantic, collocational, and phraseological (register, frequency) properties (Milton, 2009).

According to Henriksen (1999), words' "rich meaning representation" is important (p. 305). Depth encompasses not just the meaning of a word but also its various "intentional" or "sense relations" with other words, especially "syntagmatic relations (collocational restrictions)" and "paradigmatic relations (antonymy, synonymy, hyponymy, gradation)" (p. 305). She claimed that network building, or the creation of intense links between words, is what constitutes the development of depth of knowledge and used the term "semantization process" (p. 308) to describe the continuous, dynamic nature of the semantic development of words. This idea is comparable to Meara's (1996a) lexical organisation (Milton, 2009).

Despite being two very different aspects of vocabulary knowledge, a few recent studies indicate that depth and breadth may actually be closely related. According to Qian (1999, 2002), the four fundamental skills require both vocabulary depth and breadth dimensions. The study by Nurweni and Read (1999), which found that advanced learners' breadth and depth of knowledge are more closely related to one another than those at lower levels, provides additional evidence in favour of this theory. "This parallel development of vocabulary size and depth is particularly pertinent if we adopt a network building perspective on depth, in that vocabulary growth also entails the building of more extensive linkages between items in the mental lexicon" (Reid, 2004), similar to Vermeer's explanation of the close relationship between breadth and depth (Reid, 2006, p. 221).

3.5. Vocabulary size

In every language there is a sufficient number of words to convey the most different meanings. Words describe various topics, ideas, meaning that a particular culture wishes to discuss with the rest of the world. The vocabularies of most languages include hundreds of thousands of words. Even though counting words seems simple, the estimations of vocabulary size vary depending on the definitions of “word” and the chosen counting unit. Ideally, meaning would be counted instead of word forms, but this process would require manual examination because the meaning-detection capabilities of present computer tools are restricted. Owing to a language’s vast vocabulary, the counting is performed by computers, but there is the restriction to count only the word forms without taking into consideration the phenomena such as called polysemy, synonymy, etc. , as in most language one single word form can stand for various different meaning depending on the context.

Thus, the question of what is the best way to choose the unit to be counted arises. The most proper method of selection is based on the degree to which individuals are able to discern the connections among the different word forms. Nonetheless, this will vary according to the specific language user. According to Nation (2016), word families make sense for native speakers of English as they are likely to understand morphology and will identify the different components of a family as linked (Schmitt, 2020).

Additionally, he thinks that word families could be useful for second language learners' receptive skills in reading and listening. He makes the case that if students are familiar with one member of the family, they should be able to identify or deduce unfamiliar derivatives as words with similar meanings when they come across them in context. But other data suggest that this might be unduly optimistic (particularly for novices), since it is frequently harder to recognise derivative word forms than Nation has suggested (McLean, 2018). Regarding productive ability, nearly all academics concur that even at advanced levels students may not consistently be able to use the proper derivative forms when speaking and writing because they do not consistently know all of the different members of the word family (Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002). But according to McLean (2018), learners seem more adept at producing the inflected forms, perhaps because they are founded on rules that often function in a predictable and regular way, like the progressive form of a verb that involves -ing.(Schmitt, 2020)

In summary, it is unlikely that a single counting unit will be optimal in every situation. The decision will be based on the learner's level of skill and if the learning objective is to improve productive or receptive ability. The "individual word" unit is rarely used by researchers because students usually show some understanding of the relationships between the terms. The lemma counting unit is recommended by several scholars (Gardner, 2013; Kremmel, 2016; Schmitt, 2010). It is argued that learners' knowledge is less likely to be overestimated in this more conservative unit (Schmitt, 2020).

This is in line with research showing that learners are more likely to be familiar with and proficient in the inflectional morphemes that comprise a lemma than they are in the derivational morphology required to form a word family. When working with EFL learners, lemmas are being used in an increasing quantity of research (e.g., Brezina & Gablasova, 2015; Gardner & Davies, 2014; Kremmel, 2016). The majority of vocabulary size research to far has been expressed in word families, despite the apparent shift in the field towards lemmas as the most popular counting unit (Nation, 2006).

Because of this, the literature on vocabulary size at the time this book was written was expressed in a variety of units. For this reason, when evaluating research that presents vocabulary size, it is crucial to pay close attention to the counting unit because the reported figures will always differ slightly depending on the counting unit selected (Schmitt, 2020).

3.6 Vocabulary learning strategies

As Nation (2001) stated, “A strategy would need to involve choice, that is, there are several strategies to choose from, be complex, that is, there are several steps to learn, require knowledge and benefit from training, and increase the efficiency of vocabulary learning and vocabulary use” (Nation, 2001 p. 217). According to his view, language learning strategies, which are subsets of general learning strategies, include vocabulary acquisition strategies as well. He highlights how challenging it is to define a learning strategy and makes suggestions about the qualities that a method for acquiring vocabulary ought to possess (Nation, 2022).

Finding opportunities to encounter and use the language outside of the classroom are two crucial strategies for vocabulary learning, as a large portion of the process should

involve incidental learning through language use (Webb & Nation, 2017). The use of these two strategies has significantly expanded thanks to the Internet. With reference to the fact that “the choice, use, and success of vocabulary-learning strategies depend on the task, the learner, and the learning context”, Gu (2003a) offers a comprehensive assessment of studies on a wide range of vocabulary learning strategies (p. 1). The task-dependent strategies of encoding (the processing), word-formation, semantic networks, rote rehearsal, dictionary use, vocabulary note keeping, and vocabulary in use are all covered in Gu's (ibid.) review.

Gu (2003) also discusses person-dependent strategies, with a focus on those influenced by gender, learning style, holistic versus analytical thinking, and learning ability. Two extremely successful learners' case studies by Gu (2003b) effectively highlight the personal and learning-contextual elements of strategy selection and use. Despite the fact that the two students were specifically chosen for their divergent individual learning styles, they had a number of significant learning strategies in common that are reflective of Chinese culture, including a strong emphasis on memorization and intentional learning, persistence, and a very practical approach to learning (Nation, 2022).

A few attempts have been made to create a taxonomy of vocabulary acquisition strategies, usually as a component of a study on how learners employ strategies. Schmitt (1997) created a comprehensive taxonomy based on the social, memory, cognitive, and metacognitive categories proposed by Oxford (1990).

A comprehensive list of beliefs on vocabulary learning, metacognitive regulation, guessing, dictionary, note-taking, memory (rehearsal), memory (encoding), and activation strategies was also developed by Gu and Johnson (1996). Zhang and Li (2011) classified language strategies into six categories using factor analysis, with the three main categories being emotive, metacognitive, and cognitive. Apart from the aforementioned procedures for general vocabulary acquisition, Williams (1985) proposes five possibly trainable ways for deciphering unknown words in written text. These consist of word analysis, lexical familiarisation identification, unchaining noun compounds, synonym search, and inference from context (Nation, 2022).

The ensuing taxonomy endeavours to distinguish three key elements: (1) sources of vocabulary information, (2) learning processes, and (3) aspects of vocabulary knowledge, or what goes into understanding a word. The best way to see the taxonomy is as a matrix where the sources and processes are on one side and the steps required to learn a word are listed on the other. To clarify this, let's examine a few cases. The circumstances in which a

word appears, such as in a reading text, are one of the sources of information about it (Nation, 2022).

In sum, vocabulary acquisition is the complex process through which students learn and assimilate new words, enhancing their ability to communicate effectively. For language development, a rich vocabulary is an essential factor, which supports reading comprehension and communication skill. Based on the academic literature, it can be concluded that we distinguish between two types of vocabulary: receptive and productive, where the first one stands for the words we can recognize and understand when reading or listening, and the second the is the one used in speaking or writing. To make the vocabulary learning process effective, learners make use of various vocabulary strategies which constitute a part of language learning strategies, namely cognitive, metacognitive and social. Overall, by it can be stated that the aforementioned variables likes learning strategies and styles not only influence the vocabulary acquisition process and size, but are essential and connected parts of language acquisition process.

PART 4

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEARNERS' PERCEPTUAL LEARNING STYLE, LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES AND VOCABULARY SIZE

This section describes the methodology, research procedure, participants, materials, data collecting, and analysis. This research aims to explore the correlation between the learners' preferred learning styles, strategy use and their effect on vocabulary size.

4.1. Methodology

4.1.1. Data collection and analysis

The current research aimed to explore the relationship between learners' preferred perceptual learning styles, language learning strategies, and vocabulary size. Specifically, it sought to: (a) compare what academic literature states about the relationship between these concepts, (b) collect information about students' learning style preferences, the frequency of strategy use, compare these concepts, provide insight into the correlation between styles and strategies, and (c) observe the possible effect of these phenomena on the participants' vocabulary size.

Based on the literature analysis, the research questions were the following:

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between perceptual learning styles and language learning strategies?

Research Question 2: Is there any relationship between the students' learning style, language learning strategies, and vocabulary size?

Research Question 3: Are there any differences in learning style preference among the participants?

Research Question 4: Which learning strategies are most frequently used by the participants?

To answer the above research questions, two hypotheses were stated:

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive correlation between learners' perceptual learning style and learning strategies.

Hypothesis 2: There is a relationship between learners' preferred learning styles, learning strategies, and vocabulary size.

The responses to the aforementioned research questions are connected to the research finding in part 4, where a short explanation is given about whether or not the hypotheses that formed the basis of the study were confirmed.

To investigate the relationship between students' perceptual style preferences, strategy use, and vocabulary size, a survey research design was employed within a quantitative research paradigm. The instruments of the study were a questionnaire and an online Vocabulary Size Test. The questionnaire included two parts and was anonymous. It included thorough explanations of the recommended actions.

The first part of the questionnaire was devoted to the learning style preferences of the students as well as their demographic data. The Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (Reid, 1987) was used as the basis of the present part, including 24 statements, which aimed to measure students for three learning styles: visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic/tactile. The respondents were asked to provide their answers on the use of language learning strategies on a five-point scale ranging from "(1) never or almost never true of me" to "(5) always or almost always true of me."

The second part included 30 close-ended questions. The respondents were asked to provide their answers on the use of language learning strategies on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "(1) never or almost never true of me" to "(5) always or almost always true of me." The questionnaire is based on Oxford's SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, 1989) version 7.0, in which strategies are classified into direct and indirect.

An online Vocabulary Size Test was also utilised as the tool to gather data related to the students' proficiency level and vocabulary size. The test was divided into four sections according to the levels (A2-C1) and contained gap-filling tasks as well as synonym matching. Those who have an A2 proficiency level know approximately 1500 words, while learners with a C1 level - about 8000 items of vocabulary. The Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated by means of Excel.

The study was conducted in the final semester of the 2023/2024 academic year. The participants voluntarily gave their consent to participate in the study. Learners were told of the research goal and asked to answer questions anonymously. The demographic data about the participants included their age and gender. Learners completed the questionnaire online in around 20 minutes after receiving its copies. Learners were instructed to carefully read the questions and select the best response that accurately characterised their English learning activities.

4.1.2 Participants

The survey was conducted among students of schools in Transcarpathia. Ninety-three students participated in this research. These pupils were between the ages of 15 and 24. A total of 76 female and 17 male students responded to the questionnaire. During data collection, most participants had studied English for at least 10 years in elementary and high school. 77 (82,7%) of the 93 respondents stated they spoke two or even three languages fluently.

Gender:

93 responses

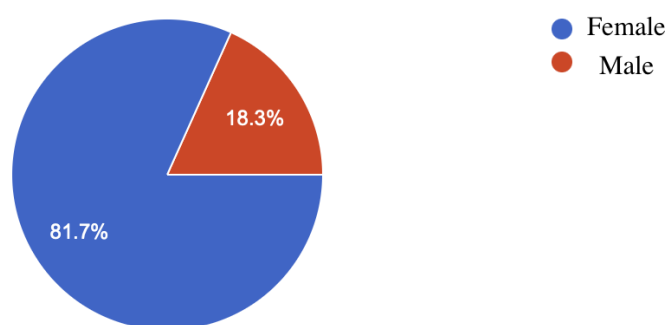


Figure 4.1 Gender of the participants

4.2 Findings

The data were gathered from ninety-three students learning English as a foreign language via the above questionnaire. The first section of the questionnaire covered the participants' preferred learning style and general information.

In terms of participant age, the age group with the highest number of responses was 15 and 18, followed by 19 and 20. The age group of 21 and 24 provided the fewest responses. The first part of the questionnaire focused on the students' learning style preferences. This part consisted of 28 close-ended questions further subdivided into three sections, namely visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic. The respondents had to indicate the statements that were true of them when approaching a learning task. The responders were asked to indicate their preference for these styles on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from “Strongly agree” to “Strongly disagree”. The second part of the questionnaire focused on

strategy use among the learners. The questionnaire consisted of 30 close-ended questions grouped into sections. Therefore, section A stands for memory strategies, section B for cognitive, and section C for compensation strategies. These strategies form a group of direct strategies. Furthermore, section D stands for metacognitive, section E for affective, and section F for social strategies.

The last part of the questionnaire included a Vocabulary Test including four sets of tasks divided according to levels (A2-C1). Participants had to match the synonyms and fill the gaps with the correct words. This test was used to gather information about the participants' current level of English.

4.2.1 Perceptual learning style preference

Learning styles are important for both vocabulary acquisition and learning in general, as was previously shown in research (Reid, 1995, p. 9). They are described as enduring characteristics of an individual and the methods by which students approach specific assignments. Learning styles are distinguished and classified in a number of ways. However, this study employed Reid's classification, which divides styles into three primary groups—visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic. Initially, the preference for a certain learning style was noted; the findings are shown in Figure 4.2.

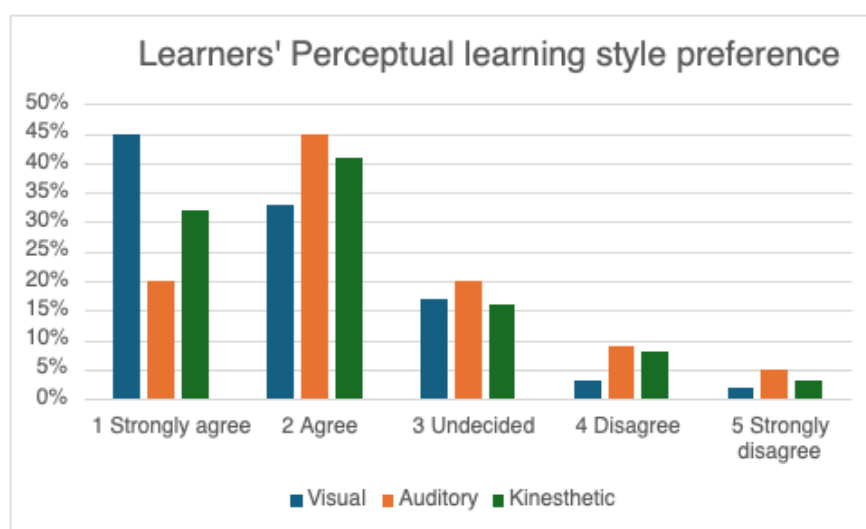


Figure 4.2. Learners' preferred Perceptual Learning Style

We can infer from the data that the preferences of the learners do not significantly differ from one another. The figure shows that most of the students have mixed learning styles. The vast majority of the participants are visual and auditory ones, followed by kinesthetic learners. Visual learners learn the best when they can actually see the material presented, using pictures, diagrams, handouts, following written instructions, etc. On the other hand, auditory learners prefer hearing the information, i.e. taking part in lectures, discussions, debates, use audio and video in learning.

According to the survey, 42 (45%) students responded that they strongly agreed with the statements related to visual learning style, and 42 (45%) students agreed that they belong to the auditory group. On the other hand, 37 (39,7%) out of 93 students chose the “agree” option in the kinaesthetic part of the questionnaire. From this, a conclusion can be drawn that although, for the most part, learners tend to have a certain learning style, the proportions show that respondents have a mixed learning style, i.e. they use two or more senses when solving a task or remembering information, so we can say that we are talking about audiovisual, visual-kinaesthetic learners. This means that, during the learning process, children learn most effectively when they can see and hear information at the same time, or, for example, memorise information presented in pictures through physical movement.

4.2.2 Language learning strategy use

The second construct examined in this study was language learning strategies. They differ from learning styles in that the former refers to a learner's methods of approaching a task, while the latter are the methods they employ to memorise and retain knowledge. The six main categories of learning strategies are memory strategies, which include using rhymes and flashcards to help with language learning; cognitive strategies, such as repeating words aloud or watching English TV shows and movies; compensation strategies, e.g. guessing the meaning of the word from the context, metacognitive strategies, for example paying attention when someone speaks English, correcting one's own mistakes, affective

strategies which involve the observation of one's own feelings while studying, and social ones, which involves seeking interaction with native speakers, etc.

Memory strategies

Memory related strategies are organised in accordance with certain principles during the language learning process, such as grouping words or objects together to form associations.

The student needs to find meaning in these associations. Learners can store language and then recover it when needed with the use of memory methods.

Students can utilise a variety of memory strategies to help them learn a language, such as contextualising new words, applying sounds and visuals, semantic mapping, enacting, and representing sounds in memory.

The results of the given research show that students use memory strategies rather frequently. For example, for statements like "I use rhymes to remember new words", 36 (38%) of the respondents chose the "Somewhat true for me" option. Furthermore, 27 (29%) learners indicated that they always remembered the location of the words in the copybook, book or on the board. Another option presented in the questionnaire that was frequently chosen is the use of new vocabulary in sentences to remember them.

Cognitive strategies

One kind of learning strategy that students utilise to increase their learning effectiveness is cognitive strategy. Repetition, organising new language, summing meaning, making assumptions based on context, and employing imagery to help with memorization are a few of them. To enhance learning, all these strategies purposefully manipulate language.

According to the results obtained from the questionnaire, cognitive strategies are among the most commonly applied ones in language learning. Out of 93 respondents, 32 indicated that they always repeated a newly learned word several times, while 23 learners chose the somewhat true for me option for this statement. Furthermore, learners often use familiar words in various ways and contexts, and they try to watch English movies and videos.

Compensation strategies

Researchers claim that because these strategies are designed for language usage and are limited to speaking and writing, they cannot be classified as strategies.

The results related to compensation strategies were rather ambiguous. Out of 93 participants, 38 (41%) individuals reported that they could somewhat infer the meaning of a word from context. Meanwhile, 31 (33%) respondents chose the option “always true for me.” According to the results, learners frequently make use of compensation strategies such as using gestures while speaking and explaining the words when trying to remember the actual word.

Metacognitive strategies

Learners attempt to comprehend what they are doing and why when they apply metacognitive strategies. By using them, students can better regulate, plan, and assess their learning process, leading to improved learning outcomes. The outcomes demonstrate that this type of strategies was occasionally used by learners, but not as frequently as compensation ones, for example. Out of 93 participants, 30 (32%) always or almost always notice their mistakes and try to avoid them in the future, while 36 (38,7%) learners indicated that this statement was somewhat true for them.

Affective strategies

Emotional regulation, both positive and negative, is the focus of affective learning methodologies. While some scholars maintain that there is no apparent correlation between affective strategies and language acquisition, in reality, learning is enhanced in a supportive atmosphere. According to the obtained results, affective strategies were among the least frequently applied out of six others. Approximately 41 % of the participants never or almost never rewarded themselves when making progress in language learning. Furthermore, 56 (60%) of the learners never talked about their feelings related to language learning.

Social strategies

We differentiate between various social strategies, such as seeking assistance, enquiring about the status of something, conversing with someone who speaks the language fluently, and researching social and cultural norms. The data obtained from the research shows that the most frequently used social strategy is asking people to speak slower if the information

is not clear. 37 (39,7%) participants selected the always true of me option. Nevertheless, learners tend to overlook other social strategies. Of the 93 participants, 30 never practise English with other students, and other strategies like seeking assistance or learning about the culture of English-speaking individuals are not used. Out of the six strategy groups, it can be inferred that the combination of social and affective strategies has the lowest usage rate.

4.2.3 The correlation between Learning Styles and Strategies

Examining potential relationships between learning styles and strategies, and vocabulary size is one of the primary goals of the current study. This section outlines the connection between language learning strategies (LLS) and learning styles (LS). The Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated to examine the data and get information regarding any potential correlation between the two concepts. As seen in Table 4, the strategies were split into two groups. Memory, cognitive and compensation strategies were analysed in the first place.

According to the results, there is a significant correlation between visual learning styles and memory strategies. It makes sense because memory strategies entail forming an internal "picture" of the learning environment and committing new words to memory based on where they are located in a book, copybook, or board. The visual and cognitive domains show yet another positive association. Cognitive strategies include watching English's movies, videos, etc., and taking notes of the things to be learned. Since we concluded that most of the participants share the characteristics of more than one learning style, using audiovisual material can significantly improve the level of success in learning. The correlation between auditory and compensatory strategies is also positive. Auditory learners tackle different tasks using their hearing; compensatory tactics, on the other hand, include making up words, utilising gestures, interpreting the meaning of words based on context, etc. The findings indicate that when it comes to kinesthetic learning styles, cognitive and memory strategies exhibit the highest proportion of association.

	Visual	Auditory	Kinesthetic	Memory	Cognitive	Compensation
Visual	1					
Auditory	-0,00877	1				
Kinesthetic	0,600123	-0,38368	1			
Memory	0,489502	-0,73908	0,244418	1		
Cognitive	0,666441	-0,49598	0,413186	0,765777	1	
Compensation	-0,09293	0,747994	-0,05588	-0,81616	-0,26232	1

Table 4.1 The correlation between learning styles and strategies (a)

Additional analysis was carried out with metacognitive, affective and social strategies. According to the results, a strong relationship can be observed between metacognitive strategies like paying attention to other people when they speak English, looking for opportunities to use the language, and the auditory learning style. A conclusion can be drawn that those who prefer verbal instructions and output make an effort to communicate and use live language whenever available. Furthermore, a rather weak correlation was found between visual learning style and social strategies which involve using the language in social context, learning about the target language culture, etc. Moreover, the aforementioned social strategies had a low correlation with kinesthetic learning style. Kinesthetic learners prefer moving around while learning, touching the objects to remember their site, shape, they enjoy acting out things, etc. Social strategies involve maintaining contact with other people to use the language. All the other strategies had negative correlation with the perceptual learning styles.

	<i>Visual</i>	<i>Auditory</i>	<i>Kinesthetic</i>	<i>Metacognitive</i>	<i>Affective</i>	<i>Social</i>
Visual	1					
Auditory	-0,00876568	1				
Kinesthetic	0,54196511	-0,28119858	1			
Metacognitive	-0,52863607	0,49734790	-0,93038962	1		
Affective	-0,76283520	-0,01933022	-0,15405459	0,33447859	1	
Social	0,35762785	-0,78070920	0,13271543	-0,24948078	-0,14787119	1

Table 4.2 The correlation between learning styles and strategies (b)

4.2.4 The Relationship between the Styles, Strategies and Vocabulary Size

In order to gain insight into the relationship between the students' preferred learning style, strategies, and vocabulary size, an online Vocabulary Test was used to establish the English level and the approximate number of words the participants had. The test was divided into four sections according to the levels (A2-C1) and contained gap-filling tasks and synonym matching. Those with an A2 proficiency level know approximately 1500 words, while learners with a C1 level - about 8000 items of vocabulary. According to the results obtained on the test, 44 (48%) out of 93 participants have A2 English level, 31(33%) are B1 speakers, 14 (15%) learners have B2 level, and only 4 (4%) have C1.

After determining the participants' levels, the next step was to determine any potential connections between the learners' vocabulary size, preferred learning styles, and usage of learning strategies. Based on the data collected, it can be concluded that Pre-Intermediate (A2) students learn predominantly through auditory and kinesthetic means. It indicates that they approach tasks and perceive information primarily through their sense of hearing. In addition, they prefer to move around the learning environment, touch objects, and use realia. When it comes to the strategies they make use of to solve problems and retain information, the most frequently used learning strategies are cognitive strategies (repeating the word several times to remember it, trying to speak like native speakers, watching English/language videos, etc.). The second most frequently utilised strategy type is the compensation strategy, which involves guessing the meaning of the word from the context, creating new words to explain a phenomenon, using gestures, etc.) There is an obvious connection between the two ideas: if a person learns best by hearing, then repeating terminology aloud multiple times will help them memorise it. It also makes sense to infer the meaning of the words and use gestures to convey it to the speakers because novices frequently have gaps in their vocabulary.

When it comes to Intermediate Learners (B1), their most preferred learning styles are the Visual and Auditory ones. The characteristics of auditory learners were discussed above. On the other hand, visual learners prefer to perceive the information by seeing it. It means they can learn most effectively with flashcards, handouts, or pictures. As it was mentioned before, based on the results of the study we concluded that the majority of the participants were mixed learners, so we talked about audiovisual, visual-kinesthetic learners. It seems

like making use of different approaches at the same time and using several senses to acquire data is the characteristic of the more successful learners. According to the test results, there is a significant gap between the two aforementioned levels. Considering the strategy use, memory strategies (creating visual images of the learning data, remembering the position of the words in the book, using flashcards) are one of the most frequently applied strategy type. Additionally, learners at this level employ two different types of strategies: compensatory strategies, which are also frequently used by A2 learners, and cognitive strategies, which involve repeating words multiple times, using the same word in different contexts, and looking up words in one's mother tongue that are similar to the target vocabulary.

Students with a higher level of language knowledge (B2) utilise cognitive strategies, as well as metacognitive ones, which involve noticing one's own mistakes and using this information for future developments, paying attention to the speech of others, and searching for opportunities to use the language. They are comfortable utilising a broad variety of vocabulary, and the best way to practise and improve cognitive and language skills is to look for opportunities to apply what one already knows. When it comes to style preference, learners with this level are mainly visual and kinesthetic learners. The difference between upper-intermediate learners and learners with other levels is the use of affective strategies including monitoring one's feelings and talking about their attitude towards learning.

The study's findings indicate that advanced speakers learn both visually and aurally. When they can see and hear language input, they process it more efficiently. Considering the strategy use, participants with the C1 level use the largest number of strategies. This conclusion is not surprising, as language learning is a complex process that can be approached successfully by the application of various strategies depending on the nature of tasks. Advanced learners, as opposed to less proficient ones, frequently utilize social strategies (learning about the target language culture, asking for help from native speakers, and practicing English with others). This type of strategy is not commonly used because it involves active interactions with those whose first language is English, and it can be stressful for people with lower levels, as they experience anxiety speaking in front of others. Social strategy use is followed by metacognitive, memory, and cognitive ones.

English Level (Vocabulary size)	Preffered Learning Style	Most Frequently used Strategies
A2 (Pre-Intermediate) - approximately 1500 words	Auditory, Kinesthetic	Cognitive, Compensation
B1 (Intermediate) - approximately 2500 words	Visual, Auditory	Memory, Cognitive, Compensation
B2 (Upper-Intermediate) - approximately 400 words	Visual, Kinesthetic	Cognitive, Metacognitive, Affective
C1 (Advanced) - approximately 8000 words	Visual, Auditory	Social, Metacognitive, Memory, Cognitive

Table 4.3 The Relationship Between Students English Level, Learning Style Preference and Learning Strategy Use

4.3 Discussion

Based on the findings of the current study, the following conclusions can be drawn. Specific perceptual learning styles, learning strategies, and vocabulary size are significantly correlated. This study has demonstrated a significant correlation between learners' preferred perceptual styles and the strategies they use to enhance the effectiveness and self-organization of the learning process. Another noteworthy relationship was observed between the learners' vocabulary size, the specific strategies, and preferred ways of studying language.

Regarding the first research question, the responses provided evidence of a strong link between learning strategies and learning styles. The second hypothesis regarding the relationship between the two notions and the learners' vocabulary size was also proven, as learners with particular proficiency levels prefer specific learning strategies and belong to certain groups of learners based on the senses they use in information processing.

As mentioned before, language learning requires significant cognitive effort to have successful outcomes. Learning styles and strategies have been used indiscriminately by some researchers even though they stand for different notions. Learning styles are the

manner and preferred ways of approaching a task, while strategies can be defined as the actions adopted to enhance the learning process.

Vocabulary is one of the most important aspects of language learning since words serve as building blocks of language proficiency. According to the academic literature, there is a correlation between the three aforementioned constructs (Nation, 2001, p. 21).

The three main perceptual learning styles were taken into consideration in the present study: visual, auditory, and kinesthetic. They refer to the dominant senses of information intake. According to the results obtained from the questionnaire, the vast majority of the participants are a mixture of two or more styles, although everyone has a predominant style. Out of 93 respondents, almost half responded that they strongly agreed with the statements related to visual learning style, and with the same number agreeing that they belong to the auditory group. On the other hand, only one third of the participants chose the “agree” option concerning the kinesthetic style. The present results are line with the conclusions drawn by Reid in his 1987 study "The Learning Style Preferences of ESL Students". He found that while most students fit into the visual paradigm, most persons also have mixed perceptual learning styles

Of the language learning strategies, the most frequent were the compensation ones, which include guessing word meaning from the context or using gestures, followed by metacognitive ones (e.g. monitoring one’s own mistakes). Memory strategies were also frequently used, followed by cognitive strategies like repeating the same word several times loud, etc. Affective and social strategies were among the least utilized strategy types. The results obtained from this part are similar to Rubin’s conclusions. She found that the most generally utilized types are cognitive and metacognitive, while the least common types are affective (or talking about one's feelings) and social (or talking about oneself) strategies.

After obtaining the data related to the two main variables of the study, we calculated the correlation coefficient. The findings showed a strong relationship between visual learning preferences and memory strategies. It makes sense since memory procedures involve learning new words by heart by writing them in a book, copybook, or board, and by creating an internal "picture" of the learning environment. Additionally, a positive correlation was documented between the visual and cognitive domains. Taking notes on the material to be learned and seeing English-language films, videos, etc., are examples of cognitive strategies. Using audiovisual materials can greatly increase the degree of learning success since we found that the majority of participants exhibited traits from many

learning styles. The correlation between auditory and compensatory strategies was also positive. Auditory learners tackle different tasks using their hearing; compensatory tactics, on the other hand, include making up words, utilising gestures, interpreting the meaning of words based on context, etc. Furthermore, a strong relationship was observed between metacognitive strategies like paying attention to other people when they speak English, looking for opportunities to use the language and the auditory learning style.

The study primarily focused on any potential connection between learners' vocabulary size and the listed topics. Pre-Intermediate (A2) students learn mostly through auditory and kinesthetic ways, according to the survey results. The most common learning strategies individuals employ to solve problems and retain information are cognitive strategies, which include watching English/language videos, trying to speak like native speakers, and repeating words multiple times to help with memory. The visual and auditory learning modalities are the most popular among Intermediate Learners (B1). Considering the strategy use, memory strategies (creating visual images of the learning data, remembering the position of the words in the book, using flashcards) were one of the most frequently applied strategy type. Students with a higher level of language proficiency (B2) employed both cognitive and metacognitive strategies including identifying one's errors and applying that knowledge to future learning, listening to others speak, and looking for chances to use the language. In terms of learning preferences, students at this level tend to be more visual and kinesthetic. The results of the study showed that advanced students picked up information visually and used their hearing. They absorb knowledge more quickly when they can see and hear it. Participants with a C1 level used the largest number of strategies, encompassing social, metacognitive, memory, and cognitive ones.

The relationship between any given learning style and particular learning strategies may be described by the connection between the basic qualities of these conceptions, therefore the outcome can be interpreted logically. If a person belongs to the auditory group, he or she will make use of strategies that involve repetition of the concept out loud. Furthermore, if a person is a visual learner, applying flashcards, pictures, and videos is essential for successful learning. However, it was surprising that the largest number of respondents indicated the use of compensation strategies, although it can be related to the level of the participants. The majority of the participants (44 out of 93) have an A2 proficiency level, and use strategies like using gestures or guessing from the context can be explained by the gaps in their knowledge in particular areas.

CONCLUSIONS

The influence of various factors that contribute to learners' performance is undeniable, considering the complexity of the learning process and the acquisition of a foreign language. It is essential to understand the process of acquiring vocabulary and the factors that influence its comprehension and retention, as it is a significant aspect of language learning. In this thesis, we focus on the often misunderstood concepts of Perceptual Learning Styles and Strategies, which are two of the most important variables. Despite the significance of research on the importance and the effect of these concepts on language acquisition, little attention has been given to the potential correlation between style preferences, strategy use, and their impact on vocabulary size. The goal of this study was to understand how these factors interact and affect language learning, specifically in the EFL context.

The exploration of learning styles, learning strategies, and vocabulary use indicates a multifaceted link that is critical for effective language acquisition. Understanding individual learning styles, whether visual, auditory or kinaesthetic, provides a framework for developing educational approaches to enhance vocabulary acquisition. Each learning style impacts how students perceive and retain new information and align with the learning strategies they choose to employ to assimilate this knowledge. The correlation of these elements is significant, as students with a rich repertoire of strategies that correspond to their learning styles tend to have a larger vocabularies.

The main goal of this study was to investigate the relationship between students' preferred learning strategies and perceptual learning styles, and how these factors together affect vocabulary size. By analysing the most frequently used tactics and the most common learning styles among learners, the study aimed to provide insights into effective vocabulary learning practices.

Upon revisiting the hypotheses and initial research questions, it can be concluded that most language learners exhibited mixed preferences for perceptual styles. The results from the questionnaire indicated that the majority of participants had a combination of two or more learning styles, with each person having a predominant style. Visual and auditory learners were equally represented, followed by kinaesthetic learners who learn best when physically active. The study also found a strong correlation between specific learning styles and learning strategies. For example, there was a clear link between visual learning preferences and memory strategies, as visual learners tend to remember information by

writing it down and creating mental images. Additionally, the research demonstrated a positive correlation between visual learning and cognitive strategies, such as taking notes and watching educational videos. The use of audiovisual materials was also found to enhance learning success, especially for participants who exhibited traits from multiple learning styles. Lastly, the study documented a positive correlation between auditory learning and compensatory strategies.

Furthermore, the study utilised an online test to assess the vocabulary size and English proficiency of the participants. The findings indicated that the majority of the participants had A2 proficiency at the time of the research. The survey results revealed that A2 level learners have primarily auditory and kinaesthetic perceptual preferences. Cognitive learning strategies, such as watching English-language films, imitating native speakers, and repeating phrases aloud for better memory retention, were found to be the most popular strategies among these learners. For Intermediate Learners (B1), visual and aural learning modalities were most common. In terms of strategy use, memory strategies like creating visual images of learning materials, recalling the position of words in a book, and using flashcards were frequently employed. Participants with a higher level of language proficiency (B2) utilised both cognitive and metacognitive strategies, including error identification and applying that knowledge to future learning, as well as active listening. C1 level participants employed the largest number of strategies, encompassing social, metacognitive, memory, and cognitive strategies.

In summary, the study verified that learning styles and strategies have a strong link that has a substantial impact on vocabulary acquisition. Particularly for A2 learners, compensatory, cognitive, and memory strategies were shown to be the most frequently employed. However, the research showed that most of the students had multimodal learning styles, including kinesthetic, auditory, and visual modalities. This result demonstrated the value of an adaptive approach to language learning.

The study's conclusions have significant implications for language teachers. Teachers can improve vocabulary acquisition and learning by considering the diverse learning styles and preferences of their students when adjusting their lesson plans and methods. This involves providing students with materials and assignments that align with their individual learning styles. The study emphasizes the importance of personalized learning approaches and the strategic use of diverse learning methods to enhance language acquisition.

РЕЗЮМЕ

У роботі розглянуто навчальні стратегії та стилі у контексті іншомовного засвоєння. Мета дослідження полягала у вивченні взаємозв'язку між стратегіями навчання, яким надають перевагу учні, та їхніми перцептивними стилями, а також у тому, як ці фактори впливають на обсяг іншомовного словникового запасу. Дослідження виконане із застосуванням методів анкетування й тестування.

Результати анкетування показали, що перцептивні стилі у більшості учасників мають змінний характер. Зокрема, переважна більшість учнів застосовують різні модальності навчання, включаючи візуальну, слухову й кінетичну. Було встановлено кореляцію між перцептивними стилями навчання та стратегіями. Зокрема, візуальні уподобання були пов'язані зі стратегіями запам'ятовування, такими як вивчення нових слів напам'ять, занотовування, створення внутрішньої «картини» навчального матеріалу. Також було задокументовано позитивну кореляцію між візуальною та когнітивною сферами, наприклад, конспектуванням матеріалу, переглядом англomовних фільмів і відео. Використання аудіовізуальних матеріалів значно підвищувало успішність навчання, оскільки більшість учасників демонстрували риси багатьох стилів навчання. Кореляція між слуховими та компенсаторними стратегіями також була позитивною.

На підставі одержаних кількісних даних про обсяг словникового запасу та рівень володіння англійською мовою з'ясовано, що більшість учасників володіли рівнем A2. Учні рівня Pre-Intermediate (A2) використовували слухові та кінетичні засоби. Найпопулярнішими когнітивними стратегіями були перегляд англomовних фільмів, спроби говорити як носії мови та повторення фраз вголос. Серед студентів рівня Intermediate (B1) найпоширенішими стратегіями засвоєння лексики були візуальний та слуховий. Студенти з рівнем B2 використовували когнітивні та метакогнітивні стратегії, включаючи виявлення власних помилок та слухання мовлення інших. Учасники з рівнем C1 використовували найрізноманітніші стратегії, включаючи соціальні, метакогнітивні, пам'ять та когнітивні стратегії.

Отже, дослідження виявило кореляцію між стилями і стратегіями навчання, що суттєво впливає на засвоєння іншомовної лексики. Зокрема, для студентів рівня A2 найсприятливішими виявилися компенсаторні, когнітивні та стратегії базовані на запам'ятовуванні. Водночас більшість студентів мали мультимодальний стиль навчання, включаючи кінетичну, слухову та візуальну модальності. Результати

дослідження підкреслюють важливість персоналізованого підходу до іншомовного навчання.

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APPENDIX

Based on Reid's Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (1987) and Oxford's SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, 1989) version 7.0

Personal information:

Age:

Gender: Male/Female

How long have you been studying English?

.....

Part I Learning Styles

I. Choose the response (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) that indicates how true of you the statement is. Put an "X" to the answer that best describes what you actually do in order to learn English.

1. Never or almost never true of me
2. Usually not true of me
3. Somewhat true of me
4. Usually true of me
5. Always or almost always true of me

Visual Style	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost always true of me
I learn best when I can see new information in picture form					
I usually write things down so that I can look back at the later					

I often remember the size, shape, and colour of objects					
I can remember the faces of actors, settings, and other visual details of a movie I					
I follow written directions better than oral ones.					
When I think back to something I once did, I can clearly picture the experience					

Auditory style	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost always true of me
I like to listen and discuss work with a partner					
learn best when someone talks or explains something to me.					
I have a good memory for old songs or music					
I often repeat out loud the directions					

someone has given me					
I can easily recognize differences between similar sounds.					
I follow oral directions better than written ones					

Kinesthetic	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost always true of me
I enjoy physical sports or exercise.					
I often use my hands and body movement when I'm explaining something.					
I seem to learn better if I get up and move around while I study.					
I remember objects better when I have touched them or worked with them					
I enjoy building things.					
I find sitting still for very long difficult.					

Part II: Language Learning Strategies

Choose how true the following answers are for you (1, 2, 3, 4, 5). Put an "X" next to the answer that best describes what you do to learn English

- 1.Never or almost never true for me
- 2.Usually not true for me
- 3.Somewhat true for me
- 4.Usually true for me
- 5.Always or almost always true of me

Memory Strategies	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost true of me
I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.					
I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.					
I use rhymes to remember new English words.					
I use flashcards to remember new English words.					
I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board					

Cognitive strategies	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost true of me
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I pronounce or write new English words several times.					
I try to talk like native English speakers.					
I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English					
I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English					
I use the English words I know in different ways					

Compensation Strategies	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost true of me
I say or write new English words several times					
I try to talk like native English speakers					
I use English words I know in different ways					
I watch English TV-shows and movies					

I look for words in my own language that are similar to new English words					
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Metacognitive Strategies	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost true of me
I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English					
I notice my English mistakes and use them to do better					
I pay attention when someone speak English					
I look for people I can talk to in English					
I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English					

Social Strategies	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost true of me
I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake					

I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English					
I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English					
I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English					
I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English					

Affective Strategies	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost true of me
If I don't understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down					
I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk					
I practice English with other students					
I ask for help from English speakers					
I try to learn about the culture of English speakers					

Звіт про перевірку схожості тексту Oxsico

Назва документа:

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Ким подано:

Еніке Надь-Коложварі

Дата перевірки:

2024-05-22 01:32:08

Дата звіту:

2024-05-22 19:09:31

Ким перевірено:

I + U + DB + P + DOI

Кількість сторінок:

76

Кількість слів:

21735

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