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THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN EFL STUDENTS' PREFERRED LEARNING STYLES AND EFL TEACHERS' PREFERRED TEACHING STYLES IN TRANSCARPATHIA

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INTRODUCTION

As the demand for proficiency in at least two languages continues to rise, making it a basic requirement for the modern human being, researchers have felt the need to investigate the essential question of learning: how do we learn?

The term "learning style" and the process itself has been defined and researched by a lot of prominent researchers such as Felder and Henriques (1955), who proposed a learning style scheme and tried to show how can they be utilized in the teaching process; Brown (2000), who studied the human psychology, the learning process, and other factors that influence learning; Peacock (2001), who tried to find an answer to the question whether there is a match or mismatch between the students' learning styles and teachers' teaching styles. First of all, it is essential to clarify what is understood under the term strategy. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) define it as particular ideas or actions people employ to understand, learn, or remember new knowledge. Most of the time, methods are intentional and goal-driven, especially when starting out on a task involving a foreign language. Through repeated use, a learning technique can become familiar and eventually be used automatically (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990).

Though some learning strategies may be linked to observable behaviours, learning strategies are generally not visible. For instance, when watching a newscast, a student might utilize selective attention (unobservable) to concentrate on the key points before deciding to take notes (observable) in order to remember the details. The only way to determine whether students are utilizing learning strategies while working on a language problem is to question them in practically all learning scenarios (Chamot, 2003).

According to Felder-Silvermann's (1988:675) model, students can be classified into several groups which indicate their learning style. This model states that a student's learning style can be determined by their responses to the following four questions:

- (1) What kind of information does the student prioritize perceiving?
- (2) Which type of sensory information is most successfully perceived: visual (pictures, diagrams, flow charts, demonstration) or verbal (written and spoken explanations); sensory (sights, sounds, physical sensations) or intuitive (memories, thoughts, insights);
- (3) How does the student typically advance toward understanding: sequentially in a logical progression of incremental steps or globally in large jumps; and

(4) how does the student prefer to process information: actively (through engagement in physical activity or discussion) or reflectively (through introspection);

The *object* of the thesis is the exploration of learning and teaching styles, specifically how these styles are implemented and interact in educational settings.

The *subject* of the thesis focuses on comparing the preferred learning styles of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students with the preferred teaching styles of EFL teachers in the region of Transcarpathia, aiming to identify and analyse any differences and their implications for optimizing the EFL teaching and learning process, the comparison between EFL students' preferred learning styles and EFL teachers' preferred teaching styles in the region of Transcarpathia.

The thesis *aims* to investigate any differences that may exist between the two groups' preferences in order to gain a better understanding of how to optimize the teaching and learning process for EFL students in that region.

The methodology of the research part of the present work will consist of a quantitative research, based on a questionnaire as well as conducting interviews from teachers and students as well, in order to get more specific information.

The present study deals with seeking answers to the question of how the learning strategies of students and teaching strategies of teachers differ and how can it affect the teaching process in general. Thus, the following research questions (RQ) should be answered as a result of the research:

- RQ 1. Is there a difference between the students' preferred learning styles and teachers' teaching styles in Transcarpathia?
- RQ 2. What are those differences, and how can they be eliminated?
- RQ 3. What measures are necessary in order to successfully use the appropriate teaching strategies?

A teaching strategy is a plan, method, or series of actions used to accomplish a certain educational goal. Additionally, teaching strategies refer to the actions taken by a teacher or a teaching tool, such as a computer, programmed text, or television set, to promote learning. Additionally, a teacher's approach to a particular lesson and its particular objectives is known as their teaching strategy. One must be careful since a given method, which works well with one material, might not work well with another (Anrems, 2021).

Putting the work into a historical perspective would mean that teachers can see how the different teaching methods and strategies evolved through the last few decades. It can provide an in-depth perspective on the problem and can clarify the how-s and why-s. To understand why the present is the way it is, teachers should have a look at the history. Tutors can get some inspiration from the old-time strategies or can see their flaws, so not to make those mistakes again.

Based on Peacock's (2001) research, when a teacher's teaching approach did not match the way students learned best, up to 72% of students reported feeling sad or frustrated, and a significant number, 76%, claimed that their EFL learning suffered. Therefore, the topic is immensely important to study in order to get an idea of how students feel regarding their useful and less useful learning strategies, what they regard as highly helpful or not so helpful in their learning process. On the other side, it would be principal to see how teachers implement strategies in their teaching process to make it the most efficient and make the most of it. By researching this area, it can give a clearer image about what we as teachers need to change or continue to do in favour of a highly productive end-product of this certain operation. Researching this area would probably give educators deeper understanding of EFL learners' requirements. To increase students' interest and comprehension in learning a second language, this could result in more dependable and effective teaching tools and procedures (Suh and Kim, 2012).

PART I

Learning Strategies and Styles

1.1. Variables that Affect the Selection of Learning Strategies

The specific methods or approaches that learners use to attempt to acquire a second language are known as learning strategies. Learners can recognise language learning methods in their process of learning because they are deliberate or possibly deliberate behaviours (Cohen, 1998). According to Hardan (2013) each learning process necessitates the adoption of a method or strategy in order to accomplish the ultimate learning objective. Also, not all strategies can be beneficial to us. It is rather an individual problem of each learner that needs to be sorted out, since we all acquire knowledge in different ways.

In the process of learning any kind of language there are some aspects that need to be taken into account before we start doing anything. The learner may want to know what personality type he or she has, what are his/her learning goals, as well as his/her motivations.

There are different interpretations of the concept "learning strategies" in the table below:

| Researcher | Year | Definition | | | |
|------------|------|--|--|--|--|
| Keefe | 1979 | "hypothetical constructs that help to explain the learning (and | | | |
| | (p4) | teaching) process persistent qualities in the behaviour of | | | |
| | | individual learners regardless of the teaching methods or | | | |
| | | content experienced." | | | |
| Dunn and | 1988 | a collection of traits imposed by biology and development, | | | |
| Griggs | | highlight how different learning styles may make the | | | |
| | | identical instructional strategy or subject matter excellent for | | | |
| | | some students and awful for others. | | | |
| Grasha | 1994 | individual traits that might affect a learner's conduct as well | | | |
| | | as their capacity to absorb knowledge, communicate with | | | |
| | | peers and teachers, and engage in various learning activities. | | | |

| Reid | 1997 | Natural, habitual, and preferred way(s) of absorbing, | | | | | | | | |
|---------|--------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| | | processing, and retaining new information and skills. | | | | | | | | |
| Brown | 2000 | It is the way people take in and process information when they | | | | | | | | |
| | | are learning something. The researcher contends that selecting | | | | | | | | |
| | | one learning scenario or setting over another is known as | | | | | | | | |
| | | learning style preference, which is one component of learning | | | | | | | | |
| | | style | | | | | | | | |
| Dörnyei | 2005 | "a profile of the individual's approach to learning, a blueprint | | | | | | | | |
| | (p121) | of the habitual or preferred way the individual perceives, | | | | | | | | |
| | | interacts with and responds to the learning environment." | | | | | | | | |

Table 1. Learning Strategies

The theory and definition stated by Grasha (1994) on learning strategy will be the orienting principle in this research paper.

Gulbinskienė & Oleskeviciene (2019) conducted a research in 2019, where 77 students filled out the questionnaire. It was aimed at finding out which language learning methods and approaches used by the Lithuanian university participants in the study are the most efficient for them. The results showed, that the teaching and learning process in EFL education can be significantly impacted by a variety of learning styles. First of all, teachers would be able to recognise students' learning preferences and styles in the classroom if they were aware of the variety of learning styles that students possess. This opinion is shared by Setia (2017) as well, who added that students choose different learning approaches when there are greater differences in age in the groups.

Reid (1987, and 1995, as cited in Matea, 2013) outlined five different types of learning hypotheses:

- 1. Every student possesses unique learning styles, as well as strengths and weaknesses in their learning.
- 2. Learning failure, frustration, and demotivation result from a mismatch between the teaching and learning styles.
- 3. Unchecked learning styles endure in spite of instructional strategies and resources.

- 4. Because learning styles are partially habits rather than biological traits, they are adaptable.
- 5. Students who stretch their own styles and are aware of a larger variety of approaches will learn more effectively.

By improving learner autonomy, independence, and self-direction, the use of appropriate learning practices empowers students to take charge of their own education. Such components are crucial because, students must continue to learn even outside of the traditional classroom. Furthermore, research in cognitive psychology demonstrates that learning techniques support students in assimilating new knowledge into their preexisting schemata, or mental structures, resulting in the development of ever-more sophisticated and rich schemata. Language learners form their own conceptions or models of the target language and its surrounding culture as they progress towards language mastery. Learning techniques are easily taught, in contrast to the majority of other learner traits like capability, attitude, drives, personality, and overall cognitive style (Oxford & Nykos, 2011).

The two primary perspectives on language-learning strategies comprised skills and processes. According to Cohen (1990), skill areas include speaking, writing, listening, reading, vocabulary, and translation. In contrast, processes are typically classified into four domains: affective, social, and metacognitive strategies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Cognitive methods pertain to the recognition, categorization, retention, and retention of linguistic content. Learners employ deliberate activities known as metacognitive strategies to control the language acquisition process.

Through preparation, verification, and assessment of their learning, these tactics provide students control over their cognitive processes. Learners can use affective techniques, which include emotions, motivation, and attitudes, to lower anxiety, boost self-esteem, and other good learning outcomes. Interactions between language learners and native speakers can be facilitated by the application of social strategies (Nguyen et al., 2010).

1.2. Impact of Intelligence on Learning Style Preferences

According to Gardner intelligence is "the ability to respond successfully to new situations and the capacity to learn from one's past experience" (1983, p. 21). He states that the prior theories of intelligence disregarded people's other talents in favour of an excessive emphasis on language and reasoning. As stated by McKenzie (2009), this intelligence enables us to learn through patterns, rhythms, and music which include the identification of patterns through all the senses in addition to auditory learning. Individuals possessing such a gift typically think in terms of sounds, rhythms, melodies, and rhymes, and they have a sensitivity to tone, timbre, rhythm, and pitch.

Teachers should have a major impact on their pupils' thoughts, achievement, and behaviours. Thus, teachers must assist pupils in using their mix of intelligences to learn whatever it is they wish to study, as well as what the teachers and society believe they must learn. Students who are aware of their most productive mode of learning have higher success rates in education and the workforce compared to those who try to learn and work in a different mode. Investigating students' prior learning, learning styles, and MI strengths can help them develop self-awareness (Nolen, 2003).

Several authors, such as Goleman, Gardner, Mayer, and Salovey, have introduced and analysed the concept of emotional intelligence. According to Mayer and Salovey (1997), intelligence and emotion are two distinct concepts. The cognitive sphere (intelligence) refers to human memory, reasoning, judgement, and abstract cognition, while the emotional sphere encompasses emotions, moods, assessments, and feeling states such as exhaustion and energy. As defined by Mayer and Salovey (1997), intelligence and emotion represent two separate notions. The cognitive sphere contains human memory, reasoning, judgement, and abstract cognition, whereas the emotional world includes feelings moods, appraisals, and feeling states such as weariness and energy. They created a graphic of emotional intelligence skills that appropriately describe psychological processes. According to them, the lowest branch in the diagram represents the ability to perceive. This section involves recognising emotions in oneself and others, accurately expressing them, and distinguishing between correct and incorrect expressions.

Higher branches of thinking entail emotional facilitation, which includes directing attention, formulating judgements, and allowing emotional emotions to influence problem-solving approaches.

The even higher branch in the figure indicates emotional comprehension and analysis. This includes labelling emotions, interpreting their significance, and comprehending complicated feelings and transitions between them.

The highest level of emotional intelligence requires self-reflection to enhance both emotional and intellectual development. The ability to control emotions involves being open to different feelings, monitoring them, and promoting positive and negative emotions (Tevdovska, 2017).

1.3. Impact of Personality on Learning Style Preferences

Personality concept is an assumption which means that person is unique and has a fixed set of features, dispositions, or temperaments. Numerous approaches have been used to study personality. It has been interpreted as related to various types of information processing or learning styles. Some argue that personality is a complex set of features that cannot be accurately profiled. Traits or dispositions include anxiety, locus of control, achievement orientation, intrinsic motivation, self-esteem, social competence, and so on.

As claimed by Sharp (2008), an intriguing parallel can be drawn here with studies of investment theory. This idea suggests that individuals with personality traits such as curiosity, imagination, creativity, intuition, and achievement motivation are more likely to invest in developing skills and knowledge. Personality traits such as openness and intuition can motivate individuals to enhance their reasoning, problem-solving abilities, and comprehension of complicated ideas, all of which are indicative of intelligence. This shows that certain personality traits are linked to learning success and IQ.

Sharp (2008) conducted a study with 100 undergraduates at a Hong Kong university to examine the link between personality traits (MBTI) and strategy use (SILL) and language proficiency (assessed through a standardised English language test). He cited scientific findings to demonstrate the link between personality, second language learning, and strategy utilisation. However, the data collected in Hong Kong revealed the challenge of establishing

direct, statistical evidence with a small sample size. More research is needed to clarify the terminology and definitions of personality and learning strategies, while also acknowledging the overlap in skills, abilities, and predispositions. Research on language learning provides significant challenges in identifying the various factors that impact performance. Other research as well have not found an association between personality and language acquisition processes (Carrell & Anderson, 1994; Carrell et al., 1996). On the contrary Kang (2012) found, that neuroticism negatively correlated with metacognitive methods, while openness, conscientiousness, and extraversion correlated positively with the majority of tactics. Openness and conscientiousness were revealed to be the strongest predictors of applying language learning techniques.

Nevertheless, there are some researchers, whose studies showed correlation between personality traits and language learning strategies, such as Ehrman and Oxford (1990). They investigated the links between personality and language learning strategies by administering the MBTI (Myers–Briggs Type Indicator), SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning), and conducting interviews with twenty Turkish learners. The findings revealed that extravert learners favoured social tactics, but introvert learners chose metacognitive strategies, which involved avoiding social contact. Sensing learners favoured memory strategies, but intuitive learners favoured compensatory strategies. The study's findings also revealed that thinker learners favoured cognitive techniques, while feeler learners chose metacognitive strategies and judger learners preferred metacognitive and social ones.

A study conducted by Asmali (2014) examining the potential correlation between personality traits and language acquisition strategies involving 149 university students found that agreeableness was the most common personality attribute among participants, followed by extraversion, intellect/imagination, conscientiousness, and neuroticism/emotional stability. According to the results of this survey, the participants chose agreeableness as their most desired personality domain.

1.4. Impact of Age on Learning Style Preferences

According to Ellis (1994), age has a big influence on how language acquisition strategies are developed and used. Learners' cognitive capacity improves with age, and as they become older, so does their cognitive approach.

The creation and application of learning techniques are directly influenced by cognitive style and ability. The development and use of learning strategies for Chinese middle school students can be categorised into three distinct time periods: the pre-school, primary, and middle school years. Children cannot consciously apply learning strategies throughout the pre-school years since they have not yet established their own. Even while learning strategies are still relatively simple during this time and children are still not proficient in using methods to improve learning outcomes, learners have developed and mastered learning strategies when they are still in primary school, especially in the senior grades. Primary school students can also create and employ efficient learning strategies at this time if teachers can provide the right direction and instruction.

In middle and high schools, students' cognitive capacities rapidly grow as their cognitive styles become more varied and expansive. Within domains of information that they are familiar with, students are able to not only create their own learning strategies on an unconscious level but also actively cultivate them, adapting them to the demands and goals of learning assignments. Primary school students can also create and employ efficient learning strategies at this time if teachers can provide the right direction and instruction.

Nguyen and Godwyll (2010) studied the topic as well by involving 75 international students from three sub-groups using questionnaires. The individuals varied between eighteen to fifty. The linguistic group consisted of largely graduate students with a substantial background in English learning and teaching. The surveyed consisted of 3 age groups, 1- below 25, 2- 25-35, 3-above 35. There were substantial differences in the use of cognitive, metacognitive, and affective strategies among age groups. The A3 group, which included participants over 35 years old, used compensation strategies more frequently than other strategies. This cohort utilised slightly more memory methods than the other two categories, but had significantly lower mean scores on affective strategies compared to those under 35. The group of 25-35 year olds primarily used social strategies.

1.5. Impact of Gender on Learning Style Preferences

Gender had been overlooked by L2 and foreign language acquisition researchers until Oxford et al. (1988) expressed concerns about the paucity of gender studies in learning method research. Research supports Oxford et al.'s (1988) finding that female foreign language learners and teachers employed more learning techniques than males when using the SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning). (Park and French, 2011)

Males and females use learning strategies at similar overall frequencies, with slight variations in specific categories. Both genders employ memory, cognitive, and affective strategies moderately, but utilize social and metacognitive strategies more frequently. Males prefer metacognitive strategies, indicating a tendency toward organizing, planning, and self-monitoring. Females might prefer strategies that build social relationships to support learning. There is no statistically significant difference in overall use of learning strategies between genders, but mean comparisons suggest trends consistent with prior research, indicating females generally use more varied strategies (Nguyen and Godwyll, 2010).

According to Ehrman and Oxford (1989), women tend to use more learning processes and prefer intuition and emotion over sensing and thinking.

The study by Park and French (2011) focused on 948 university students (368 males and 580 females) in Korea enrolled in an English conversation course. The majority were sophomores studying across various disciplines, such as humanities, social sciences, natural sciences, engineering, medical sciences, and medicine. The research found significant gender differences in the use of memory strategies, with males using these strategies more frequently than females. Specifically, males showed higher usage in memory strategies such as reviewing lessons and remembering English words by their location. For other strategy categories (cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social), no significant gender differences were noted in mean scores. Also, the study identified several items that exhibited DIF (Differential Item Functioning), where items favoured males over females, particularly in memory and cognitive strategies. For example, males had an advantage in items related to using new English words in sentences and remembering the location of English words or phrases. This suggests that when males and females had equivalent levels of overall strategy use, males tended to rate their strategy use higher than females on these specific items.

Tercanlinglu (2004) found that males in Kuwait used more learning strategies compared to females, aligning with the current study's findings on memory strategies.

Previous studies reviewed by Oxford et al. (1988) generally showed that males and females utilized learning strategies differently, which supports the differential item functioning observed.

Studies in Puerto Rico, Japan, Israel, and Turkey (Green & Oxford, 1995; Mochizuki, 1999; Khalil, 2005; Kavasoğlu, 2009) reported that females used more strategies than males, particularly in memory, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies. This contrasts with the current study where no crucial gender differences were found in these areas except for memory strategies.

1.6. Impact of Motivation on Learning Style Preferences

The importance of motivation and attitudes in learning a second or foreign language has been extensively studied. The first hypothesis for this study was put forth by Lambert (1955), who hypothesised that emotional attachment to the target language community or a genuine interest in the language itself were the two main reasons why people became interested in learning a second language. Lambert (1955) reported on two American university students who had attained exceptionally high levels of French/English bilingual proficiency in his research on bilingual redevelopment. While the other had spent much of her career teaching French, the first had grown to have a strong sense of identity with France (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993).

Lambert suggested that their unusually high proficiency in French, which is their second language, was probably caused by their somewhat varied experiences with the language. The dichotomy between integrative and instrumental orientations, which was a key component of some of the earlier studies in this field, is partially seen here.

Gardner and Lambert (1959) presented the first study examining the relationship between attitudes and motivation to second language achievement, despite previous hypotheses to the contrary. For instance, Arsenian (1945) suggested that attitudes might influence the acquisition of a second language, and Marckwardt (1948) made the case in the first Language Learning article that there are five main reasons to acquire a second language (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993).

Dörnyei (2009) enumerates several points which might be crucial in motivating oneselves in language learning:

- Individuals' ability to build ideal self-varies. To be effective, one's sense of self has to be complex and vivid, with the more elaborate the better.
- Possible selves are valuable when the creator believes they can achieve them, rather than being mere fantasies or aspirations.
- Aligning a learner's social and personal identities can improve the effectiveness of possible selves as a motivator.
- To activate the possibility self in working memory, learners can use reminders, classroom exercises, and self-relevant acts. Alternatively, they can be trained to actively summon possible selves.
- To get from ability to take action, learners need procedural techniques that include imagery as well as relevant plans and procedures.
- To function efficiently, ideal and ought-to selves must balance out the impact of the fearful self. To achieve maximum motivational efficacy, balance the ideal self with a frightened probable self, focusing on potential outcomes if the initial image fails.

1.7. Impact of Anxiety on Learning Style Preferences

As stated by MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) language anxiety refers to tension and stress in L2 and FL circumstances such as speaking, listening, and learning. Research suggests (Male, 2018 and Howitz, 2001) that one-third of foreign language learners experience language anxiety. Plenty of learners complain about feeling worried when studying a foreign language. Affective factors play a significant role in foreign language learning. It stops learners from achieving their objectives and foreign language learners from excelling in the target language (Male, 2018). Other researchers also defined language anxiety, as it covers various types of anxiety and unpleasant, fear-related emotions connected with learning or utilising a language that is not an individual's native tongue (Macintyre and Gregersen, 2012). Anxiety can negatively affect learners' physiological and behavioural symptoms. For example, it can modify the learners' behaviour, such as unwillingness to study and difficulty concentrating (Cooke et al., 2006).

Jen (2003) discovered that anxiety persisted among secondary school pupils regardless of the language instruction approach. Personality types, fear of unfavourable evaluation, limited English competence, not enough homework, pressure from the English teacher and evaluations, and parental pressure were discovered to be the frequent instigators of foreign language anxiety among extremely anxious language learners.

Biria, Reza, et. al findings (2013) show, that learners who utilise Language Learning Strategies more frequently report lower levels of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale. Additionally, there is a significant negative correlation between cognitive, compensatory, and social LLS and FLCA. However, there is no substantial link between emotional, memory, or metacognitive LLS and FLCA.

1.8. Impact of Creativity on Learning Style Preferences

According to R.J. Sternberg (1985) creativity is characterized as the ability to produce new and original ideas or products that are appropriate within specific contexts. The creative process includes traits such as novelty, relevance, and appropriateness to the task at hand. Creativity is viewed as a multidimensional construct, crucial for advancing beyond basic language skills to more complex and nuanced language use. The research underscores creativity as involving imagination, risk-taking, flexibility, and the ability to create new categorizations of knowledge.

Nosratinia and Mojri (2014) found a significant positive correlation between the creativity levels of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners and their use of language learning strategies (LLS). Creativity positively correlated with all subcategories of learning strategies, including memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. Notably, social strategies showed the highest correlation with creativity (r = 0.89, p < .05), indicating that social interactions and collaboration may play a critical role in both language learning and creative processes.

The study involved 148 EFL learners aged between 19 and 32, enrolled in English Translation and English Literature programs at the Islamic Azad University in Central Tehran, Iran. The gender distribution among the participants was nearly even, with 48% males and 52% females.

The research demonstrated that creativity notably influences the use of language learning strategies among learners. Using Pearson correlation and multiple regression analyses, the study provided empirical evidence of this relationship. It was shown that creativity could predict up to 93.2% of the variance in language learning strategy use when considering metacognitive strategies alongside other types. Social strategies were found to be the most predictive of creativity, suggesting that interactions and social engagements are potent factors in enhancing both creativity and language learning strategy use (Nosratinia and Mojri, 2014).

Rodney (2019) in his research concentrates on language and translanguaging, mobility and space, transcultural identities, and the constraints imposed by institutions and individuals on creativity. He claims that each theme provides a unique perspective on how creativity can be integrated into language learning and teaching, moving beyond conventional methods to embrace a broader, more inclusive and interactive approach. Results from the study suggest that engaging with language in creative ways not only enhances the learning experience but also helps students develop a critical understanding of their own identities and the social contexts in which they operate. This approach challenges and expands the traditional boundaries of language learning, advocating for a model that values the creative and critical capacities of learners to navigate and transform their multilingual realities.

1.9. Classification of Learning Styles

From the perspective of teaching languages, Howard Gardner's contribution to psychology was really massive. Gardner (1983) explains how people learn in different ways and that we all have a wide range of skills and talents as well. He delves into the fact, that an individual's capacity to solve problems or perform tasks valued in one or more cultures is a measure of their intellect. This classification can be of great help for teachers, dealing with a wide range of pupils. It can give a clear image on how does a specific kind of intelligence think and what approaches might be the best when teaching them a certain topic. The researcher claims that there are eight types of intelligences (as cited in Morgan, 2021):

1. Linguistic: strong language abilities enable speakers to understand and communicate with others in their own tongue as well as occasionally in other languages. Writers and orators are two examples of specialists in this field with IQs above average.

Given that people would find it difficult to live effectively in the world without linguistic talents in semantics, phonology, syntax, and pragmatics, linguistic intelligence appears to be the one that humans worldwide share the most.

- 2. Logical-mathematical: because they can work with numbers in the same way as mathematicians, scientists are good examples of persons with logical-mathematical intelligence. They typically possess above-average logical and mathematical abilities due in part to their familiarity with causal systems.
- 3. Spatial: the ability to represent the physical world is a component of spatial intelligence. Those who possess spatial intelligence are more likely to become architects, sculptors, and painters. Certain sciences, such as anatomy and topology, require spatial intelligence more frequently than others.
- 4. Bodily-kinaesthetic: this intelligence is related to the capacity to employ all or a portion of the body to produce an object, find a solution, or demonstrate bodily movement abilities at a function. Professionals with high levels of this intelligence include dancers and athletes.
- 5. Musical: those who possess higher levels of musical intelligence are better at hearing, identifying, and recalling patterns. They are unable to stop thinking in musical terms. Gardner suggested in Frames of Mind that musical intelligence develops before other intelligences.
- 6. Interpersonal: the capacity for understanding people is a component of interpersonal intelligence. People with high levels of this intelligence are able to discern the intents, desires, and moods of others. This intelligence is particularly crucial for those whose work requires to interact with people such as educators, medical professionals, and salespeople on a regular basis.
- 7. Intrapersonal: strength in intrapersonal intelligence is characterised by a greater sense of self-awareness. People with developed intrapersonal intelligence are able to select events that will be most beneficial to them and predict how they will react to them. It also aids in raising people's awareness of potential obstacles.
- 8. Naturalist: to the original seven intelligences, the naturalist intelligence was added. It has to do with a person's capacity to differentiate one living thing from another.

Those with high levels of this intelligence are adept at categorising not just rocks and grass but also minerals, plants, and animals.

For a variety of reasons, educators may choose to overlook some intelligences and concentrate mostly on using language and reasoning to impart knowledge. Initially, they might not be aware that every pupil has a unique mental composition. Second, they can feel unable to meet the needs of every student because their group of pupils differs widely in the intelligences they excel in. Oxford (1989) argues as well, that most of the teachers are not generally aware of their students' learning strategies. It is also mentioned that the students are not aware of their strategies either; thus, they cannot take advantage of the full range of available strategies.

Third, they might be persuaded that even though pupils differ from one another, they still need to learn how to get along in order to form communities. In addition to giving unfair training, teachers who focus more on the intelligences that students excel in than the intelligences that they struggle with are also making some students feel foolish. (Morgan, 2021)

Based on Reid's (1987) findings here are some descriptions of various learning styles:

- Visual learners benefit greatly from written explanations, books, and board displays
 of words.
- Kinaesthetic learners learn best by experience and by actively participating in classroom activities, whereas auditory learners learn best by hearing words uttered in oral directions.
- Tactile learners favour "hands-on" experiences with materials, including manipulating and creating models.
- Individual learners learn best while working or studying alone, but group learners learn best when working in pairs or groups (Reid 1998).

According to Felder (1988:675) answering five questions can show a student's learning style:

1) Does the student prefer to perceive sensory (external) information (sights, noises, physical sensations) or intuitive (internal) information (possibilities, insights, hunches)?

- 2) Which sensory channel is most successful in perceiving external information: visual (pictures, diagrams, graphs, demonstrations) or aural (words, sounds)? (Other sensory channels—touch, taste, and smell—are somewhat relevant in most educational settings and will not be discussed here.)
- 3) Which method of information organisation does the student prefer: inductive (facts and observations are supplied, underlying principles are inferred) or deductive (principles are given, consequences and applications are deduced)?
- 4) How does the student prefer to process information: actively (through physical exercise or debate) or reflectively (by introspection)?
- 5) How does the student develop towards understanding: sequentially—in continuous increments, or globally—in enormous jumps, holistically?

Furthermore, Felder and Silverman (1998) combined findings from a variety of studies to create a learning style model with features that should be especially relevant to education. This model's dichotomous learning styles (sensing/intuitive, visual/verbal, inductive/deductive, active/reflective, and sequential/global) are continuous rather than binary. A student's preference on a given scale (for example, inductive or deductive presentation) may be strong, moderate, or nearly non-existent, and it may alter over time and between subjects or learning environments.

1. Sensing and intuitive perception. People are continuously blasted with information, both via their senses and their subconscious thoughts. The amount of that knowledge is far higher than individuals can actively pay attention to; as a result, they accept just a small fraction of it to their "working memory" and the rest is practically forgotten. Sensing learners prioritise information received through their senses, while intuitive learners prioritise knowledge derived from memory, reflection, and imagination. (These categories are derived from Carl Jung's idea of psychological types. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator can be used to determine whether an individual prefers sensation or intuition. Sensors are practical, whilst intuitors are imaginative. Sensors value facts and observations, but intuitors favour notions and interpretations. A student who claims that their classes have little to do with the actual world is almost probably a sensor. Sensors prefer to handle problems using solidified

techniques, are okay with detail work, and dislike unexpected twists or difficulties; intuitors enjoy flexibility in their tasks, do not mind complexities and become tired with excessive detail and repetition. Sensors are cautious but may be slow, whereas intuitors are rapid but potentially reckless. Sensory learners learn best when given facts and methods, yet most science courses (especially physics and chemistry) emphasise abstract notions, ideas, and formulas, leaving sensors at a major disadvantage. Also, sensors tend to be less at ease with symbols than intuitors; because words and mathematical variables – the substance of exams – are symbolic, sensors need to convert them into tangible mental representations in order to comprehend them. Sensors who are familiar with the material often run out of time during testing, as the process can be extensive. As a result, sensors receive poorer ratings in lecture courses than intuitors; in effect, they are preferentially weeded out, despite being as likely to succeed in scientific professions.

- 2. Visual and spoken. Visual learners understand more through visuals (pictures, diagrams, graphs, schematics, demonstrations) as compared to verbal material (written and spoken words, mathematical formulas), and vice versa. Visual learners may struggle to retain information if presented only verbally (e.g., in a lecture). The majority of individuals (at least in Western cultures), and presumably most students in science classes, are visual learners, whereas the knowledge presented in nearly every lecture course is almost completely verbal---written language on the chalkboard, oral instructions in lectures, with very little occasional diagram, chart, or demonstration to break the pattern. Instructors should not be astonished when many of their students are unable to recall material that was provided to them not long ago; ideas might have been conveyed but not heard.
- 3. *Inductive and deductive*. Inductive learners would rather learn new information by observing particular scenarios (observations, experimental results, numerical examples) and then inferring basic concepts and theories; deductive learners like to start with basic concepts followed by deducing consequences and possibilities. Deduction is more brief and logical than induction, therefore students who prefer organised presentation will opt for a deductive approach, whilst those who want less structure tend to favour induction. Additionally, studies demonstrate that,

of the two approaches to instruction, induction enhances better learning and greater retention of material, as well as increasing the trust of learners in their problem-solving ability. Regardless of the research, the majority of college scientific instruction is deductive---most likely since deductive explanations are easier to plan and manage, allowing for faster subject coverage. A student's evaluation of an introductory physics course stated that pupils are given information to apply to issues. Allow them to be exposed to conceptual difficulties, try to solve those issues on their own, and then assist them realise their mistakes along the way. This student suggests using an inductive teaching technique.

- 4. Active and reflective. An active student learns by doing something engaging, such as exploring problems or bouncing ideas off colleagues; reflective learners process much more introspectively, considering things through before executing them. While active learners function effectively in teams, reflectives prefer to work alone or in pairs. Sadly, conventional lectures provide not much for any group: active learners seldom get the opportunity to accomplish anything, whereas reflective learners lack time to reflect. Both groups are either kept occupied with incessant jargon or deceived into distraction due to boredom. The study is fairly explicit on the topic of active and reflective versus passive learning. As of plenty of studies compared instructor-centred classes (lecture/demonstration) to learner-centred classes (problem-solving/discussion), lecturing were found to be somewhat more effective when students were assessed on short term memory of facts, yet active classroom situations were superior once the criteria included comprehension, longterm recollection, general problem-solving skills, scholarly mindset, and subsequent interest in the subject. Teaching strategies that encourage reflection, such as allowing students to draft summaries and ask questions, have been shown to have significant benefits.
- 5. Sequential and global. A sequential student learns in separate linked fragments, while global learners acquire information in seemingly unrelated fragments and attain understanding in great holistic leaps. Sequential learners are capable of solving problems having limited knowledge of the material, resulting in orderly and easy-to-follow solutions. However, they may lack an extensive knowledge of a subject's

context and connection with other disciplines. Global learners may struggle with assignments and assessments at first, but if they get the big picture, they can recognise links across subjects that sequential students may miss. (Modic, 2013)

Part I deals with the different classification of learning styles and the variables that may have an effect on student's learning styles such as age, intelligence, gender, motivation, anxiety, creativity and personality. Given the extensive research conducted on learning style preferences in EFL classrooms, numerous scholars have sought to identify the most commonly employed styles among students. This research aims to inform educators on how to best approach EFL lessons.

Furthermore, this chapter seeks to identify the influence of these factors on the EFL learning process globally.

Results varied from one researcher to another, although it has become clear – each student, or to say the least, classroom, uses a specific, customised learning style depending on their intelligence, motivation, age, etc. Consequently, it is imperative that teachers take these factors into account when preparing for their lessons.

PART II Teaching Styles

The style of instruction reflects a teacher's personal behaviours and the mediums through which info is sent to or received from pupils (Fatemi et al., 2017). Grasha (2002) defines teaching style as teachers' regular behaviours in their relationships with their pupils. Cooper (2001) defined teaching styles as the strategies, activities, and procedures used by a teacher in a classroom. Similarly, Kazemi and Soleimani (2013) characterised teaching styles as echoes of a combination of teachers' theoretical presumptions and their classroom practice.

Teaching styles, like students' learning styles, varies (for example, seeing and hearing; thinking and acting; reasoning logically and intuitively; memorising and visualising). Some educators prefer to lecture in class, while others prefer to exhibit or debate; some focus on rules, others on instances; some on memory, others on comprehension (Fatemi, Azar & Behzad, 2017).

Anthony Garsha is a cognitive and social psychologist who obtained a doctorate in psychology from the University of Cincinnati in 1968. He laid out different teaching styles where he refers to teachers' ideas, behaviours, and needs as they evolve in a classroom setting. Grasha argued that a teacher's teaching style represents the teacher's personal characteristics in terms of how to teach, guide, and direct the teaching process, hence influencing pupils and their ability to learn. In general, student success or failure is linked to a teacher's teaching style, which is directly related to the teaching methods employed during class. Indirectly, the teaching style becomes part of a thorough transmission of educational content. Educational background, teaching experience, cultural background, and particular personal interests can all have an impact on a teacher's style (Sim & Matore, 2022).

The Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Styles (1996) describe various approaches to classroom management and interaction between teachers and students during the learning process. These styles encompass a range of techniques, activities, and teaching approaches that reflect the personal qualities and behaviours of teachers. The five distinct dimensions identified are:

Expert Teaching Style: Teachers possess and share extensive knowledge, encouraging students to develop competencies through challenging situations. While beneficial for experienced students, it may intimidate or limit less experienced ones if overused.

Formal Authority Teaching Style: Teachers establish their role through authority, setting clear objectives and expectations. This style emphasizes structured learning but may lead to rigid and inflexible student engagement if overly strict.

Personal Model Teaching Style: This style is characterized by teachers serving as role models, demonstrating behaviours and thinking for students to emulate. They actively guide students by example, which helps students observe and imitate successful methods. However, this style can make students feel inadequate if they struggle to meet the high standards set by the teacher, potentially leading to demotivation.

Facilitator Teaching Style: Teachers using this style focus on interactive and supportive roles, encouraging student independence and decision-making by offering choices and suggesting alternatives. This approach aims to foster self-efficacy and independence in students, ideally through project-based learning. While highly adaptive to students' needs, it can be time-consuming and less effective when a direct approach is necessary.

Delegator Teaching Style: This style emphasizes student autonomy by assigning projects that require self-learning, with the teacher acting as a reference source. It promotes self-capacity and independence, expecting students to tackle tasks without direct supervision. Although it cultivates initiative, it may lead to anxiety and uncertainty among students who feel unprepared for such autonomy, highlighting a need for balanced supervision.

According to Fatemi, Azar and Behzad (2017) teacher-centred styles include the expert, personal model, and formal authority styles, whereas facilitator and delegator styles are student-centred. In a teacher-centred classroom, pupils are passive observers who have no control regarding their individual learning; they are simply recipients of the instructors knowledge and insight. In contrast, in a learner-centred classroom, students play an active part in developing their own curricula. Students have the opportunity to make important judgements and assess the relevance of educational approaches to their own lives and personal beliefs (Fatemi, Azar and Behzad, 2017).

As stated by Felder (1988) teaching style can be described based on the answers to five questions:

- 1) What type of knowledge does the lecturer emphasise: concrete—factual, or abstract—conceptual, theoretical?
- 2) What type of presentation is preferred: visual (pictures, diagrams, films, demonstrations) or verbal (lectures, readings, discussions)?
- 3) Is the presentation organised inductively (phenomena lead to principles) or deductively (principles lead to phenomena)?
- 4) Does the presentation encourage active student participation (talking, moving, reflecting) or passive participation (watching and listening)?
- 5) What viewpoint is supplied on the presented information: sequential—step-by-step advancement (trees) or global—context and relevance (forest)?

Based on these above mentioned questions and learning styles presented also by Felder and Silverman (1988) in the previous section, the researchers suggested teaching styles corresponding to their learning styles model as well. Concerning the content, there are concrete and abstract types of content. *Concrete* information means facts, data, and experimenting with the study material, while the *abstract* one includes principles and theories. The style of presentation can be visual or verbal, where visual focuses on the usage of pictures, diagrams and films, whereas the main means of conveying information in verbal mode is lectures, readings and discussions. According to student participation styles can be active (students' talk, movement as well as reflection) or passive (pupils are only spectators). The teacher's perspective can be sequential or global, where sequential means gradual progression in the understanding of a topic, while global perspective is more selective, mainly focuses on relevance and context (Alnujaidi, 2018).

| Preferred Learning Style | | | Correspondin | Corresponding Teaching Style | | | | |
|--------------------------|---|---------------|----------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------|--|--|--|
| Sensing Intuitive | } | Perception | Concrete Abstract | } | Content | | | |
| Visual Verbal | } | Input | Visual Verbal | } | Presentation | | | |
| Active Reflective | } | Processing | Active Passive | } | Student Participation | | | |
| Sequential Global | } | Understanding | Sequential Global | } | Perspective | | | |

Table 2. Dimensions of Learning and Teaching Styles (adapted from Felder, 1988)

Thus, concluded by Felder and Silverman (1988), concrete and abstract teaching styles correspond to sensing and intuitive learning styles, visual and verbal TSs, correspond to visual and verbal learning pairs, active and passive TSs correspond to active and reflective LSs, while sequential and global TSs correspond to sequential and global learning styles.

According to Manzano (2003), teachers' teaching styles differ from their pupils' learning styles. The students pay attention to the teacher yet are unable to comprehend the subject matter. Many aren't paying attention because they are preoccupied with other activities. The teachers are frustrated and saddened by this situation. Teachers believe there is a wrong emphasis on certain aspects.

According to Gatchalian (2011), teachers and students each have unique teaching and learning styles. Her research demonstrated that the sensing method is the only one that works for both teachers and students. Other styles are incompatible. The researcher created an articulation scheme that teachers might utilise to meet the demands of their students.

Feljone (2018) contributed to the research canon of teaching and learning styles. He conducted his study on 20 teachers and 251 students. His findings show that teachers predominantly prefer reflective, sensing, visual, and sequential styles. This suggests that teachers are inclined towards methods that allow for structured, visual, and fact-based teaching, with a preference for students to think through and process information reflectively rather than engaging actively. Conversely, students showed a preference for active, sensing, visual, and sequential styles. This indicates that while students align with teachers on sensing, visual, and sequential preferences, they differ significantly in their preference for active. The study classified congruence into three types: sensory, visual, and sequential. In both cases teachers and students prefer practical, hands-on learning, visual aids in the classroom, and a systematic approach to information. However, a considerable discrepancy was discovered in the active/reflective dimension, with professors favouring a reflective approach and students preferring an active one. The congruence of sensory, visual, and sequential styles indicates that present teaching techniques are adequately addressing some of students' learning preferences. However, the disparity in the active/reflective dimensions indicates an area for possible improvement. Integrating more active learning practices could improve student engagement and learning results.

Grasha (1996) divides teaching styles into four categories: formal authority, demonstrator, facilitator, and delegator. Alkhatnai (2011) describes the Teaching Style Inventory (TSI), which was established by the Centre of Occupational Research Development in 2005. The TSI categorises teaching styles into four quadrants. Quadrant A (Cognitive-Processing) teachers encourage children to process material using symbols and work independently. Quadrant B (Interaction-Cooperative) teachers prefer students to learn through symbols while working in groups. Quadrant C (Interaction-Individual) instructors like students to work independently on computers, manipulating variables in interactive applications. Quadrant D (Cognitive Enactive) teachers prioritise group assignments for their pupils in laboratory settings. Peacock (2001) changed the PLSPO (Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire). The modified PLSPQ surveyed teachers on their teaching styles using the exact same six groups and descriptions as the initial questionnaire. Teachers were asked to rate each statement on a 5-point scale (frequently, often, sometimes, rarely, never) based on their teaching experience. Cheng and Banya (1998), Juris et al. (2009), and Sabeh et al. (2011) used the PLSPQ unchanged, but added a questionnaire for general responder information (age, gender, etc) (Modic, 2013).

In the present study Felder and Soloman's Index of Learning and Teaching Styles model will be utilized.

2.1. The Relationship Between Teaching and Learning Styles

Alkhatnai (2011) offered three potential strategies based on the study of several scholars that illustrate how educators should address a range of learning styles in the classroom:

- a) Matching: teachers ought to ascertain the learning styles of their students and modify their lessons accordingly.
- b) Mismatching: in order to strengthen these weaker preferences, teachers should first determine the learning styles of their students and then design their instruction to align with those preferences.
- c) The third strategy does not entail learning type identification; instead, education should incorporate a variety of techniques that cater to the majority, if not all, of the learners' preferred learning styles (Modic, Matea 2013).

Scholars who favoured a mismatch (Rush and Moore, 1991; Kosower and Berman, 1996, as cited in Alkhatnai, (2011) assert that it encourages learning and adaptability in the learning process while also assisting pupils in overcoming their deficiencies. For rather different reasons, other authors (Vaughn and Baker, 2001, as quoted in Alkhatnai, (2011) advocated for a mismatch between teaching and learning styles. They contend that a fit between them may result in student boredom and inefficiency.

In a study, conducted by Tabatabacia and Mashayekhi (2013) with a sample of 131 pre-university EFL learners from Khansar, Iran, consisting of both male and female students aged 17 to 18, the participants were divided according to their academic majors into mathematics, humanities, and experimental sciences. The learners' preferences were measured using the Productivity Environmental Preference Survey (PEPS), which assesses various learning modalities such as auditory, visual, tactile, and kinaesthetic preferences. The results indicated that while different learning styles were preferred—visual being the most preferred, followed by auditory, tactile, and least preferred kinaesthetic—these preferences did not significantly affect the learners' success in language achievement. Furthermore, no significant differences were found in learning style preferences based on the students' academic majors or gender. This study underscores that while individual learning preferences exist, they do not necessarily correlate strongly with language learning success in the context of Iranian preuniversity EFL students. This insight could be crucial for educators and curriculum developers to consider a broader range of factors beyond learning styles to enhance language learning effectiveness (Tabatabaeia and Mashayekhi, 2013).

In exploring the dynamics of teaching styles and student personalities, it becomes evident that these elements profoundly shape the learning environment and student engagement. The compatibility between teaching methods and students' learning preferences is crucial, as it directly influences how students perceive and interact with the material presented. When teachers' styles resonate with students' preferred learning modalities, it fosters a more conducive atmosphere for learning, leading to enhanced student engagement and better academic outcomes.

Moreover, the personality traits of teachers play a significant role in setting the classroom atmosphere. For instance, extroverted teachers might create dynamic and interactive classroom settings that engage similarly extroverted students but could potentially overwhelm

more introverted students. This variation in perception underscores the importance of adaptive teaching strategies that accommodate diverse student personalities to optimize learning effectiveness.

Research indicates that a nuanced understanding of the interplay between teaching styles and student personalities not only aids in creating a more supportive educational environment but also enhances the overall effectiveness of teaching. By aligning teaching approaches with the varied learning styles and personality types of students, educators can significantly improve both student engagement and educational outcomes, demonstrating the critical role of tailored educational practices in fostering academic success (Walla, 1988).

Furthermore, Rita S. Dunn and Kenneth J. Dunn (1979) explore the imperative of aligning teaching styles with the diverse learning styles of students, highlighting the complex variability in how individuals learn and retain knowledge. The research underscores that students' learning preferences are influenced by a constellation of factors, including environmental, emotional, sociological, and physical elements. These factors shape the individual's optimal learning conditions, ranging from the need for specific light and sound conditions to preferences for working alone or in groups. The authors argue that the traditional "one-size-fits-all" approach to teaching is suboptimal because it fails to acknowledge and accommodate these individual differences. Instead, they advocate for a teaching paradigm that is responsive to the varied learning styles of students, suggesting that such an approach significantly enhances student motivation and academic achievement. Central to their thesis is the concept that educational environments should be deliberately adapted to meet the diverse needs of learners. This involves not only physical modifications of classroom spaces but also the strategic use of various teaching aids and methods to cater to different sensory preferences and learning needs. Meaning that they emphasize the necessity of aligning instructional methods with the diverse learning styles of students to enhance academic success and motivation.

Key recommendations include matching instructional resources to individual student characteristics, employing small-group techniques to cater to collaborative and interactive learning preferences, and adjusting classroom environments to accommodate sensory and physical needs. The researchers advocate for flexible teaching approaches that consider the emotional, sociological, and environmental factors influencing student learning, suggesting

that such adaptations can significantly improve both engagement and educational outcomes (Dunn and Dunn, 1979).

2.2. Characteristics of EFL Teaching in Transcarpathia

In terms of foreign language teaching, there are two main types of school: those with a general foreign language curriculum and those with a specialised foreign language curriculum. Curriculum with general language teaching is outlined below (Huszti, 2022). In Ukraine, state schools offer instruction in either Ukrainian or minority languages.

First and foremost it would be important to identify and describe in detail how many English lessons are there in the Transcarpathian schools. In the 2015/16 school year, the number of hours of foreign language teaching in schools with Ukrainian language of instruction in grades 6-9 increased from 2 to 3 hours per week (according to the then new standard). In the 8th grade in schools with Ukrainian language of instruction, the time devoted to foreign language learning was also increased from 2 to 3 hours per week (according to the previous standard). In grades 10-11 (general profile) in Ukrainian-language primary schools, the number of hours of foreign language teaching increased from 3 to 3.5 hours (Osvita, 2015).

According to these amendments, the number of hours for studying a foreign language in the academic years in schools with Ukrainian language of instruction starting from 2015/16 are as follows:

| Classes | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|-----|-----|
| Lessons | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3,5 | 3,5 |
| per week | | | | | | | |

Table 3. EFL lessons per week in Transcarpathia (in schools with Ukrainian language of instruction)

On the contrary, according to Huszti (2022), in schools with Hungarian language of instruction the number of foreign language lessons per week as follows:

| Classes | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|
| Lessons | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 |
| per week | | | | | | | |

Table 4. EFL lessons per week in Transcarpathia (in schools with Hungarian language of instruction

To learn a language, it is important to have either internal or external motivation. Motivation is crucial for language learners' success, as it influences their attitudes and dispositions towards the target language and culture. Language teachers are responsible for motivating their students and must use numerous ways to attain this goal (Lăpădatet al.,2024). Huszti et al. (2015) surveyed students on which are their three favourite subjects and which are the three subjects they don't like at all. Scholars wanted to find out how students feel about English and Ukrainian languages at school. We also looked at how often children mentioned English and Ukrainian in their lists. The interviewees participating in the research cited numerous instrumental reasons that influence students' motivation to learn English and Ukrainian. For English, motivations were linked mainly to job opportunities, acquiring good grades, and other pragmatic reasons such as understanding song lyrics, video games, and user manuals. On the other hand, motivations for learning Ukrainian were tied more to environmental factors, like passing entrance exams, navigating bureaucratic offices, or obtaining a driver's license. Notably, integration was only mentioned in the context of Ukrainian.

Additionally, a significant overlap in data interpretation between the two sources highlighted an awareness, emphasizing the need for teachers, parents, and students to recognize the necessity of Ukrainian language proficiency, which may connect to an internalized need to master the state language. As the results indicate, such awareness is observable in the motivational structure of Ukrainian language among the high school students studied, attributed to the use of triangulation methods. Interviewees also attributed a significant role to language teachers in shaping students' future aspirations by presenting perspectives and opportunities made accessible through language proficiency. They emphasized the importance of teachers collecting success stories to maintain an ideal future self-image for the students. Several interviewees pointed out deficiencies in the educational organization process, often associating them with students' low proficiency in Ukrainian due to weaknesses in language education planning. Stakeholders in both Ukrainian and English language education advocated for fundamental changes in the educational process.

The frequent misunderstanding of the concept of the 'Ideal L2 Self' suggests that informants lack a clear vision they could present to minority students. In the case of Ukrainian language motivation, informants attempted to substitute the 'Ideal L2 Self' concept with plans

and ambitions that students should have upon completing high school, while also pointing to the teacher as a source of future promising ideas. Interestingly, the informants set expectations and requirements despite their own unclear definitions of the ideal Ukrainian language self for the students. In contrast, for English language motivation, the situation appeared less promising, with informants unable to provide valid examples of the long-term practical use of English proficiency. One informant admitted to being unaware of any benefits that Hungarian students in Transcarpathia could gain from English proficiency (Huszti, 2015).

Part II of this study aims to distinguish between various teaching styles based on the Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Styles (1996), which are supported by the work of Felder (1988) and Alkhatnai (2011). The relationship between teaching and learning styles is also discussed, with particular emphasis on the alignment of these variables for a successful learning and teaching experience. In accordance with the findings of Dunn and Dunn (1979), it is of utmost importance for teachers to be flexible in their approach and select methodologies that consider the multitude of factors influencing student learning. These adaptations have been demonstrated to significantly enhance both the students' engagement in the lesson and the pedagogic outcomes. Furthermore, an analysis of EFL teaching in Transcarpathia is conducted in order to gain a comprehensive understanding of the current situation.

PART III

Empirical Research

As previously discussed, the *object* of the thesis is to explore learning and teaching styles, specifically how these styles are implemented and interact in educational settings. This topic is of great importance because by exploring this area and collecting data from both sides, tutors can gain a better insight into the learning and teaching processes which will in turn enable them to improve and develop their tutoring methods.

3.1. Aim of Research

The primary objective of the present research is to explore the various teaching and learning strategies employed in Transcarpathian schools. This investigation seeks to identify effective methods that educators use to enhance student engagement and learning outcomes in this culturally diverse region. Furthermore, the study aims to understand how these strategies meet the unique educational needs of students. Additionally, the research will consider the impact of these strategies on language acquisition. Ultimately, this study intends to provide insights that could lead to the development of more tailored and effective educational practices in Transcarpathia.

3.2. Research Design

Two online questionnaires were used to gather the necessary information for this research.

One was a learner-specific questionnaire, it aimed at 9-11 grade students to find out students' preferences on four dimensions. The Index of Learning Style questionnaire was adapted from R.M. Ferlder and B.A. Soloman (1991). The Index of Learning Style (ILS) is a tool that has been already utilized and tested in several studies to identify students' preferred learning styles, therefore the researcher found this questionnaire valid and reliable.

Felder and Soloman developed the Index of Learning Styles (ILS), an 44-item questionnaire that identifies learning styles based on Felder Silverman Learning Style Model (FSLSM). Each student has a personal taste for each dimension. These preferences are

expressed using values ranging from +11 to -11 per dimension, with steps of +/-2. This range is derived from the 11 questions provided for each dimension. When one answers a question with an active preference, +1 is added to the value of the active/reflective dimension, whereas an answer with a reflective preference reduces the value by one. As a result, each question is answered with either +1 (answer a) or -1 (answer b). The questionnaire was translated into Hungarian.

The scoring key of questionnaire itself is not public, one has to make a licensing request in order to obtain it. The researcher was asked to keep it confidential from the respondents by the creator of the questionnaire.

The second questionnaire was completed by EFL teachers from across Transcarpathia, who teach in grades 9, 10, and 11. It was a self-report questionnaire and a modified version of the one the students got in order to asses teacher's preference as well, similarly on four levels. Teachers who filled out their teacher-specific questionnaire helped the researcher find and reach the required number of students.

This author would like to express appreciation and respect to Richard Felder for allowing to use of his framework – developed with great care – in this research.

3.3. Participants

This study used two online questionnaires to collect data from 52 Transcarpathian students who study EFL in schools where Hungarian is the language of instruction and 38 teachers in various schools, who teach in schools with Hungarian language of instruction. The participants in the students' questionnaire are all high school learners (aged 15-17) who are mostly the pupils of the teachers surveyed. The table below illustrates the geographical distribution of the teachers who participated in the research.

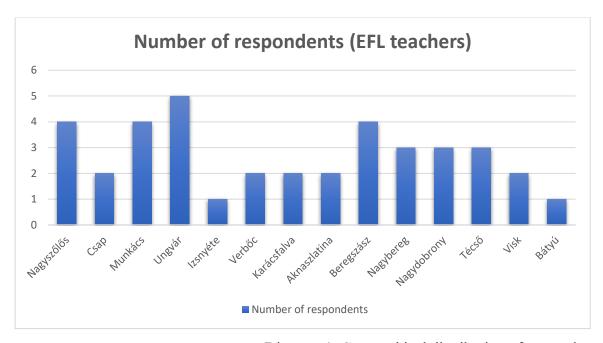


Diagram 1. Geographical distribution of respondents

3.4. Procedure

To make the research transparent and clear, it was advisable to separate the research data. Therefore, the analysis of the research data will be divided into two parts: analysing the data gathered from students, the other part will be dedicated to the analysis of the teachers' answers. There were 44 closed-ended questions in each of the two online surveys. It was highly advisable to analyse all the incoming answers separately and see their data one by one to produce a more detailed analysis. The data collected was analysed using Microsoft Excel software.

The followings are the steps of analysing the data:

- (1) the researcher collects the data through online questionnaire from both the teachers and students. The researcher then picks, identifies, and concentrates on the data according to the study's concept.
- (2) Following collecting the data, the researcher demonstrated them in the Results part.
- (3) After analysing the data, a conclusion is drawn at the end of this paper.

3.5. Results

The following part is aimed at bringing forward the results obtained from the questionnaires. The author will try to interpret the findings in detail.

In both questionnaires teaching/learning preferences were determined by the items (which indicate the number of the questions) below:

• Active/reflective: 1,5,9,13,17,21,25,29,33,37,41

• Sensing/intuitive: 2, 6, 10, 14, 18, 22, 26, 30, 34, 38, 42

• Visual/verbal: 3,7,11,15,19,23,27,31,35,39,43

• Sequential/global: 4,8,12,16,20,24,28,32,36,40,44

To analyse teaching and learning styles, frequency counts and percentages were used. The frequency refers to the total amount of respondents who selected item a or b. Percentage is calculated by dividing the number of respondents who preferred a or b by the total number of respondents. The count/percentages were categorised to establish style preference:

0% no preference/ balanced preference

0.01%-20.00% negligible preference

20.01%-40.00% slight preference

40.01%-60.00% moderate preference

60.01%-80.00% high preference

80.01%-99.99% very high preference

100% excellent preference (adapted from Ragma, 2018)

3.5.1. Teaching Styles Preferences

3.5.1.1. Active vs Passive Teaching Style Preferences

Table 5. below shows that the teachers who participated in this survey prefer the active teaching style to the reflective one. The difference is measured in 66 points, which means a variance of 16%. This figure indicates a negligible preference for the active teaching style.

Teachers with an active teaching style encourage their students to try different things and solutions in practice and involve their students in group projects. They prefer to go outdoors and teach outside the classroom. These teachers do not mind having unruly students, they encourage creativity and unconventional solutions. Problem-solving activities could be an important part of their teaching. The highest scoring statement was: "In a study group working on difficult material, I advise my students to a) jump in and contribute ideas". Similarly, active teachers want their students to be brave and start solving a problem immediately, even if they do not fully understand the whole situation.

From these data we can see that there were only two items where the passive teaching style dominated over the active one. When students were asked to work on their own, for example on a homework assignment, these teachers were more likely to advise them to think through the problem, make a plan and then start working.

| Statements | Preference frequencies | | Frequency differences | Corresponding percentage of | Preferred style | Level of preference |
|---|------------------------|---------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------|---------------------|
| | Active | Passive | | preference | · | • |
| 1. I think my students understand something better after I make them to a) try it out. b) think it through. | 26 | 12 | 14 | 36% | active | slight |
| 5. When I am learning something new, it helps me to a) talk about it. b) think about it. | 22 | 16 | 6 | 16% | active | negligibl e |
| 9. In a study group working on difficult material, I advise my students to | 34 | 4 | 30 | 79% | active | high |

| a) jump in and | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|----|----|----|------|----------|-----------|
| contribute ideas. | | | | | | |
| b) sit back and listen. | | | | | | |
| 13. In classes I | 22 | 16 | 6 | 16% | active | negligibl |
| a) usually gotten to | 22 | 10 | O | 1070 | active | e |
| know many of the | | | | | | |
| students. | | | | | | |
| b) have rarely gotten to | | | | | | |
| know many of the | | | | | | |
| students. | | | | | | |
| 17. When I start | 10 | 28 | 18 | 47% | passive | moderate |
| explaining a homework | 10 | 20 | 10 | .,,, | Passive | inoderate |
| problem, I advise my | | | | | | |
| students to | | | | | | |
| a) start working on the | | | | | | |
| solution immediately. | | | | | | |
| b) try to fully | | | | | | |
| understand the problem | | | | | | |
| first. | | | | | | |
| 21. I prefer to teach | 22 | 16 | 6 | 16% | active | negligibl |
| a) in a class. | | | | | | e |
| b) as a private tutor. | | | | | | |
| 25. I would rather | 20 | 18 | 2 | 5% | active | negligibl |
| advise my students to | 20 | 10 | 2 | 370 | active | e |
| a) try things out. | | | | | | |
| b) think about how they | | | | | | |
| are going to do it. | | | | | | |
| 29. I more easily | 20 | 18 | 2 | 5% | active | negligibl |
| remember | 20 | 10 | 2 | 370 | active | |
| | | | | | | e |
| a) something I have done. | | | | | | |
| b) something I have | | | | | | |
| thought a lot about. | | | | | | |
| 33. When I make my | 16 | 22 | 6 | 16% | passive | nogligibl |
| students to work on a | 10 | 22 | U | 10/0 | passive | negligibl |
| group project, I first | | | | | | e |
| want them to | | | | | | |
| a) have "group | | | | | | |
| brainstorming" where | | | | | | |
| everyone contributes | | | | | | |
| ideas. | | | | | | |
| b) brainstorm | | | | | | |
| individually and then | | | | | | |
| come together as a | | | | | | |
| group to compare ideas | | | | | | |
| 5.04p to compare facus | | | | | <u> </u> | |

| 37. I am more likely to | 26 | 12 | 14 | 37% | active | slight |
|----------------------------|-----|-----|----|-----|--------|-----------|
| be considered | | | | | | |
| a) outgoing. | | | | | | |
| b) reserved. | | | | | | |
| 41. The idea of | 24 | 14 | 10 | 26% | active | slight |
| assigning homework in | | | | | | |
| groups, with one grade | | | | | | |
| for the entire group, | | | | | | |
| a) familiar to me. | | | | | | |
| b) I do not like this kind | | | | | | |
| of teaching method. | | | | | | |
| Total | 242 | 176 | 66 | 16% | active | negligibl |
| | | | | | | e |

Table 5. Active vs Passive Teaching Style Preferences

3.5.1.2. Concrete vs Abstract Teaching Preferences

Table 6 shows that Transcarpathian teachers mainly use concrete teaching styles, they prefer this style to abstract style. This is proved by the frequency indicator, which gives a total of 244 votes for concrete teaching styles. Certainly, the main indicator of this preference is the statement "I like to teach a) facts and real life situations", which scored 89% on the preference scale with a very high level of preference. Similarly, "I prefer courses that emphasise a) concrete material (facts, data)" scored particularly high, with the second highest level of preference compared to other statements, meaning that it reached a moderate level of preference. Two statements are about abstract teaching style, all the other 9 are about concrete. Teachers who mainly use a concrete style of teaching emphasise the practical side of the subject rather than any abstract, theoretical information and try to neglect the imaginative side of the subject. They demonstrate abstract topics by making them concrete.

In a similar study conducted by Ragma (2018), it was found that teachers also use this concrete approach most of the time. Although more than two thirds of the participants (79%) said that they like it when writers say things in creative and interesting ways, this shows a high preference for the abstract approach, although only 26 and 34 statements show the preference for the abstract style.

| Statements | Preference Frequencies | | Freque ncy | Corresponding percentage of | Preferred style | Level of preference |
|--|---------------------------|----------|-----------------|-----------------------------|-----------------|---------------------|
| | Concrete | Abstract | Differe nces | preference | | |
| 2. I would rather be considered a) realistic. b) innovative. | 26 | 12 | 14 | 37% | concrete | slight |
| 6. I like to teach a) facts and real life situations. b) ideas and theories. | 36 | 2 | 34 | 89% | concrete | very high |
| 10. I find it easiera) to learn facts.b) to learn concepts. | 26 | 12 | 14 | 37% | concrete | slight |
| 14. In reading nonfiction, I prefer a) something that teaches me new facts or tells me how to do something. b) something that gives me new ideas to think about. | 20 | 18 | 2 | 5% | concrete | negligible |
| 18. I prefer the idea ofa) certainty.b) theory. | 24 | 14 | 10 | 26% | concrete | slight |
| 22. I am more likely to be considered as a) careful about the details of my work. b) creative about how to do my work. | 24 | 14 | 10 | 26% | concrete | slight |
| 26. When I am reading for enjoyment, I like writers to a) clearly say what they mean. b) say things in creative, interesting ways. | 4 | 34 | 30 | 79% | abstract | high |

| 30. When I have to perform a task, I prefer to a) master one way of doing it. b) come up with new | 24 | 14 | 10 | 26% | concrete | slight |
|---|-----|-----|----|-----|----------|------------|
| ways of doing it. 34. I consider it higher praise to call someone a) sensible. b)imaginative | 16 | 22 | 6 | 16% | abstract | negligible |
| 38. I prefer courses that emphasize a) concrete material (facts, data). b) abstract material (concepts, theories). | 28 | 10 | 18 | 47% | concrete | moderate |
| 42. When I am doing long calculations, a) I tend to repeat all my steps and check my work carefully. b) I find checking my work tiresome and have to force myself to do it. | 16 | 12 | 4 | 11% | concrete | negligible |
| Total | 244 | 172 | 72 | 17% | concrete | negligible |

Table 6. Concrete vs Abstract Teaching Style Preferences

3.5.1.3. Visual vs Verbal Teaching Style Preferences

In response to the questionnaire regarding visual or verbal teaching style preferences *Table 7* suggests the dominance of visual style preference. The table shows a total of 244 instances favouring visual teaching methods compared to 172 instances favouring verbal methods, resulting in an overall 17% preference for visual styles. This indicates a significant inclination among teachers towards using visual aids and representations in their teaching.

Visual Preferences (Questions 19, 23, 43): These questions show a moderate to high preference for visual teaching aids, with differences ranging from 18% to as high as 58%. Teachers strongly prefer using visual inputs like diagrams, maps, and charts to facilitate

learning. This could be attributed to the effectiveness of visual aids in helping students grasp complex language structures and vocabulary visually, which can be particularly helpful in language acquisition.

Question 43, which shows a 58% preference for visualizing places accurately, underscores the importance of concrete visualizations in enhancing memory and comprehension, which is critical in language learning.

While there is a clear preference for visual teaching aids, the data also shows the necessity of verbal instruction. For instance, in question 27, despite the preference for remembering pictures, verbal explanation holds a significant place. This suggests a need for a balanced approach that incorporates both visual and verbal elements to cater to different learning styles and enhance comprehension.

Similar to the earlier analysed concrete vs. abstract teaching preferences, where a high preference for concrete (visual) materials was observed, this table also reflects a leaning towards the concrete, visible aspects of learning over abstract, verbal descriptions.

| Statements | Preference Frequencies | | Frequency Differences | Corresponding percentage of | Preferred Style | Level of preference |
|--|---------------------------|--------|--------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| | Visual | Verbal | | preference | | |
| 3. When I think about what I did yesterday, I am most likely to get a) a picture. b) words | 26 | 12 | 14 | 37% | visual | slight |
| 7. I prefer to provide new information in a) pictures, diagrams, graphs, or maps. b) written directions or verbal information. | 24 | 14 | 12 | 32% | visual | slight |
| 11. In a book with lots of pictures and charts, I advise my students to a) look over the pictures and charts carefully. | 26 | 12 | 14 | 37% | visual | slight |

| b) focus on the | | | | | | |
|---|----|----|----|------|--------|-----------|
| written text. | | | | | | |
| 15. I am a teacher who | 14 | 24 | 10 | 26% | verbal | slight |
| a) puts a lot of | | | | | | |
| diagrams on the board. | | | | | | |
| b) spends a lot of | | | | | | |
| time explaining. | | | | | | |
| 19. I remember best | 28 | 10 | 18 | 47% | Visual | moderate |
| a) what I see. | | | | | | |
| b) what I hear. 23. When I get | 28 | 10 | 18 | 47% | Visual | moderate |
| directions to a new | 20 | 10 | 10 | 4770 | visuai | inouciate |
| place, I prefer | | | | | | |
| a) a map. | | | | | | |
| b) written | | | | | | |
| instructions. | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | |
| 27. When I see a | 14 | 24 | 10 | 26% | verbal | slight |
| diagram or sketch in | | | | | | |
| class, I want my | | | | | | |
| students to remember | | | | | | |
| a) the picture. | | | | | | |
| b) what the I said | | | | | | |
| about it. | | | | | | |
| 31. When I show | 14 | 24 | 10 | 26% | verbal | slight |
| some data to my | | | | | | |
| students, I prefer a) charts or graphs. | | | | | | |
| b) text summarizing | | | | | | |
| the results. | | | | | | |
| 35. When I meet | 22 | 16 | 6 | 16% | visual | negligibl |
| people at a party, I | | | | | | e |
| am more likely to | | | | | | |
| remember | | | | | | |
| a) what they looked like. | | | | | | |
| b) what they said | | | | | | |
| about themselves. | | | | | | |
| 39. For | 18 | 20 | 2 | 5% | verbal | negligibl |
| entertainment, I | | | | | | e |
| would rather | | | | | | |
| a) watch television. | | | | | | |

| b) read a book. | | | | | | |
|---|-----|-----|----|-----|--------|-----------|
| 43. I tend to picture places I have beena) easily and fairly accurately.b) with difficulty and without much detail. | 30 | 8 | 22 | 58% | visual | moderate |
| Total | 244 | 172 | 72 | 17% | visual | negligibl |
| | | | | | | e |

Table 7. Visual vs Verbal Teaching Style Preferences

3.5.1.4. Sequential vs Global Teaching Style Preferences

Table 8 portrays the preferences between sequential and global teaching styles among EFL teachers. The data reveals distinct preferences and their implications for educational approaches in EFL contexts.

The total frequencies indicated a marginal leaning towards a global teaching style (224 instances) over a sequential style (192 instances), suggesting a broader preference for understanding overall concepts before delving into specifics. This 8% difference in overall preference towards global styles, although labelled negligible, hints at a broader educational trend.

Question 8 and 28: Both items show a strong global preference with a 47% difference favouring global teaching. Teachers prefer students to grasp the overall concept before focusing on individual parts. This suggests that a top-down approach in teaching is more favoured, which could facilitate better comprehension in language learning where context and overarching frameworks are crucial.

Question 12: This item contrasts with the general trend as it shows a 37% preference towards a sequential approach, significant enough to be labelled as slight. This indicates that in specific tasks like solving math problems, a step-by-step approach is preferred, emphasizing the importance of structured methods in logical or numerical problem solving.

Questions 16, 24, 44: These items show very minimal differences between the two styles (all marked as 5% and negligible). For tasks like analysing stories or teaching subjects in isolation, there is a nearly equal split between teachers who prefer a sequential or a global

approach. This suggests that for certain educational activities, the preference for teaching style may not significantly impact the educational outcome or may depend more heavily on other pedagogical factors.

The preference for global teaching styles in several areas suggests that EFL teachers may find it beneficial to integrate more holistic, context-driven strategies in language teaching. This could involve using thematic units or integrated skills approaches that provide learners with a broad context before focusing on specific language forms or functions.

| Statements | Frequen Prefer | | Difference of the | Correspondin g percentage | Preferred Style | Level of preference |
|--|-------------------|--------|-------------------|---------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| | sequential | global | frequencies | of preference | | |
| 4. I tend to a) understand details of a subject but may be fuzzy about its overall structure. b) understand the overall structure but may be fuzzy about details. | 16 | 22 | 6 | 16% | global | negligible |
| 8. I teach in a way a) that I want my students to understand all the parts, than to understand the whole thing. b) that I want my students to understand the whole thing, than I want them to see how the parts fit. | 10 | 28 | 18 | 47% | global | moderate |
| 12. When I solve math problems a) I usually work my way to the solutions one step at a time. b) I often just see the solutions but then have to struggle to figure out the steps to get to them. | 26 | 12 | 14 | 37% | sequential | slight |

| 16 111 11 | 10 | 20 | 2 | 50 / | 1 1 1 | 1: 11 |
|--------------------------|----|----|----|-------------|------------|------------|
| 16. When I'm | 18 | 20 | 2 | 5% | global | negligible |
| analysing a story or a | | | | | | |
| novel | | | | | | |
| a) I think of the | | | | | | |
| incidents and try to put | | | | | | |
| them together to figure | | | | | | |
| out the themes. | | | | | | |
| b) I just know what the | | | | | | |
| themes are when I | | | | | | |
| finish reading and then | | | | | | |
| I have to go back and | | | | | | |
| find the incidents that | | | | | | |
| demonstrate them. | | | | | | |
| 20. It is more | 22 | 16 | 6 | 16% | sequential | negligible |
| | 22 | 10 | U | 1070 | sequentiai | negngioie |
| important to me as an | | | | | | |
| instructor to | | | | | | |
| a) lay out the material | | | | | | |
| in clear sequential | | | | | | |
| steps. | | | | | | |
| b) give an overall | | | | | | |
| picture and relate the | | | | | | |
| material to other | | | | | | |
| subjects. | | | | | | |
| 24. I learn | 18 | 20 | 2 | 5% | global | negligible |
| a) at a fairly regular | | | | | | |
| pace. If I study hard, | | | | | | |
| I'll "get it." | | | | | | |
| b) in fits and starts. | | | | | | |
| I'll be totally confused | | | | | | |
| and then suddenly it | | | | | | |
| all "clicks." | | | | | | |
| 28. When considering | 10 | 28 | 18 | 47% | global | moderate |
| a body of information, | 10 | 20 | 10 | 1,7,0 | groom | mouerace |
| I advise my students | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | |
| to | | | | | | |
| a) focus on details and | | | | | | |
| miss the big picture. | | | | | | |
| b) try to understand | | | | | | |
| the big picture before | | | | | | |
| getting into the | | | | | | |
| details. | | | | 4 | | 41 44 |
| 32. When writing a | 22 | 16 | 6 | 16% | sequential | negligible |
| paper, I advise my | | | | | | |
| students to | | | | | | |
| a) work on (think | | | | | | |
| about or write) the | | | | | | |

| beginning of the paper and progress forward. b) work on (think about or write) different parts of the paper and then order them. | | | | | | |
|---|-----|-----|----|-----|------------|------------|
| 36. When I am teaching my subject, I prefer to a) stay focused on that subject, teaching as much about it as I can. b) try to make connections between that subject and related subjects. | 22 | 16 | 6 | 16% | sequential | negligible |
| 40. Some teachers start their lectures with an outline of what they will cover. I think it is a) somewhat helpful to the pupils. b) very helpful to them. | 10 | 28 | 18 | 47% | global | moderate |
| 44. When solving problems in a group, I advise my students to a) think of the steps in the solution process. b) think of possible consequences or applications of the solution in a wide range of areas | 18 | 20 | 2 | 5% | global | negligible |
| Total | 192 | 224 | 32 | 8% | global | negligible |

Table 8. Sequential vs Global Teaching Style Preferences

3.5.2. Learning Styles Preferences

3.5.2.1. Active vs Reflective Learning Style Preferences

The data in *Table 9* indicates a total of 320 instances where learners favoured active teaching methods, compared to 250 instances favouring reflective methods. This results in an overall 12%

preference for active learning styles, highlighting a significant tendency among learners to engage actively with the learning material. This preference is crucial for educators to consider when designing and implementing instructional strategies.

One of the most striking findings is related to the social interaction aspect of learning. In response to Question 13, which asked learners about their experiences getting to know classmates, there was a notable preference for active engagement. With 38 instances favouring active learning compared to 14 for passive, the 46% preference margin underscores the importance of social interaction in the classroom. Learners seem to value building connections and participating in social learning environments, which enhance their overall educational experience.

Similarly, Question 9, which inquired about group work dynamics, revealed a strong preference for active participation. Learners were more likely to jump in and contribute ideas actively during study groups, with a 24% preference for active engagement. This preference indicates the significance of collaborative learning and the benefits of sharing and developing ideas collectively.

Furthermore, Question 21 addressed learners' study preferences, showing a 24% preference for studying in groups over studying alone. This finding emphasizes the value of collaborative study sessions, where learners benefit from the exchange of knowledge and support from their peers. The inclination towards group study highlights the importance of incorporating collaborative elements into teaching methodologies to enhance learning outcomes.

Despite the overall preference for active learning, there are instances where reflective learning is favoured. For instance, Question 17, which explored learners' approach to homework problems, showed a slight preference for trying to fully understand the problem before attempting to solve it, with an 8% preference for passive learning. This preference for reflective thinking and planning indicates that some learners value strategic and thoughtful approaches to problem-solving.

The distribution of preferences indicates the necessity for a balanced approach that incorporates both active and reflective learning elements. While active learning methods are generally favoured, the presence of reflective learning preferences in certain contexts suggests that a hybrid approach would best cater to the diverse learning needs of students. Educators

should consider integrating active engagement strategies, such as hands-on experiences and group work, with reflective and strategic elements to create a comprehensive and effective learning environment.

| Statements | Preference frequencies | | Frequency difference | Corresponding percentage of | Preferred style | Level of preference |
|---|---------------------------|---------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------|---------------------|
| | Active | Passive | s | preference | | |
| 1. I understand | 28 | 22 | 6 | 12% | active | negligible |
| something better after | | | | | | |
| a) try it out. | | | | | | |
| b) think it through. | 30 | 22 | 8 | 15% | active | negligible |
| 5. When I am learning something new, it helps | 30 | 22 | 0 | 1370 | active | negligible |
| me to | | | | | | |
| a) talk about it. | | | | | | |
| b) think about it. | | | | | | |
| 9. In a study group | 32 | 20 | 12 | 24% | active | slight |
| working on difficult | | | | | | |
| material, I am more | | | | | | |
| likely to | | | | | | |
| a) jump in and | | | | | | |
| contribute ideas. | | | | | | |
| b) sit back and listen. | | | | | | |
| 13. In classes I have | 38 | 14 | 24 | 46% | active | moderate |
| taken | | | | | | |
| a) usually gotten to | | | | | | |
| know many of the students. | | | | | | |
| b) have rarely gotten to | | | | | | |
| know many of the | | | | | | |
| students. | | | | | | |
| 17. When I start a | 24 | 28 | 4 | 8% | reflective | negligible |
| homework problem, I | | | | | | 31.81.81.1 |
| am more likely to | | | | | | |
| a) start working on the | | | | | | |
| solution immediately. | | | | | | |
| b) try to fully understand | | | | | | |
| the problem first. | | | | | | |
| 21. I prefer to study | 32 | 20 | 12 | 24% | active | slight |
| a) in a study group | | | | | | |
| b) alone | | | | | | |

| 25. I would rather firsta) try things out.b) think about how I am going to do it. | 24 | 28 | 4 | 8% | reflective | negligible |
|---|-----|-----|----|-----|------------|------------|
| 29. I more easily remember a) something I have done. b) something I have thought a lot about. | 28 | 24 | 4 | 8% | active | negligible |
| 33. When I have to work on a group project, I first want to a) have "group brainstorming" where everyone contributes ideas. b) brainstorm individually and then come together as a group to compare ideas | 28 | 24 | 4 | 8% | active | negligible |
| 37. I am more likely to be considereda) outgoing.b) reserved. | 24 | 28 | 4 | 8% | reflective | negligible |
| 41. The idea of doing homework ingroups, with one grade for the entire group, a) appeals to me. b) does not appeal to me. | 32 | 20 | 12 | 24% | active | slight |
| Total | 320 | 250 | 70 | 12% | active | negligible |

Table 9. Active vs Reflective Learning Style Preferences

3.5.2.2. Sensing vs Intuitive Learning Style Preferences

Findings in *Table 10* below indicate a slight overall preference for sensing learning styles, with 309 instances favouring sensing methods compared to 281 instances favouring intuitive methods. This results in a modest 5% preference for sensing styles, suggesting that while both styles are important, there is a subtle leaning towards practical and fact-based learning.

One of the most striking findings here is related to the ease with which learners acquire new information. In response to Question 10, which asked whether learners find it easier to learn facts or concepts, there was a clear preference for learning facts, with 32 instances favouring sensing compared to 20 for intuitive. The 24% difference underscores the importance of concrete information in the learning process. Learners find it easier and more beneficial to engage with tangible and factual content rather than abstract ideas. This preference indicates that grounding language instruction in practical and real-world examples can significantly enhance comprehension and retention.

In addition, Question 26 revealed a notable preference for clarity in communication. When asked whether they prefer authors to clearly say what they mean or to express themselves in creative ways, 34 instances favoured clear expression compared to 18 for creative. The 31% preference for clear communication suggests that learners prioritize straightforward and unambiguous language. This preference is particularly important in language learning, where clarity is essential for understanding and effectively using new vocabulary and structures.

Moreover, Question 30, which inquired about task performance approaches, showed a significant preference for mastering one way of performing a task over coming up with new ways. With 34 instances favouring a consistent approach compared to 18 for innovative methods, the 31% preference indicates that learners value stability and proficiency in known methods. This finding highlights the importance of structured and methodical approaches in the learning process, providing learners with a reliable foundation for acquiring and applying new skills.

Despite the overall preference for sensing learning styles, there are instances where intuitive learning is favoured. Question 18, which explored learners' preference for certainty versus theory, revealed a significant inclination towards theoretical understanding. With 36 instances favouring intuitive methods compared to 16 for sensing, the 38% preference for intuitive learning suggests that learners appreciate the depth and breadth of understanding that comes from exploring abstract concepts and theories. This preference underscores the importance of engaging learners with content that goes beyond the immediate and concrete, encouraging them to think critically and explore ideas in depth.

In several questions, the preferences between sensing and intuitive learning styles are balanced, showing no significant leaning towards either style. For example, Question 1, which asked whether learners prefer to be considered realistic or innovative, showed an equal preference for both options. Similarly, Question 22, which inquired about learners' tendencies to be careful about details versus being creative, also showed a balanced preference. These findings suggest that learners appreciate both practical and theoretical aspects of learning, indicating that a hybrid approach that incorporates elements of both styles may be most effective in catering to diverse learning preferences.

The overall slight preference for sensing learning styles indicates that practical, fact-based, and clear instruction is generally favoured among EFL learners. However, the significant preference for theoretical understanding in some areas highlights the importance of incorporating abstract and conceptual elements into the curriculum. By integrating both sensing and intuitive learning styles, educators can create a more inclusive and effective learning environment that supports all learners.

| Statements | | erence iencies Intuitive | Frequency differences | Corresponding percentage of preference | Preferred style | Level of preference |
|---|----|--------------------------------|--------------------------|--|--------------------|---------------------|
| 2. I would rather be considered (a)realistic (b)innovative | 26 | 26 | 0 | 0% | balanced | balanced |
| 6. If I were a teacher, I would rather teach a course (a) that deals with facts and real situations (b) that deals with ideas and theories. | 30 | 22 | 8 | 15% | sensing | negligible |
| 10. I find it easier (a) to learn facts (b) to learn concepts | 32 | 20 | 12 | 24% | sensing | slight |
| 14. In reading nonfiction, I prefer (a) something that teaches me new | 30 | 22 | 8 | 15% | sensing | negligible |

| facts or tells me how to do something (b) something that gives me new ideas to think about | 16 | 26 | 20 | 200/ | | -1:-1.4 |
|--|----|----|----|------|-----------|------------|
| 18. I prefer the idea of (a)certainty (b)theory | 16 | 36 | 20 | 38% | intuitive | slight |
| 22. I am more likely to be considered (a)careful about the details of my work (b)creative about how to do my work | 26 | 26 | 0 | 0% | balanced | balanced |
| 26. When I am reading for enjoyment, I like writes to (a)clearly say what they mean (b)say things in creative, interesting ways | 34 | 18 | 16 | 31% | sensing | slight |
| 30. When I have to perform a task, I prefer to (a)master one way of doing it (b)come up with new ways of doing it | 34 | 18 | 16 | 31% | sensing | slight |
| 34. I consider it higher praise to call someone (a)sensible (b)imaginative | 24 | 28 | 4 | 8% | intuitive | negligible |
| 38.I prefer courses that emphasize (a)concrete materials (facts, data) (b) abstract materials (concepts, theories) | 31 | 20 | 11 | 21% | sensing | slight |

| 42. When I am | 26 | 26 | 0 | 0% | Balanced | balanced |
|---------------------|-----|-----|----|----|----------|------------|
| doing long | | | | | | |
| calculations, (a) I | | | | | | |
| tend to repeat all | | | | | | |
| my steps and check | | | | | | |
| my work carefully. | | | | | | |
| (b)I find checking | | | | | | |
| my work tiresome | | | | | | |
| and have to force | | | | | | |
| myself to do it. | | | | | | |
| Total | 309 | 281 | 28 | 5% | sensing | negligible |
| | | | | | | |

Table 10. Sensing vs Intuitive Learning Preferences

3.5.2.3. Visual vs Verbal Learning Styles Preferences

Table 11 on visual versus verbal learning style preferences among EFL learners reveals significant insights into how students prefer to receive and process information. The data indicates a notable overall preference for visual learning styles, with 350 instances preferring visual methods compared to 240 instances preferring verbal methods. This results in a 17% preference for visual styles, suggesting a strong inclination towards the use of visual aids in education.

One of the most striking findings is related to learners' preference for visual aids in learning materials. For instance, Question 11, which asked learners whether they are likely to look over pictures and charts carefully or focus on the written text in a book with lots of pictures and charts, showed a significant preference for visual aids. With 38 instances favouring visual over 14 for verbal, the 46% difference underscores the importance of incorporating visual elements such as diagrams and charts in teaching materials. This preference highlights the effectiveness of visual aids in helping students grasp complex language structures and vocabulary visually, which is particularly beneficial in language acquisition.

In addition, Question 43, which inquired about learners' ability to visualize places they have been, revealed a substantial preference for visual memory. With 42 instances favouring visual accuracy compared to 10 for verbal, the 61% difference indicates that learners tend to remember places more easily and accurately when they can visualize them. This finding underscores the importance of concrete visualizations in enhancing memory and comprehension, which is critical in language learning.

Moreover, Question 35, which asked learners whether they are more likely to remember what people looked like or what they said about themselves at a party, showed a significant preference for visual memory. With 34 instances favouring visual memory compared to 18 for verbal, the 31% difference suggests that learners prioritize visual cues over verbal ones in social interactions. This preference highlights the importance of visual learning aids in enhancing students' ability to remember and recall information.

Despite the overall preference for visual learning styles, there are instances where verbal learning is favoured. Question 27, which explored learners' preference for remembering a diagram or sketch in class versus remembering what the instructor said about it, showed a slight preference for verbal memory. With 28 instances favouring verbal memory compared to 24 for visual, the 8% difference indicates that some learners value verbal explanations alongside visual aids. This preference suggests that a balanced approach, incorporating both visual and verbal elements, is essential to cater to different learning styles and enhance comprehension.

The distribution of preferences indicates the necessity for a balanced approach that incorporates both visual and verbal learning elements. While visual learning methods are generally favoured, the presence of verbal learning preferences in certain contexts suggests that a hybrid approach would best cater to the diverse learning needs of students. Educators should consider integrating visual aids such as diagrams, maps, and charts with verbal explanations to create a comprehensive and effective learning environment.

The analysis of visual versus verbal learning style preferences among EFL learners demonstrates a clear inclination towards visual learning methods. Learners favour visual aids such as diagrams, charts, and maps, which help them grasp complex language structures and vocabulary more effectively. However, the presence of preferences for verbal learning in specific scenarios suggests that a balanced approach, integrating both visual and verbal elements, would best cater to the diverse learning needs of students. By leveraging the strengths of both visual and verbal approaches, educators can enhance overall learning outcomes and create a more inclusive and effective educational experience.

| Statements | Preference frequencies | | Frequency differences | Corresponding percentage of | Preferred style | Level of preference |
|------------------|------------------------|--------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| | Visual | Verbal | | preference | | |
| 3. When I think | 30 | 22 | 12 | 23% | visual | slight |
| about what I did | | | | | | |

| 1 T | | | | | 1 | |
|---------------------------|-----|-----|-----|------|---------|------------|
| yesterday, I am most | | | | | | |
| likely to get | | | | | | |
| (a) a picture | | | | | | |
| (b)words | 20 | 2.4 | 4 | 00/ | . 1 | 11 1 |
| 7. I prefer to get new | 28 | 24 | 4 | 8% | visual | negligible |
| information in | | | | | | |
| (a)pictures, diagrams, | | | | | | |
| graphs, or maps (b) | | | | | | |
| written directions of | | | | | | |
| verbal information | | | | | | |
| 11. In a book with lots | 38 | 14 | 24 | 46% | visual | moderate |
| of pictures and charts, I | | | | | | |
| am likely to | | | | | | |
| (a)look over the | | | | | | |
| pictures and charts | | | | | | |
| carefully (b)focus on | | | | | | |
| the written text | | | | | | |
| 15. I like teachers | 32 | 20 | 12 | 23% | visual | slight |
| (a)who put a lot of | | | | | | |
| diagrams on the board | | | | | | |
| (b)who spend a lot of | | | | | | |
| time explaining | | | | | | |
| 19. I remember best | 32 | 20 | 12 | 23% | Visual | slight |
| (a)what I see | | | | | | |
| (b) what I hear | | | | | | |
| 23. When I get | 28 | 24 | 4 | 8% | visual | negligible |
| directions to a new | | | | | | |
| place, I prefer | | | | | | |
| (a) a map | | | | | | |
| (b) written instructions | | | | | | |
| 27. When I see a | 24 | 28 | 4 | 8% | verbal | negligible |
| diagram or sketch in | | 20 | | 0,0 | , Groun | negrigiote |
| class, I am most likely | | | | | | |
| to remember | | | | | | |
| (a) the picture | | | | | | |
| (b) what the instructor | | | | | | |
| said about it | | | | | | |
| | 2.4 | 10 | 1.6 | 210/ | . 1 | 1: 1 . |
| 31. When someone is | 34 | 18 | 16 | 31% | visual | slight |
| showing me data I | | | | | | |
| prefer (a)charts or | | | | | | |
| graphs (b)text | | | | | | |
| summarizing the | | | | | | |
| results | | | | | | |

| 35. When I meet people at a party, I am more likely to remember (a)what they looked like (b)what they said about themselves | 34 | 18 | 16 | 31% | visual | slight |
|---|-----|-----|-----|-----|--------|------------|
| 39. For entertainment, I would rather (a)watch television (b)read a book | 28 | 24 | 4 | 8% | visual | negligible |
| 43. I tend to picture places I have been (a)easily and fairly accurately (b) with difficulty and without much detail | 42 | 10 | 32 | 61% | visual | high |
| Total | 350 | 240 | 100 | 17% | visual | negligible |

Table 11. Visual vs Verbal Learning Style preferences

3.5.2.4. Sequential vs Global Learning Style Preferences

The study on sequential versus global learning style preferences among EFL learners provides valuable insights into how students prefer to process and organize information. The data indicates a slight overall preference for sequential learning styles, with 314 instances favouring sequential methods compared to 276 instances favouring global methods. This results in a 6% preference for sequential styles, suggesting that learners generally prefer a step-by-step approach to learning.

One of the most striking findings is related to learners' preference for clear, sequential steps in learning. Question 20, which asked learners whether it is more important for an instructor to lay out the material in clear sequential steps or to give an overall picture and relate the material to other subjects, showed a significant preference for sequential instruction. With 34 instances favouring sequential over 18 for global, the 31% difference underscores the importance of structured and methodical approaches in the learning process. Learners value the clarity and organization that come from a sequential presentation of material, which helps them build understanding incrementally.

In addition, Question 40, which inquired about the helpfulness of lecture outlines, revealed a substantial preference for sequential learning aids. With 36 instances favouring outlines compared to 16 for global, the 38% difference indicates that learners find outlines very helpful in organizing their thoughts and understanding the material. This preference highlights the importance of providing structured learning aids to support sequential learners.

Moreover, Question 12, which asked learners about their approach to solving math problems, showed a clear preference for working through solutions step-by-step. With 28 instances favouring sequential compared to 24 for global, the 8% difference suggests that learners prefer to solve problems in a methodical and orderly manner. This finding underscores the importance of step-by-step problem-solving techniques in enhancing learners' ability to tackle complex tasks.

Despite the overall preference for sequential learning styles, there are instances where global learning is favoured. Question 24, which explored learners' preference for learning at a regular pace versus in fits and starts, showed a significant inclination towards global learning. With 42 instances favouring global methods compared to 10 for sequential, the 62% difference suggests that some learners benefit from a more holistic and intuitive approach to learning. This preference indicates that global learners may experience sudden moments of clarity and understanding, which can be just as effective as methodical learning.

The distribution of preferences indicates the necessity for a balanced approach that incorporates both sequential and global learning elements. While sequential learning methods are generally favoured, the presence of global learning preferences in certain contexts suggests that a hybrid approach would best cater to the diverse learning needs of students. Educators should consider integrating structured, step-by-step instructions with opportunities for holistic and intuitive learning to create a comprehensive and effective learning environment.

| Statements | frequ | rence encies | Frequency differences | Corresponding percentage of | Preferred style | Level of preferenc |
|--|------------|-----------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| | Sequential | Global | | preference | | e |
| 4. I tend to (a)Understand details of a subject but may be fuzzy about its overall structure. (b)Understand the overall structure but may be fuzzy about the details. | 26 | 26 | 0 | 0% | balanced | balanced |
| 8. Once I understand (a) All the parts, I understand the whole thing. (b) The whole thing, I see how the parts fit. | 28 | 24 | 4 | 8% | sequential | negligible |
| 12. When I solve math problems (a) I usually work my way to the solutions one step at a time. (b) I often just see the solutions but then have to struggle to figure out the steps to get to them. | 28 | 24 | 4 | 8% | sequential | negligible |
| 16. When I'm analysing a story or a novel (a) I think of the incidents and try to put them together to figure out the themes. (b) I just know what the themes are when I finish reading and then I have to go back and find the incidents that demonstrate them. | 30 | 22 | 8 | 15% | sequential | negligible |
| 20. It is more important to me that an instructor (a) Lay out the material in clear sequential steps. | 34 | 18 | 16 | 31% | sequential | slight |

| (b) Give me an overall picture and relate the material to other subjects | | | | | | |
|--|----|----|----|-----|------------|------------|
| 24. I learn (a) At a fairly regular pace. If I study hard, I'll "get it." (b) In fits and starts. I'll be totally confused and then suddenly in all "clicks." | 10 | 42 | 32 | 62% | global | high |
| 28. When considering a body of information, I am more likely to (a) Focus on details and miss the big picture. (b) Try to understand the big picture before getting into the details | 22 | 30 | 8 | 15% | global | negligible |
| 32. When writing a paper, I am more likely to (a) Work on (think about or write) the beginning of the paper and progress forward. (b) Work on (think about or write) different parts of the paper and then order them. | 32 | 20 | 12 | 23% | sequential | slight |
| 35. When I am learning a new subject, I prefer to (a) Stay focused on that subject, learning as much about it as I can. (b) Try to make connections between that subject and related subjects | 34 | 18 | 16 | 31% | sequential | slight |

| 40. Some teachers start their lectures with an outline of what they will cover. Such outlines are (a) Somewhat helpful to me. (b) Very helpful | 36 | 16 | 20 | 38% | sequential | slight |
|--|-----|-----|----|-----|------------|------------|
| 44. When solving problems in a group, I would be more likely to | 34 | 18 | 16 | 31% | sequential | slight |
| (a) Think of the steps in the solution process.(b) Think of possible consequences or applications of the solution in a wide range of areas. | | | | | | |
| Total | 314 | 276 | 38 | 6% | sequential | negligible |

Table 12. Sequential vs Global Learning Style Preferences

3.5.3. Difference Between EFL Teaching Styles and EFL Learning Styles in Transcarpathia

In examining the differences between EFL teaching and learning styles in Transcarpathia, several key areas of divergence and convergence emerge, with important implications for educational practices.

Active vs Passive/Reflective Preferences

Both teachers and students in Transcarpathia display a preference for active engagement in the classroom. Teachers exhibit a slight preference for active teaching styles, emphasizing practical involvement, creativity, and group projects. This preference is reflected in the students' learning styles, where a 12% margin indicates a significant inclination towards active learning methods. The synergy between these preferences enhances classroom engagement and participation. However, occasional incorporation of passive/reflective elements could cater to the subset of students who benefit from more contemplative approaches.

Concrete vs Abstract/Sensing vs Intuitive Preferences

A notable divergence is observed in the preference for concrete versus abstract teaching and learning styles. Teachers predominantly favour concrete teaching methods, focusing on practical, real-life examples and tangible content. This is contrasted with students, who, while also showing a preference for practical learning, exhibit a significant appreciation for theoretical and abstract concepts in certain contexts. This discrepancy suggests that while the current teaching methods are effective, incorporating more abstract and theoretical content could better address the diverse learning preferences of students.

Visual vs Verbal Preferences

Both teachers and students exhibit a strong preference for visual learning aids. Teachers utilize diagrams, maps, and charts extensively, aligning well with students' preferences for visual methods of information processing. This alignment is beneficial and suggests that the continued and possibly expanded use of visual aids will further enhance learning outcomes. Visual tools are particularly effective in helping students grasp complex language structures and vocabulary.

Sequential vs Global Preferences

A slight misalignment is can be discovered between teaching and learning preferences regarding sequential and global styles. Teachers show a marginal preference for global teaching styles, favouring a holistic understanding of concepts before addressing specifics. Conversely, students display a preference for sequential learning, valuing structured, step-by-step instructional methods.

Comparing Feljone's (2018) findings to the present research it is clear, that teachers surveyed by the scientist predominantly prefer reflective, sensing, visual, and sequential styles. This suggests that teachers are inclined towards methods that allow for structured, visual, and fact-based teaching, with a preference for students to think through and process information reflectively rather than engaging actively. Conversely, students showed a preference for active, sensing, visual, and sequential styles. This indicates that while students align with teachers on sensing, visual, and sequential preferences, they differ in their preference for active.

The study classified congruence into three types: sensory, visual, and sequential. In both cases teachers and students prefer practical, hands-on learning, visual aids in the classroom,

and a systematic approach to information. However, a considerable discrepancy was discovered in the active/reflective dimension, with professors favouring a reflective approach and students preferring an active one. The congruence of sensory, visual, and sequential styles indicates that present teaching techniques are adequately addressing some of students' learning preferences. However, the disparity in the active/reflective dimensions indicates an area for possible improvement. Integrating more active learning practices could improve student engagement and learning results.

CONCLUSIONS

Language learning is a never-ending, continuous endeavour that starts from birth and lasts our entire life. Students develop language skills by communicating their ideas, emotions, and experiences, building relationships with family and friends, and navigating their environment. Language helps facilitate the process of exploration, collaboration, and curiosity. Language is an interpersonal and unique way for humans to represent, explore, and communicate meaning through interconnected symbol systems guided by rules (Knowledge and Employability, 2006). Put simply, it is how people develop the ability to be aware of and understand language, and to create and use concepts and phrases for communication. It goes without saying, therefore, that it is vital to train teachers to ensure that the next generation has the appropriate language skills to succeed in both their personal and professional lives.

The first two parts of the thesis focused on the diversities of learning and teaching styles, how various researchers (Reid, 1997; Dunn and Griggs, 1988; Dörnyei, 2005; Brown, 2000, etc.) defined those, also what are those variables that might affect the choice of learning styles. The most important part of the thesis was the Empirical Research, where the researcher collected information from the parties concerned in Transcarpathia.

Each of the four groups of learning and teaching styles (active vs passive/reflective preferences; concrete vs abstract/sensing vs intuitive preferences; visual vs verbal preferences; sequential vs global preferences) has been analysed and examined separately to have a better understanding on which areas need alignment and which not. The research shows, that while there is a relatively strong alignment in sensory and visual learning preferences, disparities in active versus reflective and concrete versus abstract preferences suggest opportunities for educational improvement. This paper also illustrates that although there are no colossal differences between learning style and teaching style preferences, there still needs to be some alignment between the two in terms of mainly sequential and global teaching/learning style preferences. Incorporating holistic and intuitive elements into teaching strategies would be a worthwhile idea. In analysing teaching and learning styles within Transcarpathia, a comparison between the present findings and those of Feljone (2018) highlights both similarities and key differences. Both studies confirm a strong preference for active and visual learning styles among students, underscoring the effectiveness of practical and visually-oriented teaching

methods. Also, while in Feljone (2018) visual preference was only at third place, according to Tabatabaeia and Mashayekhi (2013) findings the visual approach was the most preferred, followed by auditory, tactile, and least preferred kinaesthetic.

Overall, while there is strong alignment in sensory and visual learning preferences, discrepancies in active versus reflective and concrete versus abstract preferences indicate opportunities for pedagogical refinement. By adopting a more balanced approach that incorporates diverse teaching strategies, educators can better cater to the varied learning needs of students in Transcarpathia.

To bridge the gaps identified, a balanced approach incorporating both active and reflective elements is recommended. While maintaining the strong preference for active engagement, teachers should include reflective assignments that allow for individual contemplation and strategic thinking.

In addressing the divergence in concrete versus abstract preferences, educators should introduce more theoretical content alongside practical examples. This hybrid approach would cater to students' appreciation for both practical and abstract learning (Alnujaidi, 2018).

The strong alignment in visual preferences should be leveraged by continuing and expanding the use of visual aids. Incorporating a mix of visual and verbal instructional methods will ensure that all students' learning preferences are addressed.

Lastly, to reconcile the differences in sequential versus global preferences, educators should provide clear, step-by-step instructions and structured learning aids. This approach will support students who favour sequential learning while still accommodating those who benefit from understanding overarching concepts.

In terms of *pedagogical implications*, the study provides insight into the differences and similarities between students' learning styles and teachers' teaching styles. The data supports the integration of more visual materials in language teaching curricula and suggests that EFL training programs should emphasize the development of skills to effectively use visual aids. Teachers should be equipped not only with the tools but also with the strategies to effectively integrate these tools into their teaching. Keeping in mind the previously presented results, teachers can greatly contribute to the development of appropriate student-centred teaching approaches to provide the best material tailored to students' needs and preferences. By getting valuable feedback from high school students on the usefulness of

different learning styles, tutors can benefit from the results conducted and prepare their lessons taking into account the results published above. EFL programs should consider these preferences and possibly tailor teacher training to enhance the use of visual aids. Workshops on creating and utilizing visual content could be particularly beneficial. Classroom designs could be adapted to facilitate visual learning, incorporating technologies such as smart boards or VR, which can simulate environments and visual contexts that enhance language learning.

Since current analysis only focused on and was limited to the answers and opinions of each side, further research should be carried out to investigate and observe real-life classroom situations to see how pupils feel, how do they react and how their studies progress when their needs are met/not met. This would give the researcher a thorough understanding of what is best for each individual learner how best to approach and tackle their problems. Also, one of the findings to emerge from this study is the importance of the variables that can affect the learning styles. Therefore it would also be a wise decision to consider carrying out a research, where these factors are tested in the learning processes.

All things considered, recognizing and addressing these teaching and learning style preferences will enable educators in Transcarpathia to create a more inclusive and effective educational environment. By integrating both active and reflective elements, incorporating abstract concepts, enhancing visual aids, and balancing sequential and global teaching methods, teachers can better meet the diverse needs of EFL learner

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РЕЗЮМЕ

Темою моєю дипломної роботи була "Різниця між стилями навчання, яким надають перевагу студенти, які вивчають англійську як іноземну мову та стилями викладання, яким надають перевагу викладачі англійської мови як іноземної на Закарпатті".

Само собою зрозуміло, що дуже важливо готувати вчителів до забезпечення наступного покоління відповідними мовними навичками для досягнення успіху як в особистому, так і в професійному житті. Перші дві частини магістерської дипломної роботи були присвячені різноманітності стилів навчання та викладання, тому, як різні дослідники (Reid, 1997; Dunn and Griggs, 1988; Dörnyei, 2005; Brown, 2000 та ін.) визначають ці стилі, а також тим факторам, які можуть впливати на вибір стилю навчання. Найважливішою частиною дипломної роботи була емпірична частина дослідження, де дослідниця збирала відповіді від вчителів та студентів Закарпаття.

Ця робота свідчить про те, що хоча немає колосальних відмінностей між стилем навчання та уподобаннями щодо стилю викладання, все ж таки існує потреба у певному узгодженні між ними з точки зору переважно послідовних та глобальних уподобань щодо стилю викладання/навчання. Було б добре включити цілісні та інтуїтивно зрозумілі елементи в стратегії викладання.

Зрештою, визнання та врахування цих особливостей щодо стилю викладання та навчання дасть змогу освітянам Закарпаття створити більш інклюзивне та ефективне освітнє середовище. Інтегруючи як активні, так і рефлексивні елементи, включаючи абстрактні поняття, покращуючи наочність та балансуючи між послідовними та глобальними методами викладання, викладачі можуть краще задовольнити різноманітні потреби студентів, які вивчають англійську мову професійного спрямування.

Загалом, незважаючи на те, що вподобання щодо сенсорного та візуального стилю навчання збігаються, розбіжності між активними та рефлексивними і конкретними та абстрактними вподобаннями вказують на можливості для педагогічного вдосконалення. Застосовуючи більш збалансований підхід, що включає різноманітні стратегії навчання, освітяни можуть краще задовольнити навчальні потреби учнів Закарпаття.

Щоб усунути виявлені відмінності, рекомендується застосовувати збалансований підхід, що включає як активні, так і рефлексивні елементи. Зберігаючи значну перевагу активному залученню, вчителі повинні включати рефлексивні завдання, які дають можливість для індивідуальних роздумів і стратегічного мислення

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