VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGY USE OF ENGLISH, SPECIALISED PRIMARY-TEACHER TRAINEES

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In this study strategies used in vocabulary learning by would-be primary English teachers are discussed. The use of language learning strategies and consequently vocabulary learning strategies is of outstanding importance in language learning and teaching, because the practical application of these strategies seems to be the precondition of successful language learning. For English-specialised teacher trainees, it is vital to be successful in language learning, since this is the way they can become successful teachers. However, the quantitative results presented in this study demonstrate a noticeably low level of vocabulary learning strategy use. This low level strategy use is more likely seen in the area of social and affective strategies, while compensation and metacognitive strategies are used more frequently. Lexical processing strategy use by teacher-trainees is discussed individually, because these strategies can directly lead to vocabulary acquisition. Language learning anxiety and how learners get their knowledge about strategies are also examined separately. Comparing the results of full-time and correspondent students' vocabulary learning strategies shows no significant differences, nevertheless the variance of strategy use raise interesting questions.

Key words: teacher-trainees, vocabulary learning strategies, lexical processing strategies, language learning anxiety, strategy training

The vocabulary learning strategy use of English-specialised primary teacher-trainees is indisputably an important matter. First, because the students need to be successful language learners who attain a considerably high level of proficiency in the foreign language they are going to teach, and secondly, they may soon be responsible for conveying language learning strategies to their own language learners. The outcome of adequate application of vocabulary learning strategies is vocabulary retention and subsequently vocabulary knowledge, which is a key issue in language learning since 'words are the building blocks of language and without them there is no language' (Milton, 2009:3). Moreover, from the extent of vocabulary one can infer general language competence in view of the fact that vocabulary and grammar knowledge cannot exist separately, as they are stored in the human mind in a particular combination.

However, based on classroom observations, Orosz (2007) suggests that English lessons do not provide enough opportunity for acquiring words thoroughly. One of the reasons for this insufficiency can be found in the

quite common classroom practice of memorising word lists and then writing word tests at the next class. Tests, assessing immediate word knowledge, cannot facilitate word retention in the long run. Ultimately, the vocabulary learnt in this manner is blotted out of learners' short term memory due to insufficient practice. Language classes should not only ensure vocabulary learning but should provide various practice opportunities to language learners as well. From these facts it emerges that inappropriate classroom practice need to be altered and at the same time the use of a wide range of vocabulary learning strategies must be encouraged and facilitated.

Vocabulary learning strategies

Language learning strategy use gets more and more attention in second-language acquisition. Research on language learning strategy use has revealed that learners, on the one hand, tend to employ learning strategies in vocabulary learning more than in any other language learning activities and, on the other hand, general language learning strategies may be used in vocabulary learning (O'Malley et al., 1985).

Accordingly, research into vocabulary learning strategies has two dimensions. The first approach is based on general language learning strategies. Many of these strategies used by language learners are vocabulary learning strategies (e.g. the memory strategies in Oxford's taxonomy, 1990). The other way of investigation is directed toward the effectiveness of individual strategy use in vocabulary learning, which has led to the development of vocabulary learning strategies as an independent subgroup of learning strategies. Although research into vocabulary learning strategies has become more systematic, no satisfactory typology has been worked out by researchers in the field. One of the reasons for this insufficiency might derive from the research method. Usually, the questionnaires used provide participants with preset strategies and do not assess individual strategy use or the application of strategies in relation to tasks or activities. Another reason for the lack of comprehensive classification might be that strategies tend to depend a lot on learner's specific characteristics, like learner's type, mother tongue, age, aptitude, and proficiency.

As for proficiency, more advanced learners seem to use more and more complex strategies for language learning while beginners, on the contrary, tend to use much fewer and simpler ones. Studies confirm (Pressley et al., 1982) that the use of complex strategies, such as the Keyword Method (Atkinson, 1975), which is a two-level association between L2 and L1 words, results in longer vocabulary retention, hence contributes to more successful language learning. The superiority of the Keyword Method over mechanical rote learning is indicated by a number of studies (Atkinson, 1975; Elhelou, 1994; Sagarra & Alba, 2006) where it has been used by either advanced learners or beginners. This strategy, however, seems to be used only if one receives training in its use, i.e. training on the Keyword Method is the precondition of being able to study it among language learners. This fact raises the issue of vocabulary learning strategy training that will be discussed afterwards. Moreover, the Keyword Method is not necessarily more successful than the strategies learners use on their own, so it cannot be taken as a substitute for other strategies. It is only one of the strategies that can be applied successfully in the course of vocabulary acquisition.

Rote learning strategy, i.e. memorising word lists with their L1 translation, seems to be a 'natural' strategy, particularly for beginners. Notwithstanding its presumably bad reputation among teachers and

researchers, its efficiency has also been proved by empirical studies (Qian, 1996; Prince, 1996). An important finding of Prince's study is that advanced learners are able to transfer knowledge regardless of the strategy they used for vocabulary learning, i.e. advanced learners can use a word in an adequate context even if it has been learnt by rote learning strategy. Consequently, at the beginning stages of language learning, the strategy of memorising words with their L1 translation can be useful, but that should be combined with other strategies which generate deeper and more complex mental links within the learners' mental lexicon.

The combination of strategies used by language learners and their effect on vocabulary acquisition might provide more fertile ground for investigating vocabulary learning strategies than the analysis of individual vocabulary learning strategies (Gu & Johnson, 1996). In researching vocabulary learning strategies, using a questionnaire appears to be a popular and useful method because, on the one hand, it makes data collection from a large number of participants possible and on the other hand, a huge amount of data can be gathered that can profoundly contribute to classification.

Gu and Johnson (ibid.) designed the Vocabulary Learning Questionnaire (VLQ Version 3) which covers strategies for selective attention, self-initiation, guessing strategies, dictionary use strategies, strategies for recording vocabulary, memorisation by repetition and by coding, and activation strategies. The view that the application of various strategies can be effective is supported by their findings. They characterised five groups of learners who used different approaches to language learning. There are 'readers', 'coders', 'non-coders', 'active' and 'passive' strategy users. This distinction of learners suggests that strategy use should be supported individually, i.e. learners need diverse strategy training.

Stoffer (1995, cited in Singleton, 1999) designed a questionnaire called the Vocabulary Strategy Inventory or VOLSI that involves 53 individual strategies grouped into nine categories. These entail strategies involving authentic language use, creative activities, physical action, strategies used for self-motivation, to crate mental linkages, to overcome anxiety, to organise words, memory strategies and visual/auditory strategies. Using the questionnaire in a large-scale study, Stoffer (ibid.) found that the most frequently used strategy was the strategy of relating an L2 word with an L1 word that belongs to the group of strategies for creating mental linkages.

Kudo (1999) designed a questionnaire taking Schmitt's taxonomy as a point of departure with the aim of determining the frequency of individual strategy use and then construct a classification of vocabulary learning strategies. Kudo found that Japanese learners usually apply mechanical rote learning and rarely choose strategies demanding profound cognitive processing. As for classification, two groups of learning strategies, direct and indirect strategies, were found in the main study, which correspond to Oxford's classification of learning strategies (1990). Each of the two groups consists of two further subgroups. Direct strategies include cognitive and memory strategies and indirect strategies include metacognitive and social strategies. Contrary to the existing view among strategy researchers, Kudo found that strategy use is not necessarily culturally conditioned.

Nation (2001) proposed a taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies in which the types of strategies are related to various aspects of vocabulary learning. The elements of the planning stage are separated from the vocabulary sources and learning processes. In the planning phase, learners choose what to focus on and when to focus on it. Strategy types attached to this class of strategies are choosing a word, choosing the aspects of word knowledge, choosing strategies and planning repetition. When learners find

information about words, i.e. use sources, they exploit strategies like analysing the word, using it in context, consulting a reference source in L1 or L2, or using parallels in L1 and L2. Processing strategies establish knowledge by noticing, retrieving and generating.

Takač (2008) designed a Vocabulary Learning Strategy Questionnaire for Elementary Schools (VOLSQUES) and tested it among a large number of primary school learners in upper classes with the intention of classifying vocabulary learning strategies. Three different aspects of vocabulary learning were found and a new classification of vocabulary learning strategies was proposed: (1) strategies of formal vocabulary learning and practising, (2) self-initiated independent vocabulary learning, and (3) spontaneous (incidental) vocabulary learning (acquisition).

Aim

Although the main goal of this study was to assess vocabulary learning strategies used by would-be English teachers, the method applied made it possible to evaluate the suitability of a questionnaire, designed originally with the purpose of measuring general language learning strategies (Mónos, 2004), as a tool for assessing vocabulary learning strategies. The responses were assessed in the frame of general language learning taxonomy (Oxford, 1990), which provided background for classifying vocabulary learning strategies. Getting a picture of teacher trainees' vocabulary learning strategies was set as a target with the intention of focusing on particular groups and subgroups of strategies like affective and lexical processing strategies. Language learning anxiety as a subgroup of affective strategies was also examined separately in order to typify the origin of anxiety.

Data collection

Participants. Students who took part in the examination were from the Kecskemét College Teacher Training Faculty and study either as full-time (N=19) or correspondence students (N=23) specialising in English. (The term *correspondence students* is used instead of distant learners because, on the one hand, students who attend this kind of training go to the college regularly and attend lessons every week during semesters and, on the other hand, correspondence is a means of communication that happens usually electronically via sending emails and serves organisational purposes in the first place.) Their mother-tongue is Hungarian and they are learning English as a foreign language. The main difference between the two training forms is that full-time students attend the basic training and, parallel with it, undertake their course of specialisation in English. Most of the correspondence students, however, have obtained their basic degree as primary school teachers and are currently working as teachers. In both kinds of training, students obtain a supplementary certificate to their degree which entitles them to teach English in classes 1-6 at elementary schools. Both training forms provide students with approximately the same number of English lessons on average.

Questionnaire. The data on vocabulary learning strategies was gathered by means of an adapted and somewhat altered questionnaire devised originally by Mónos (2004) with the intention of measuring general learning strategies. The questionnaire consists of open-ended questions, which gives freedom to responses without using any pre-set schemas. It was used as a

point of departure in order to elicit answers based on free associations and to determine to what extent the typology of general language learning strategies can be exploited for vocabulary learning. To comply with these purposes, the questions were somewhat transformed to refer to vocabulary learning strategies (appendix C) and the responses were analysed and discussed by the six subcategories of language learning strategies (Oxford, 1990).

Results and discussion

Background information. It might be unusual to start with some background information instead of demonstrating the results first, but this knowledge is essential for construing the outcomes. In the following we will see how background factors (see additional information in appendix C) contribute to interpretation.

The average age of participants was 27. This data was of importance because the participants' responses were analysed in two groups and the results were compared and discussed in this set-up. The average age was 20 in the case of full-time students and 34 in the case of correspondence students. If average age is matched with the number of years spent on language learning (figure 1), it can be seen that they are inversely proportional, i.e. the younger the students are the longer they have been learning English. From this it follows that although correspondence students are older, they have not been learning English for a longer time. To understand learning strategies, this information might be crucial in order not to rush to the conclusion that older language learners have spent more time on language learning.
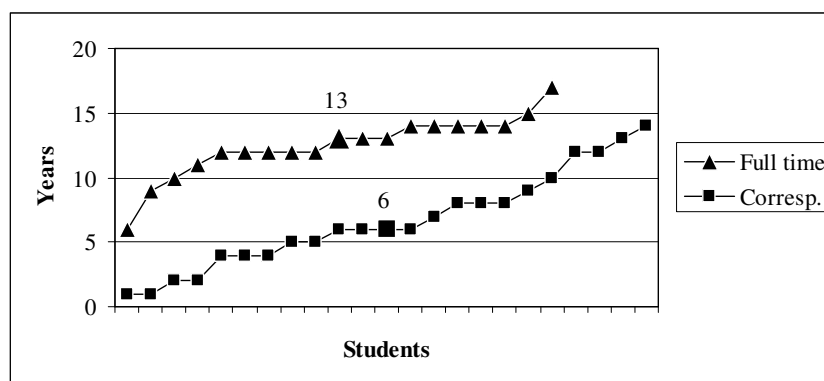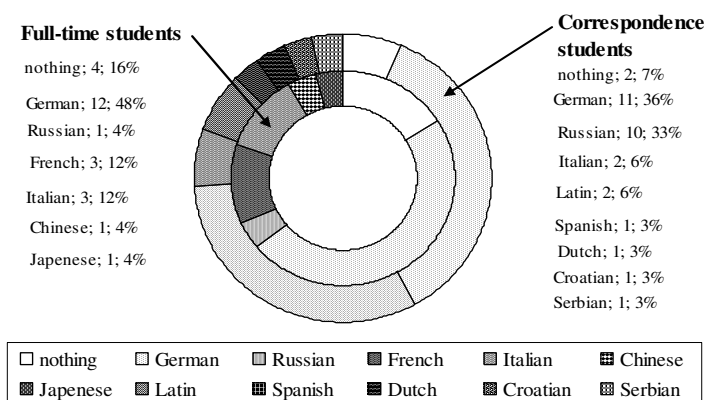
Figure 1. Years spent on language learning

Figure 1 illustrates the broad scale of years spent on language learning. There is a striking difference between the students of the two different training forms. Full-time students have been learning English as a foreign language on the average for 13 years, while correspondence students for 6 years. The deviation is 11 years in the case of full-time and 13 years for correspondence learners. This suggests that there is a vast difference in the number of years spent on language learning by the two groups of respondents. The results indicate that the full-time students who have learnt the language for the longest time started learning it on average at the age of 9, since their average age at the time of data collection was 20, i.e. they started learning the foreign language as a child. Correspondence students might have started language learning at the age of 21 on the average, i.e. in

adulthood. In addition, among correspondence students there are learners who started learning the language just one or two years before the training.

Another important piece of information has to do with the languages which the respondents have previously learnt or are currently learning beside English (figure 2), since language learning strategies and consequently vocabulary learning strategies can be transferred from one language to another. It can be supposed that the more languages someone learns the more strategies are at his/her disposal. The circle diagram shows the variety of languages students have learnt. Full-time students (inner circle) have learnt 6, correspondence students (outer circle) 8 different languages altogether. On the average, students in both kinds of training have learnt at least one additional (1.3) language beside English, so the conclusion might be drawn that they are experienced language learners who may have some language learning strategies at their disposal. Whether they are able to utilize this knowledge or not, may be the subject of another study.

Figure 2. Foreign languages learnt beside English

Full-time students

nothing; 4; 16%

German; 12; 48%

Russian; 1; 4%

French; 3; 12%

Italian; 3; 12%

Chinese; 1; 4%

Japenese; 1; 4%

Correspondence students

nothing; 2; 7%

German; 11; 36%

Russian; 10; 33%

Italian; 2; 6%

Latin; 2; 6%

Spanish; 1; 3%

Dutch; 1; 3%

Croatian; 1; 3%

Serbian; 1; 3%

| ☐ nothing | ☐ German | ☐ Russian | ■ French | ☐ Italian | ⊞ Chinese |
| ▦ Japenese | ☐ Latin | ⊞ Spanish | ■ Dutch | ▦ Croatian | ⊞ Serbian |

Vocabulary leaning strategies. The mean values of vocabulary learning strategies by the main categories of Oxfords' taxonomy are represented in table 1. Main categories include memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies, which can be further divided into subgroups and the subgroups into items (Oxford, 1990).

In the first two columns two different values are specified: frequency and range. Range is the sum of the values in each broad category without indicating the repeated occurrence of any item, i.e. if a particular strategy, an item, was mentioned more than once, it was counted as a single strategy. Frequency values, however, indicate that some of the items were mentioned more than once and their repeated occurrence appears in the total number of strategies.

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Table 1. Mean values of vocabulary learning strategies

Respondents	Frequency	Range	Memory	Cog-nitive	Compen-sation	Meta-cognitive	Affective	Social
Full-time students	11.6	10.2	1.4	2.2	2.9	2.4	0.3	1
Corres-pondence students	12.6	11	1.7	2.2	3.2	2.7	0.3	0.9
MEAN	12.1	10.7	1.6	2.2	3.1	2.5	0.3	1

The mean values (table 1) are very close in both training forms. However, correspondence students score a bit higher in the use of memory, compensation and metacognitive strategy use. As for cognitive and affective strategies, the means are the same but correspondence students' use social strategy a bit fewer times. Figure 3 shows the percentage distribution of main strategies. Though the values are quite low, it must be emphasized that there were responses which bear relation to each main category of the language learning taxonomy. The use of compensation (29%) and metacognitive (27%) strategies were quite predominant followed by cognitive (19%), memory (14%), social (9%) and affective (2%) strategies.

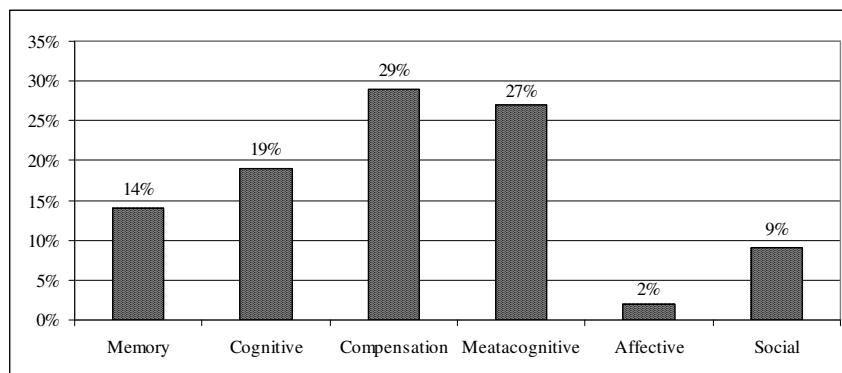*Figure 3. The use of vocabulary learning strategies (%)*

Figure 4 illustrates the use of vocabulary learning strategies by full-time and correspondence students. Although overall strategy use is 17% or a little lower in the case of each broad category, which indicates the rare use of strategies, it can be seen that correspondence students scored higher in all strategy groups, i.e. they use vocabulary learning strategies more often than full-time students. The difference is the biggest in the case of the most frequent strategies like compensation (5%) and metacognitive (7%) strategies. This result implies that learners who started learning English in adulthood apply more strategies in language learning, though their level of proficiency is not as high as those of their younger colleagues.

Figure 4. Use of vocabulary learning strategies by training forms
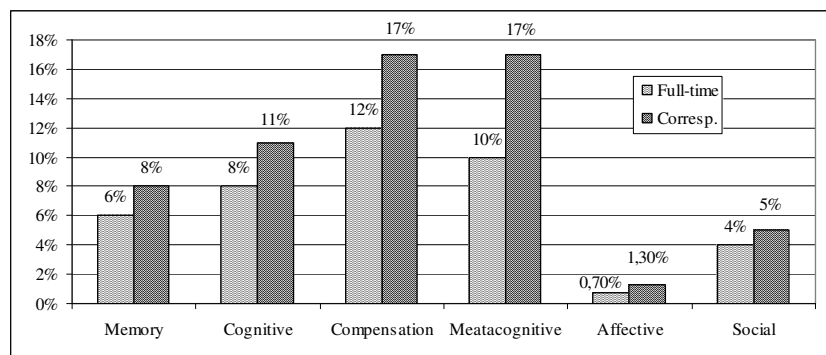
Taking age and the length of language learning into consideration, one can conclude that age, in the case of strategy application, overrules the number of years spent on language learning. Notwithstanding that correspondence students have been learning English for a noticeably shorter time (less than half the time of full-time students on average), they use vocabulary learning strategies more often than full-time students who are much younger. In the case of correspondence students in this study, the frequency of vocabulary learning strategy application tends to depend on age rather than the time spent on language learning. This fact is worth rethinking in view of language proficiency. If it is assumed that the more time a person spends on language learning the higher the level of language knowledge obtained, and the higher the language knowledge the more strategies will be utilized by the person, then we can conclude that respondents' vocabulary learning strategy use in this study undermines this regularity. However, the time spent on language learning and its intensity do not go hand in hand all the time, i.e. the level of knowledge and how intensive a training was can be proportional. Adult learners might have learnt English more intensely than younger learners who learnt the language mainly in the context of formal education. Another explanation could be that adults frequently apply strategies obtained from the learning of other foreign languages. Correspondence learners have learnt other languages beside English (figure 2), and the knowledge and awareness of strategy use might have been carried over from another language.

Even though respondents adopted many elements of the classification of language learning strategies, the use of vocabulary learning strategies does not completely employ the taxonomy of language learning strategies. In appendix B those items of Oxford's (1990) taxonomy which were chosen by would-be English teacher respondents as vocabulary learning strategies are listed. Out of the 62 items, 37 (59.7%) were selected by the participants. The results of this study prove that the classification of general language learning strategies might provide a wide and satisfactory frame for investigating vocabulary learning strategies. However, only some of the strategies were used frequently, while others were rarely applied at all.

The percentage distribution of the most frequent vocabulary learning strategy items is represented by figure 5. The most frequently mentioned strategies – indicating the category, subcategory and the item – were the following five:

1. Compensation B8 (11.8%) – Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing/Using a circumlocution or a synonym
2. Metacognitive B6 (10.7%) – Arranging and planning your learning/Seeking practice opportunities
3. Compensation B2 (7.8%) – Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing/Getting help
4. Social B2 (5.9%) – Cooperating with others/Cooperating with proficient users of the new language
5. Metacognitive B1 (5.9%) – Arranging and planning your learning/Finding out about language learning

Figure 5. Percentage distribution of the most frequent VLS items
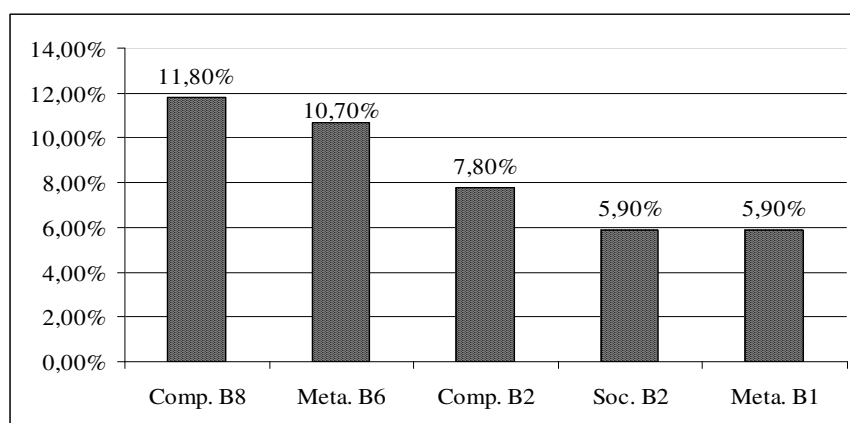
Although social strategies scored very low in general, one of the most frequently applied strategy items (social B2 – cooperating with proficient users of the new language) appears among the most frequently used strategies. This means that language learners rely on either their teachers, parents or other people who knows the language better. As for social strategy use, it will be discussed in the frame of how students learn strategies.

Lexical processing strategies. Even though there is a wide range of lexical processing strategies from surface to deep strategies, the most commonly applied ones are using a dictionary, inferring the meaning of a word or ignoring a language item (Fraser, 1996; Hardi, 2010). Lexical processing strategies can be applied in a variety of activities such as reading or listening. Language learning activities like these help incidental vocabulary learning because the emphasis is on understanding the meaning globally and so vocabulary learning becomes the by-product of language learning. Incidental vocabulary learning is an important issue because most of the words are acquired this way in L1 as well as L2. Although some lexical processing strategies facilitate incidental vocabulary learning, not all strategies result in language acquisition. Ignorance does not lead to acquisition, but inference is one of the most efficient lexical processing strategies, especially when combined with dictionary use, which fortifies the meaning.

Since compensation strategies proved to be the most commonly used strategies of all in this study, it seemed to be useful to make a comparison

between compensation strategies and lexical processing strategies. Compensation strategies can be interpreted as strategies learners use when they encounter difficulties, i.e. strategies learners use when they come across an unknown word or when they have to use a word that they do not know in the foreign language. Compensation strategies of guessing intelligently/using linguistic clues (A1) and of overcoming limitations in speaking and writing/ adjusting or approximating the message (B6) and using a circumlocution or synonym (B8), correspond to inferring lexical meaning. Compensation strategies of getting help (B2) may refer to dictionary use and avoiding communication partially or totally (B4) equates to ignorance. Question 3 "What do you do when there are unknown word/words in a reading?" (appendix C) elicited strategy use that made the analysis of responses possible from this point of view.

Figure 6 shows the division and combination of lexical processing strategies (Fraser, 1996) in the order of occurrence. In accordance with the students' responses, inference followed by dictionary use was the most commonly applied strategy. This is an important finding because it shows that students use the most efficient strategy and they follow the most efficient order of strategy use (Fraser, 1996), which can result in vocabulary acquisition. On the other hand, the results indicate that they rarely apply ignorance, the strategy of overlooking unknown items, as a language processing strategy.

Figure 6. Language processing strategies
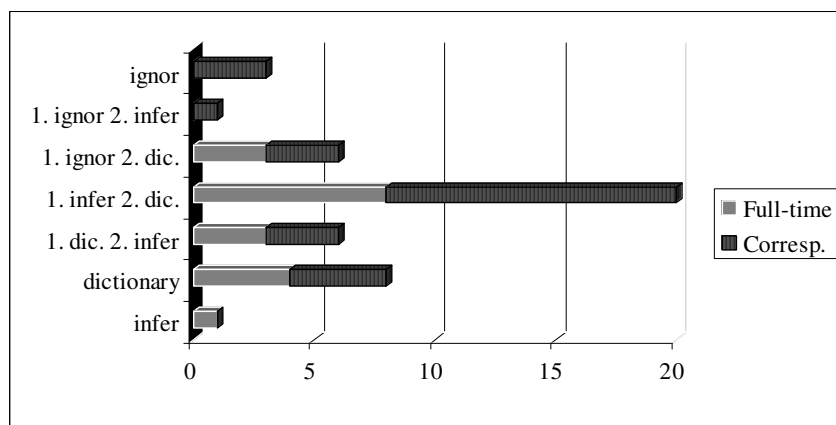
Language learning anxiety. Another important question when we speak about language learning strategies is the way learners overcome language learning anxiety. The strategies that treat anxiety are part of affective strategies. Question 6 "Do you feel nervous when you have to start speaking? If yes, please write down what makes you nervous and how do you ease your anxiety?" was designed to elicit strategies students use for lowering their anxiety.

Figure 7. Affective strategy use/Anxiety
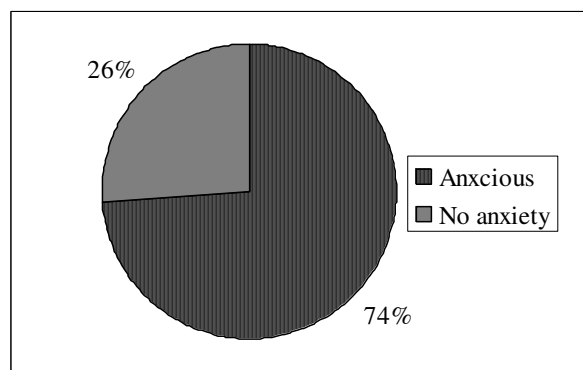
Although students feel nervous (figure 7), strategies used for overcoming anxiety were not forthcoming. The explanation for this phenomena can be either ignorance of this part of the question or respondents felt it more important to identify anxiety i.e. to speak about what they are afraid of instead of the ways to treat it. It is also possible that they do not use strategies conscientiously to reduce their anxiety and, more importantly, the answers might be hidden in the typology of anxiety, which will be discussed later.

Figure 8 illustrates the division of anxiety between full-time and correspondence students. Although there are some students who claim they never feel anxious when they start speaking, most of them report anxiety in both training forms. However, correspondence students scored much higher, with the exception of some who did not feel any anxiety.
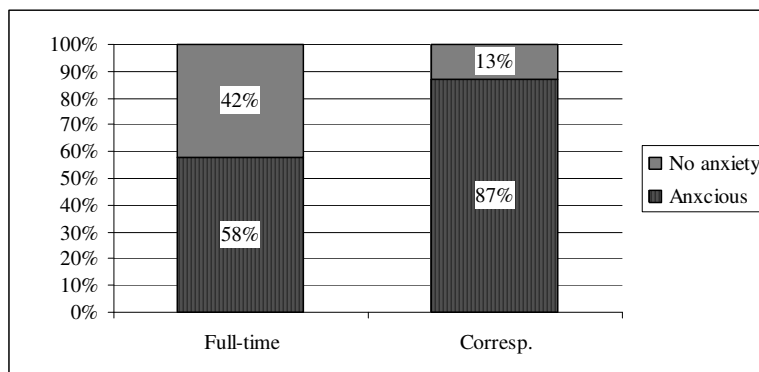
Figure 8. Division of anxiety

Figure 9 helps to interpret the results by identifying the types of anxiety. Although part of question 6 referring to strategies used for easing anxiety was not answered, there were plenty of responses to the types of anxiety, which made the classification of the main forms of anxiety possible. It is also probable, as is suggested here, that the types of anxiety can be understood as 'cures' for anxiety, i.e. if the origin of anxiety is eliminated then the anxiety ceases. Accordingly, most of the respondents (62%) are afraid of making mistakes in grammar, pronunciation or vocabulary. Fear deriving from the lack of practice and from human factors, i.e. anxiety when speaking with proficient users of the language (e.g. teachers or native speakers), were referred to in an equal proportion (17.25%). Some students

mentioned situational fear, i.e. feeling anxious in an exam situation. If all these types of anxiety are abolished, that is e.g. learners get more practice or can avoid exam situations, then language learning anxiety can disappear. However, it is a far more complex question since different learners have different personal characteristics and therefore can experience anxiety on different scales.

Figure 9. Types of anxiety experienced
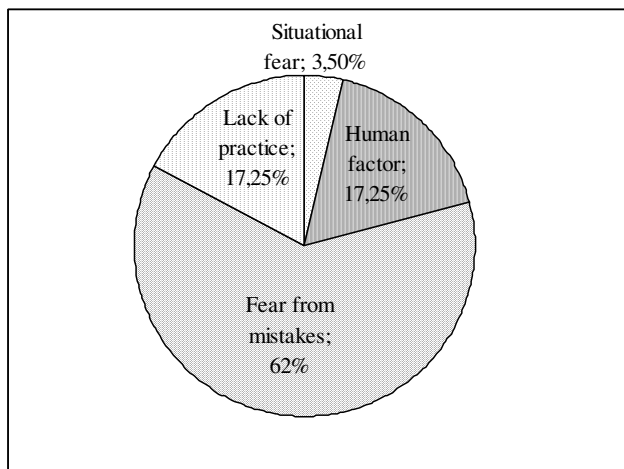
Sources of vocabulary learning strategies. Question 8 "Where did you learn the methods of learning foreign words?" elicited either social or metacognitive strategy use. Figure 10 illustrates from where students learnt vocabulary learning strategies. Although most of the responses to this question can be categorized as social strategies by Oxford's classification, some of the answers can also be defined as subcategories of metacognitive strategies because they denote how students learn to acquire vocabulary.

Figure 10. Learning VLS
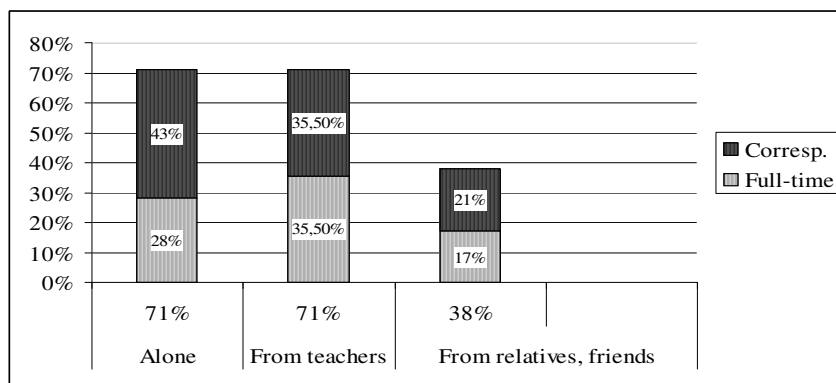
The number of students who developed vocabulary learning strategies for themselves is the same as those who learnt them from their teachers (school or private teachers). Strategies are also learnt from relatives and friends. Learning from teachers and acquaintances can be interpreted as social strategies, i.e. asking another person for information. Nevertheless, 71% of the students reported learning vocabulary learning strategies on their own.

Learning alone is a metacognitive strategy, since it refers to getting the knowledge about how to learn the language individually. Considering the fact that learners learn strategies alone in a number of cases, is a reflection of low level strategy use, and we can conclude that the lack of strategy instruction can be one of the reasons for insufficient strategy application. The fact that more correspondence (43%) than full-time (28%) students reported acquiring learning strategies for themselves could be attributed to the fact that they started learning English in adulthood, i.e. not as a part of formal education. This suggests that in spite of its limitations, formal education gives better opportunity for vocabulary strategy training than other forms of learning. On the other hand, if a student has studied another foreign language beside English, this seems to make strategy transfer from one language to another possible.

Vocabulary learning strategy training

There is an agreement among theoreticians that vocabulary learning strategies should be taught. Actually, strategy training is one of the basic approaches to vocabulary teaching (Coady, 2000). Some of the researchers have even developed approaches to teach strategies. However, learners seem to use vocabulary learning strategies quite rarely and they hardly ever use complex strategies spontaneously; therefore, teaching strategies need to be planned thoroughly. Unfortunately, the findings of this and other studies (see e.g. Mónos, 2004) verify the quite random nature of strategy use.

The low strategy use of would-be primary English teachers' is quite miserable, not only because they should acquire the language at a high level, but because they will be responsible for instructing their pupils on strategy use. How will it be possible if they themselves do not use sufficient or adequate strategies? It is true that this research asked learners about strategies they use and did not inquire about strategies they know. However, it can be assumed that teachers favour teaching language either in the way they have learnt it or, most preferably, based on the language teaching methodology they acquired during teacher training. At the same time, if instruction in this field is insufficient, either due to the lack of time or attention, good practice cannot be attained.

The fact that English-specialized teacher trainees will teach in elementary schools, makes the issue far more serious, since pupils at this stage of the education system should learn the fundamentals of a foreign language. Because the nature of language learning is different from learning other school subjects, it is also imperative to learn how to learn a language. If this knowledge is missing or incomprehensive, pupils may find themselves in difficulties in the course of language learning. However, if language learners are provided with the possibility to acquire this kind of language awareness at the beginning of language learning, it could help them throughout their studies.

Conclusion

The results indicate that vocabulary learning strategy use by English-specialised teacher-trainees who took part in this study is lower than would be desirable, especially if we take into consideration that they will be qualified as language teachers of elementary education. They will be responsible for establishing young learners' strategy use that accompanies them through language learning. If the fact that instruction is needed on

strategy use will be taken for granted, then a number of problems should be solved in the education of teacher trainees: on the one hand, instructors of these teacher trainees should train their students on vocabulary learning strategies and, on the other hand, would-be teachers should be taught how to teach these strategies. Moreover, not only the overall use of strategies must be facilitated, but also the use of particular ones, like social strategies which ensure the collaboration among language learners and the cooperation between proficient users of the language and language learners. Affective strategy use is another important issue, since participants in this research seem not to be aware of strategies that can lessen language learning anxiety. The types of anxiety should be identified and attention must be paid to help learners overcome their emotional and language learning difficulties.

Vocabulary learning strategy use in this study was analysed in the frame of general language learning strategies, i.e. the responses were fitted into Oxford's (1990) classification, which was utilized by the respondents in almost 60%. This result suggests that 60% of the language learning strategies can also be applied as vocabulary learning strategies.

The strength and also the limitations of this study come from the method, i.e. using an open-ended questionnaire for data collection. In one respect it made eliciting free responses possible but, at the same time, it did not contain thought-provoking information that would have served as a key for rethinking responses. Applying a more complex research method would have resulted in more sophisticated results. However, the formulation of the questions made further investigation possible, i.e. to analyse vocabulary learning strategies in a different frame, namely taking lexical processing strategies out of vocabulary learning strategies or identifying the basic types of anxiety and the source of learning strategies.

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Appendix
A

Summary of the findings yielded by the strategy questionnaire								
Full-time students								
Respondent	Frequency	Range	Memory	Cognitive	Compen-sation	Meta-cognitive	Affective	Social
STUDENT1	8	6	1	1	2	2	0	0
2	7	7	1	1	2	3	0	0
3	13	12	1	3	3	3	1	1
4	11	10	1	2	3	2	0	2
5	10	9	1	2	2	3	0	1
6	12	11	3	2	3	2	0	1
7	15	15	2	4	3	5	0	1
8	8	8	0	1	4	0	1	2
9	12	10	2	3	3	2	0	0
10	10	9	1	1	3	3	0	1
11	13	12	1	4	3	2	1	1
12	13	10	1	2	4	2	0	1
13	15	11	2	3	3	2	0	1
14	12	9	1	1	3	3	0	1
15	11	10	1	4	2	1	1	1
16	13	12	1	2	3	3	1	2
17	13	11	2	2	3	4	0	0
18	13	12	2	2	4	1	1	2
19	11	11	3	1	3	3	0	1
MEAN	11.6	10.2	1.4	2.2	2.9	2.4	0.3	1
Correspondence students								
STUDENT1	15	13	2	3	4	3	0	1
2	13	11	2	1	3	3	0	2
3	16	12	3	2	4	3	0	0
4	17	13	3	3	2	4	0	1
5	8	8	1	2	3	2	0	0
6	5	5	0	2	2	1	0	0
7	9	8	2	1	4	1	0	0
8	10	9	1	1	5	2	0	0
9	14	13	2	3	4	3	1	0
10	11	10	2	2	3	1	0	2
11	12	11	2	2	2	3	0	2
12	15	13	2	4	3	2	1	1
13	12	11	2	2	3	3	0	1
14	13	12	1	3	4	2	1	1
15	16	13	2	3	4	2	0	2
16	14	13	1	2	3	4	1	2
17	12	11	2	1	4	3	1	0
18	12	12	2	2	3	3	0	2
19	10	10	1	2	3	4	0	0
20	16	12	1	2	4	3	0	2
21	14	13	2	2	3	3	1	2
22	13	10	3	2	2	3	0	0
23	13	12	1	3	3	3	1	1
MEAN	12.6	11	1.7	2.2	3.2	2.7	0.3	0.9
TOTAL MEAN	12.1	10.7	1.6	2.2	3.1	2.5	0.3	1

B

Items from Oxford's taxonomy of learners strategies indicated by respondents as
VLS
(The table is not complete because it overleaps the main groups and/or items that
were neglected as vocabulary learning strategies. The original enumeration and
numbering are followed, which provides opportunity for estimating the missing
items. For the complete taxonomy see Oxford, 1985)

Memory	A. Creating mental linkages	1. Grouping
		2. Associating/elaborating
		3. Placing new words into a context
	B. Applying images and sounds	1. Using imagery
		2. Semantic mapping
		4. Repeating sounds in memory
	C. Reviewing well	1. Structured reviewing
	D. Employing action	1. Using physical response or sensation
		2. Using mechanical techniques
Cognitive	A. Practicing	1. Repeating
		2. Formally practicing with sounds and with writing systems
		3. Recognising and using formulas and patterns
		4. Recombining
		5. Practicing naturalistically
	C. Analysing and reasoning	4. Translating
		5. Transferring
	D. Creating structure for input and output	1. Taking notes
Compensation	A. Guessing intelligently	1. Using linguistic clues
	B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing	1. Switching to the mother tongue
		2. Getting help
		3. Using mime and gesture
		4. Avoiding communication partially or totally
		6. Adjusting or approximating the message
		8. Using a circumlocution or synonym
Metacognitive	A. Centering your learning	1. Overviewing and linking
		2. Paying attention
	B. Arranging and planning your learning	1. Finding out about language learning
		2. Organizing
		3. Setting goals and objectives
		5. Planning for a language task
		6. Seeking practice opportunities
	C. Evaluating your learning	1. Self-monitoring
Affective	B. Encouraging yourself	1. Making positive statements
		2. Taking risks wisely
	C. Taking your emotional temperature	4. Discussing your feelings with someone else
Social	B. Cooperating with others	1. Cooperating with peers
		2. Cooperating with proficient users of the new language

C

The strategy questionnaire, indicating main strategy types, based on Oxford's taxonomy of learner strategies (Oxford, 1985):

1. How do you learn new words? – cognitive
2. You must have some method(s) for memorising words and for remembering them for a long time. Please, write them down. – memory
3. What do you do when there are unknown word/words in a reading? – compensation
4. What do you do when you speak or converse in English and cannot remember a word or a phrase that you need? – compensation
5. Do you feel nervous when you have to start speaking? If yes, please write down what makes you nervous and how do you ease your anxiety? – affective
6. You must have a trick or a way that you like and that works well when you learn new words. Please write them down in brief. – metacognitive
7. Do you have plans for improving your knowledge of vocabulary? – metacognitive
8. Where did you learn the method(s) of learning foreign words? – metacognitive/social

Additional information:

1. How long have you been learning English?
2. Have you learnt any other foreign languages besides English? If yes, please, specify.
3. How old are you?