

РІВНЕНСЬКИЙ ДЕРЖАВНИЙ ГУМАНІТАРНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
ФАКУЛЬТЕТ ІНОЗЕМНОЇ ФІЛОЛОГІЇ
КАФЕДРА ПРАКТИКИ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ



АКТУАЛЬНІ ПРОБЛЕМИ СУЧАСНОЇ ІНОЗЕМНОЇ ФІЛОЛОГІЇ

СТУДЕНТСЬКИЙ НАУКОВИЙ ВІСНИК

PHILOLOGY



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Студентський науковий вісник



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LEARNING STYLES AND STRATEGIES IN ELT CLASSROOM

Every person is different, every learner is different. Every learner also uses different strategies to remember, recall and use information he/she is presented with. We are all individuals and learn in different ways.

Many authors have tried to classify learners according to their specific learning styles and strategies they use when learning. Researchers have created numerous definitions and classifications, some of which will be looked at in the article.

Richards and Lockhart describe learning style as “predispositions to particular ways of approaching learning [...] that are intimately related to personality types”. Richards and Lockhart further claim: “Differences in people’s cognitive styles reflect the different ways people respond to learning situations” [6, 59-60]. As Richards and Lockhart suggest, learning style and cognitive style refer to the same idea. They provide a few examples of what they mean by their definition of learning style. For instance, some people are willing to take risks and to make guess without worrying about the possibility of being wrong, while others try to avoid situations where there is such a risk. Some people learn best when they use visual cues and write notes to help them remember, while others learn better through auditory learning, without writing notes.

Many authors, such as Bygate, Carter and McCarthy, Harris, Richards and Lockhart, Thornbury, Wright and others have dealt also with the issue of learning strategies. Some authors provided clear definitions, whereas others described learning strategies only in connection to a specific skill or subskill. A very detailed overview of how strategies are defined by various authors is provided by Ellis.

The aim of the article is to study different learning styles and strategies in ELT classroom.

Teachers have to make decisions consciously about the teaching methods and activities which they employ in their classrooms; hence, learners are not the same.

Knowles recognizes four possible cognitive styles according to which learners can be divided. Each learning style has its own characteristics:

- 1) concrete learning style – learners process information actively, they prefer verbal or visual stimuli or physical involvement in learning;
- 2) analytical learning style – learners are serious about learning, independent and enjoy solving problems, they prefer a logical, systematic presentation of new materials;
- 3) communicative learning style – learners need personal involvement, they prefer a social approach to learning and enjoy discussions and group-work;

4) authority-oriented learning style – learners are responsible but dependable, they need structure and prefer traditional classroom.

A few other authors, for example, Wright or Willing, also define four main learning styles. They provide us with different terms but the ideas behind these groups are to some extent similar.

Gardner has introduced a well-known theory of “Multiple Intelligences.” According to Gardner, everyone has a combination of different intelligences, for example, mathematical, musical, interpersonal, spatial, emotional, etc. However, not one person has same proportion of the intelligences. One learner’s mathematical intelligence might be highly developed, while his interpersonal intelligence might be less advanced.

Correspondingly, Harmer claims that every learner is different and every learner responds differently to different stimuli. Some learners need “visual stimuli” to learn successfully, others may need “auditory input” or “kinaesthetic activity” [2, 16]. As mentioned in Harmer, this model is called “*Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP)*”. This model explains that some learners need to hear things to remember them better (auditory input). Whereas learners that prefer visual stimuli, need to see what they are supposed to learn. Some learners need to be “involved in some kind of physical activity” which he refers to as kinaesthetic activity.

We all are to some extent affected by the stimuli just mentioned but some learners need mostly one or another to learn successfully.

A question whether strategies can be taught has been causing a lot of debate recently. According to various scholars and also to Krashen and Brown’s article *What is Academic Language Proficiency?* “strategies can be taught directly and consciously learned.” They claim that “we can determine effective strategies by examining ‘good language learners’ [...] and once we isolate the strategies, we can teach them to students” [4].

Richards and Lockhart point out that although cognitive styles are to some extent stable, as mentioned above, “learning strategies are the specific procedures learners use with individual learning task.” While adding that: “An important aspect of teaching is to promote learners’ awareness and control of effective learning strategies and discourage the use of ineffective ones” [6, 63].

Wenden and Rubin describe how teachers themselves can encourage strategy use. Teachers may do so by “providing an environment which facilitates the strategy identification by students of those strategies which work best for them”. Similar to Richards and Lockhart, Wenden and Rubin claim that teachers can “suggest alternative strategies for organizing and storing information and [...] encourage students to consider which strategies work best for them“ [8, 16-17].

Moreover, Wenden and Rubin claim that since it is not possible for teachers to notice all the learning strategies the learners use and therefore it would be difficult to determine how each student learns best, students must be taught to help themselves. The fact that learners should be the best judges of their learning is also vital in regards to their autonomy and life-long learning.

In like manner, Williams and Burden remind us that some strategies are used consciously but others unconsciously. Similar to what was mentioned above, sometimes “a strategy can be observed, such as when we repeat words aloud, and sometimes they are not observable, such as when we try to work out rules in our heads” [9, 145].

Numerous classifications of learning strategies have been introduced. Some differ only in their terminology, others differ in their definitions completely. We have found the following classification according to O’Malley et. al. together with the classification of communicative strategies, provided by Tarone worth mentioning.

O’Malley [5, 115] recognizes three main categories of learning strategies:

- **metacognitive strategies** – strategies that involve planning for learning, thinking about the learning process as it is taking place, monitoring of one’s production or comprehension, and evaluating learning after an activity is completed;
- **cognitive strategies** – more limited to specific learning tasks and involve more direct manipulation of the learning material itself;
- **socioaffective strategies** – have to do with social-mediating activity and transacting with others.

In Brown the examples of each strategy are provided. The metacognitive strategies include self-evaluation. The cognitive strategies are, for example, “repetition, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, imagery, auditory representation, keyword, contextualization” and others. The socioaffective strategies are “cooperation” and “question for clarification” [1, 116-117].

It has to be noted that alongside learning strategies there is a category of “communication strategies”. And as Brown explains: “While learning strategies deal with the receptive domain of intake, memory, storage and recall, *communication strategies* pertain to the employment of verbal or nonverbal mechanisms for the productive communication of information” [1, 118].

It is sometimes not possible to clearly distinguish between learning strategies and communication strategies due to the fact that comprehension and production can occur almost simultaneously.

According to Tarone [7, 119], communication strategies are classified as follows together with their subcategories:

- paraphrase
- **approximation** (use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker);
- **word coinage** (the learner makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept);
- **circumlocution** (the learner describes the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language item or structure);
- borrowing
- **literal translation** (the learner translates word for word from the native language);
- **language switch** (the learner uses the native language term without bothering to translate);
- **appeal for assistance** (the learner asks for the correct term);
- **mime** (the learner uses nonverbal strategies in place of a lexical item or action);
- **avoidance**
- **topic avoidance** (the learner simply tries not to talk about concepts for which the target language item or structure is not known);
- **message abandonment** (the learner begins to talk about a concept but is unable to continue and stops in mid-utterance).

Although there are many more strategies and their classifications will not be presented here.

To conclude, Harris points out that it is “more fruitful to teach Learning Strategies than Communication Strategies.” While further claiming that “some of the more complex Communication Strategies will develop only once Learning Strategies have allowed pupils sufficient access to the language” [3, 5].

We believe that once the learner is able to use a learning strategy correctly, he/she can apply it to any given task or situation he/she is confronted with.

As was previously mentioned, strategies can be taught, therefore teachers should try to do so. However, Brown stresses: “Teachers cannot always expect instant success in [...] effort [of facilitating learners’ autonomy] since students often bring with them certain preconceived notions of what “ought” to go on in the classroom” [1, 124].

Unfortunately, regardless of the changes in our educational system, it is still common practice that learners develop strategies of how to survive at school. Williams and Burden explain that many learners will learn how to cope with demands of the school curriculum. They will also find ways to meet the requirements imposed by teachers which result in using strategies that pay off in the classroom situation but serve no useful purpose in later life.

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METHODS OF MOTIVATION STUDENTS IN THE LEARNING PROCESS

In modern conditions, one of the important components of the pedagogical process is the motivation of students to the educational process. Today we are facing the problem of losing students' interest in learning. The school, especially the teacher, has an urgent task to activate and maintain an interest in learning about and perceiving something new. It is the motivation of the cognitive activity of students that determines their knowledge, success, desire and ability to perceive new knowledge throughout life. Practice shows that a motivated student successfully learns the learning material, as well as more likely to be interested in personal development.

The purpose of the article is to analyze the methods of motivating students in the learning process.

To discover the topic, we set the following **tasks**: 1) to analyze the basic methods of student motivation; 2) describe the methods of stimulating students to study in a classroom.

As we know, any activity goes more effectively and gives high-quality results, if simultaneously a person has strong, clear and deep motives what can makes him/her want to do effectively, with full desire and strength, deal with difficulties / other circumstances, energy moving towards the intended goal. The motivation is stimulation, feeling and action. In order to reinforce and influence the impact of the presence of a student on various factors, various stimulation methods are used, among which the most common are competition, cognitive play, encouragement, self-evaluation.

The competition in the educational process is built by the teacher, taking into account the fact that children, adolescents and young people tend to strive for healthy rivalry, primacy, and self-affirmation. The inclusion of students in the struggle to achieve results in school, work and other types of creative activity captivates lagging students, stimulates the development of creative activity, initiative, responsibility and cooperation.

The competition can be collective and individual, designed for a long time, and temporary. During its organization and conduct, it is necessary to observe the principles: transparency, concreteness, comparability of results, the possibility of using previous experience.

ЗМІСТ

ФОНЕТИЧНА, ЛЕКСИЧНА ТА ГРАМАТИЧНА СИСТЕМИ МОВИ І МЕТОДИ ЇХ ДОСЛІДЖЕНЬ	4
Бойко В.....	4
Д'яченко Д.	7
Ігнат'єва А.О.	11
Мокрецова А.І.....	16
Пильнєва Н.В.....	21
Поліщук Д.	24
Титечко О.	27
Угринюк Р.В., Ковалюк Р.Д.	29
Угринюк Р.В., Петрук І.О.....	33
Юхимець Д.....	36
АКТУАЛЬНІ ПРОБЛЕМИ ЛІТЕРАТУРОЗНАВСТВА	39
Браїлко М. І.	39
Пагутяк М.А., Лук'янченко М.П.	42
Созанська Я.Р., Лук'янченко М.П.	44
НОВІТНІ МЕТОДИКИ НАВЧАННЯ ІНОЗЕМНИХ МОВ.....	49
Винарчик М.П., Штефуца О.....	49
Anna Hriko	52
Sofiiia Datskiv	55
Olena Yerzhykevych	59
Мазурок О.І.....	63
Tetiana Marach.....	67
Мудрик І.Г.....	71
Ivanna Nedbailo	75
Viktoriia Prokopiuk.....	78
Савчук А.С.	82
Yuliia Terioshyna.....	87
Rodion Furman.....	90
Mariam-Sofiiia Shamsutdynova.....	93
ЗМІСТ	97

Актуальні проблеми сучасної іноземної філології

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