



**ENGLISH VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES
EMPLOYED BY VOCATIONAL EDUCATION
STUDENTS IN SURIN PROVINCE**

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**A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Master of Arts Program in English**

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กลวิธีการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนอาชีวศึกษา
ในจังหวัดสุรินทร์

วิทยานิพนธ์

ของ

พัชรกิติ สุทธิประภา

เสนอต่อมหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏบุรีรัมย์ เพื่อเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษา

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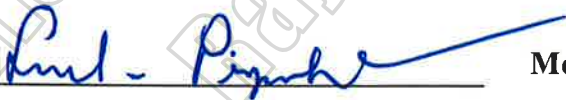
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ชื่อเรื่อง	กลวิธีการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนอาชีวศึกษา ในจังหวัดสุรินทร์		
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บทคัดย่อ

การวิจัยนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาและเปรียบเทียบกลวิธีการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนระดับอาชีวศึกษาในจังหวัดสุรินทร์ โดยจำแนกตามเพศและสาขาวิชาที่ศึกษา กลุ่มตัวอย่างในการศึกษา ได้แก่ นักเรียนในสถาบันอาชีวศึกษาในจังหวัดสุรินทร์ จำนวน 375 คน ที่ศึกษาในภาคการศึกษาที่ 1 ปีการศึกษา 2562 โดยใช้เกณฑ์การคัดเลือกอ้างอิงจากตารางของเครจซ์และมอร์แกน และใช้วิธีสุ่มตัวอย่างแบบแบ่งชั้น และสุ่มตัวอย่างอย่างง่าย ตามลำดับ เครื่องมือที่ใช้ในการวิจัยเป็นแบบสอบถามที่มีค่าความเชื่อมั่นเท่ากับ 0.947 สถิติที่ใช้ในการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูล ได้แก่ ค่าเฉลี่ย ส่วนเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐาน และการทดสอบค่าทีที่เป็นอิสระต่อกัน ผลการวิจัย พบว่า

1. กลวิธีการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนอาชีวศึกษาในจังหวัดสุรินทร์โดยภาพรวมอยู่ในระดับปานกลาง เมื่อพิจารณาแต่ละกลวิธีที่ใช้ พบว่า มีการใช้กลวิธีด้านความรู้ความเข้าใจในระดับต่ำ ส่วนกลวิธีที่ด้านอื่น ๆ อยู่ในระดับปานกลาง

2. กลวิธีการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนอาชีวศึกษาในจังหวัดสุรินทร์จำแนกตามเพศ โดยในภาพรวมมีความแตกต่างกันอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติที่ระดับ 0.01 เมื่อพิจารณาแต่ละกลวิธี พบว่ากลวิธีด้านความรู้ความเข้าใจมีความแตกต่างกันอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติที่ระดับ 0.01 กลวิธีด้านความจำ กลวิธีด้านอภิปัญญาและกลวิธีการตัดสินใจอยู่ในระดับ 0.05 ส่วนกลวิธีด้านสังคมไม่มีความแตกต่างกัน

3. กลวิธีการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนอาชีวศึกษาในจังหวัดสุรินทร์จำแนกตามสาขาวิชาที่ศึกษา ทั้งโดยภาพรวมและแต่ละกลวิธีมีความแตกต่างกันอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติที่ระดับ 0.01

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ABSTRACT

The purposes of this research were to study and compare English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province, classified by their genders and fields of study. The samples were 375 students of vocational education colleges in Surin Province in the first semester of academic year 2019. They were selected by using the table of Krejcie and Morgan, stratified random sampling, and simple random sampling, respectively. The research instrument was a questionnaire with its reliability of 0.947. The statistics used to analyze the data were mean, standard deviation and independent samples t-test. The findings were as follows:

1. The English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province in overall was at a moderate level. When considering each strategy used, it was found that the cognitive strategy was reported at the low level while the rest strategies were at the moderate level.
2. The English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by genders in overall showed statistically significant

difference at 0.01 level. When considering each strategy, the cognitive strategy showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level. Besides, the memory strategy, meta-cognitive strategy and determination strategy were at 0.05 level while the social strategy was not different.

3. The English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students classified by fields of study both in overall and each strategy showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level.

มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏสุราษฎร์ธานี
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

The English Language Centre (2018) states that English is the language of science, of aviation, computers, diplomacy, and tourism. Knowing English increases your chances of getting a good job in a multinational company within your home country or for finding work abroad. Statistically, English may not be the most spoken language in the world, but it is the official language of 53 countries. According to Crystal (2003), English language which is spoken by approximately 1,500 million speakers, is the most widely used language at present. English has been taught worldwide to learners around the world. This is relevant to the lessons of Wiriyachitra (2002), Foley (2007), and Khamkhien (2010) which indicate that English is considered to be an international communicative language. Even though in many countries English is not used in daily communication, learners have to learn it (Grubbs, Chaengploy & Worawong. 2009). Therefore, English is used in teaching and learning globally.

Vocabulary means words and to focus on learning vocabulary, learners' need and vocabulary usefulness are required and to measure the usefulness of items, frequency has been focused. To count the word frequency, it is probably to come up with lists of the words that benefit for learners in the fundamental stage of learning language (Schmitt. 2010). Therefore, the basically stage of language leaning, wordlist

will be chosen. In specialized text, technical word is an essential role to make up 20-30 percent of running word. Technical word includes words which are related to the subject areas (Chung & Nation. 2003; cited in Schmitt. 2010). The vocabulary of technical English, for example, includes words like *striking tool*, *torsion tool*, *hacksaw*, *spanner*, *wrench* and *divider*. These words can cause the problems for learners to memorize the unfamiliar words that they need to be treated frequently which mean that learners need to pay attention and find the chances to use these necessary words. Vocabulary is central to English language teaching because without sufficient vocabulary students cannot understand others or express their own ideas. Wilkins (1972:112) mentions that “while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed”. This point reflects the experience with different languages; even without grammar, with some useful words and expressions, speakers can often manage to communicate. Lewis (1993: 89) goes further to argue that “lexis is the core or heart of language”. Particularly as students develop greater fluency and expression in English; it is significant for them to acquire more productive vocabulary knowledge and to develop their own personal vocabulary learning strategies.

The use of vocabulary learning strategies is a crucial factor that affects the success of foreign vocabulary acquisition. Nation (2003: 159) advises the teacher to spend time on strategies that the learners can use to deal with words rather than spending time on individual words if he or she wants to help learners cope with vocabulary, which is also the starting point of this case study. Schmitt (1997) studies a representative sample of 600 Japanese students to find answers to which strategies the students use and which they consider helpful even if they do not use them. Using a

bilingual dictionary strategy is found to be the first both in the category of the strategies exploited most frequently and that of the most helpful strategies. In addition, five other strategies, namely written repetition, verbal repetition, speaking a new word aloud, studying a word's spelling and taking notes in class, are among the most often used and most helpful strategies. Research is badly needed on the strategies and processes of vocabulary development that very possibly make the good learners good and the poor learners poor.

Many researchers tend to make lists of strategies and other features presumed to be essential for all "good L2 learners". Rubin (1975) suggests seven strategies adopted by "good L2 learners", and Stern (1975) discusses the strategies of good language learning and names ten features that mark the good language learner, which will be discussed in detail in later chapters. However, Oxford (1992:126) has a different opinion. She claims that many of the poor L2 learners are indeed aware of the strategies they use, can clearly describe them, and employ just as many strategies as good L2 learners. However, poor learners apply these strategies in a random, even desperate manner, without careful organization and without assigning specific strategies to specific tasks.

Students who lack of vocabulary will face some problems in other language skills (listening, speaking, writing and reading). According to Ahmed (2012), word power gives many influences in speaking skill, it also helps to support both students acquisition of knowledge and students productive skills, and also help students to improve their ability not only speaking but also listening, writing and reading. Learning vocabulary does not only learn the meaning of each word, but sometimes there are some words which have one meaning and also one word who has several

meaning based on the context, and some students do not know about that, most of them still think that vocabulary is such a word list (every word only has one meaning). The right strategy is necessary to know in order to help students to acquire new vocabulary especially in vocational high school (VHS).

The reason why the researcher is interested in conducting the study related to how students learn English vocabulary in their class, problems and the strategies in learning vocabulary they employed, because vocabulary is important part that should be mastered by the students in order to acquire the target language. Teachers as the educators take important roles to help their students to find the right strategy, so their students could acquire vocabulary and mastering the target language. Importantly, there is no study conducting to compare the fields of study in terms of technical and business; therefore, this study will be a pioneer research in the vocational educational colleges in Thailand. The results of this study will help teachers to apply the appropriate strategies in their classes and will be a guideline in English learning management system for vocational education students in Surin Province.

1.2 Research Objectives

1.2.1 To study English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province

1.2.2 To compare vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province, classified by their genders and fields of study

1.3 Research Questions

1.3.1 What are English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province?

1.3.2 Are there any differences of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by genders and fields of study? If so, how?

1.4 Significance of the Study

1.4.1 The results of this study will be beneficial to the students both in vocational education and general education.

1.4.2 This study could help other vocational high school teachers use the findings in teaching vocabulary.

1.4.3 The findings will help teachers and the relevant persons who take care of the curriculum apply for their students and develop their course or learning management system in the future.

1.5 Scope and Limitations of the Study

1.5.1 The population of this study consist of 11,384 vocational education students who enroll in Basic English course in the first semester of academic year 2019 from 7 institutes in Surin Province, namely 1) Surin Technical College, 2) Surin Vocational College, 3) Surin Polytechnic College, 4) Thatum Industrial and Community Education College, 5) Sikhorphum Industrial and Community Education College, 6) Prasat Industrial and Community Education College, 7) Sangkla Industrial

and Community Education College, and 8) Rattanaaburi Technology and Management College.

1.5.2 The samples of this study are 375 students who enroll in Basic English course in the first semester of academic year 2019 from 8 institutes in Surin Province. They are selected by using the table of Krejcie and Morgan (1978), stratified random sampling and simple random sampling, respectively.

1.5.3 In this study, the main instrument as the questionnaire is adapted from Schmitt (1997), Siriwan (2007) and Nirattisai (2014) for investigating the vocabulary learning strategies of the vocational education students in Surin Province.

1.6 Definition of Key Terms

1.6.1 **Vocabulary** refers to the entire stocks of words belonging to someone knowledge, the lexicon of the language is also vocabularies which are included words and expression. (Graves; cited in Mukoroli. 2010).

1.6.2 **Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLSs)** are defined as a set of actions, behaviors or techniques that learners use to help them find out the meaning of new or unknown words, to retain those words, and to use them in oral or written communication (Cameron. 2001; Intaraprasert. 2004; O'Malley & Chamot. 1990; Schmitt. 1997; Takač. 2008). In this study, vocabulary learning strategies are divided into 5 types: 1) memory strategies, 2) cognitive strategies, 3) metacognitive strategies, 4) determination strategies, and 5) social strategies,.

1.6.3 **Vocational Educational Students** refers to 11,384 vocational education students who enroll in Basic English course in the first semester of academic year

2019 from 8 institutes in Surin Province, They are classified into two main types according to their fields of study: Technical and Business.

1.6.3.1 Technical fields include the vocational education students who study in automotive, mechanics, electric power, survey, civil, electronics, welders, construction, etc.

1.6.3.2 Business fields include the vocational education students who study in accounting, marketing, business computer, secretarial, hotel, tourism, etc.

1.6.4 **Vocational Education Colleges** refer to 1) Surin Technical College, 2) Surin Vocational College, 3) Surin Polytechnic College, 4) Thatum Industrial and Community Education College, 5) Sikhoraphum Industrial and Community Education College, 6) Prasat Industrial and Community Education College, 7) Sangkha Industrial and Community Education College, and 8) Rattanaburi Technology and Management College.

1.7 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter presents background information, research objectives, research questions, significance of the study, scope of the study, scope and limitations of the study, and definition of key terms which purposes to find the frequency words from the course. The next chapter is devoted to the review of the related literature.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this section is to provide background information for this study. This comprises theories and researches relating to vocabulary, vocabulary learning, and vocabulary learning strategies, factors influencing vocabulary learning, wordlist, and previous studies.

2.1 Theories of Learning

There are many different theories of how people learn. What follows is a variety of them, and it is useful to consider their application to how the students learn and also how the teacher teaches in educational programs. Burns (1995: 99) conceives of learning as a relatively permanent change in behavior with behavior including both observable activity and internal processes such as thinking, attitudes and emotions. It is clear that Burns includes motivation in this definition of learning. Burns considers that learning might not manifest itself in observable behavior until sometime after the educational program has taken place.

2.1.1 The Generative Learning Theory

Wittrock (1992) states that the Generative Learning Theory encourages learners to become fully immersed in learning, so that they can develop new strategies on how to solve problems or scenarios. It also allows instructors to not have to fill in the “gaps” when instructing learners. For example, if a lesson involves a topic that is

well known to the learners, the instructor can simply provide them with new information, rather than just a background of the content. This saves time and makes the learning process more effective, especially in larger classes.

The Generative Learning Theory involves four key concepts that instructional designers can involve (all four of them or just one) depending on the needs of the learner and the learning materials involved.

2.1.1.1 **Recall** occurs when the learner accesses information stored in his long term memory. The primary goal is to encourage learners to learn a content that is based upon facts by using information they have already acquired. Examples of recall techniques might be having the learner repeat information or reviewing it until the concept is fully grasped.

2.1.1.2 **Integration** involves the learner integrating new information with knowledge already collected and stored. The aim is to alter this information into a form, which the learner can more easily remember and access later on. Examples of an integration activity might be having the learner paraphrase the content or creating analogies to explain a concept.

2.1.1.3 **Organization** involves learners linking knowledge they've already collected to new concepts in an effective way. Examples of organization strategies may include creating lists or analyzing the main points of a specific concept.

2.1.1.4 **Elaboration** involves the encouragement of the learner to connect and add new concepts to information that they've already collected, by analyzing the ideas. Examples of elaboration techniques include creative writing, expanding upon a sentence or thought, and visual representations of mental images.

2.1.2 The Inter Language Learning Theory

Interlanguage is the type of language (or linguistic system) used by second- and foreign-language learners who are in the process of learning a target language. Interlanguage pragmatics is the study of the ways in which non-native speakers acquire, comprehend, and use linguistic patterns (or speech acts) in a second language. Interlanguage theory is generally credited to Larry Selinker, an American professor of applied linguistics, whose article "Interlanguage" appeared in the January 1972 issue of the journal *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*. Interlanguage reflects the learner's evolving system of rules, and results from a variety of processes, including the influence of the first language (transfer), contrastive interference from the target language, and the overgeneralization of newly encountered rules. (Crystal. 1997)

The process of learning a second language (L2) is characteristically non-linear and fragmentary, marked by a mixed landscape of rapid progression in certain areas but slow movement, incubation or even permanent stagnation in others. Such a process results in a linguistic system known as interlanguage (Selinker. 1972), which, to varying degrees, approximates that of the target language (TL). In the earliest conception (Corder. 1967; Nemser. 1971; Selinker. 1972), interlanguage is metaphorically a halfway house between the first language (L1) and the TL, hence, inter. The L1 is purportedly the source language that provides the initial building materials to be gradually blended with materials taken from the TL, resulting in new forms that are neither in the L1, nor in the TL. This conception, though lacking in sophistication in the view of many contemporary L2 researchers, identifies a defining characteristic of L2 learning, initially known as fossilization (Selinker. 1972) and later

on broadly referred to as incompleteness (Schachter. 1988), relative to the ideal version of a monolingual native speaker.

It has been claimed that the notion of fossilization is what spurs the field of second language acquisition (SLA) into existence (Han & Selinker. 2005; Long. 2003). Thus, a fundamental concern in L2 research has been that learners typically stop short of target-like attainment, i.e., the monolingual native speaker's competence, in some or all linguistic domains, even in environments where input seems abundant, motivation appears strong, and opportunity for communicative practice is plentiful (Han. 2009).

A number of researchers pointed out quite early on the need to consider interlanguage grammars in their own right with respect to principles and parameters of universal grammar, arguing that one should not compare L2 learners to native speakers of the L2 but instead consider whether interlanguage grammars are natural language systems (e.g. duPlessis et al. 1987; Finer & Broselow. 1986; Liceras & Zobl. 1993; Martohardjono & Gair. 1993; Schwartz. 1994; White. 1992). These scholars have shown that L2 learners may arrive at representations which indeed account for the L2 input, though not in the same way as the grammar of a native speaker. The issue, then, is whether the interlanguage representation is a possible grammar, not whether it is identical to the L2 grammar (White. 2003).

The significance of interlanguage theory lies in the fact that it is the first attempt to take into account the possibility of learner conscious attempts to control their learning. It was this view that initiated an expansion of research into psychological processes in interlanguage development whose aim was to determine what learners do in order to help facilitate their own learning, i.e. which learning

strategies they employ (Griffiths & Judy. 2001). It seems, however, that the research of Selinker's learning strategies, with the exception of transfer, has not been taken up by other researchers (Takač. 2008).

2.1.3 The Cognitive Learning Theory

The Cognitive Learning Theory explains why the brain is the most incredible network of information processing and interpretation in the body as we learn things. This theory can be divided into two specific theories: the Social Cognitive Theory (SCT), and the Cognitive Behavioral Theory (CBT).

When we say the word “learning”, we usually mean “to think using the brain”. This basic concept of learning is the main viewpoint in the Cognitive Learning Theory (CLT). The theory has been used to explain mental processes as they are influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors, which eventually bring about learning in an individual.

This theory was developed by the behaviorist school of psychology, notably by Skinner earlier this century (Laird. 1985; Burns. 1995). Skinner believed that behavior is a function of its consequences. The learner will repeat the desired behavior if positive reinforcement (a pleasant consequence) follows the behavior.

Cognitive Learning Theory implies that the different processes concerning learning can be explained by analyzing the mental processes first. It posits that with effective cognitive processes, learning is easier and new information can be stored in the memory for a long time. On the other hand, ineffective cognitive processes result to learning difficulties that can be seen anytime during the lifetime of an individual.

2.1.3.1 Social Cognitive Theory

In the Social Cognitive Theory, we are considering 3 variables:

- 1) Behavioral factors
- 2) Environmental factors (extrinsic)
- 3) Personal factors (intrinsic)

These three variables in Social Cognitive Theory are said to be interrelated with each other, causing learning to occur. An individual's personal experience can converge with the behavioral determinants and the environmental factors.

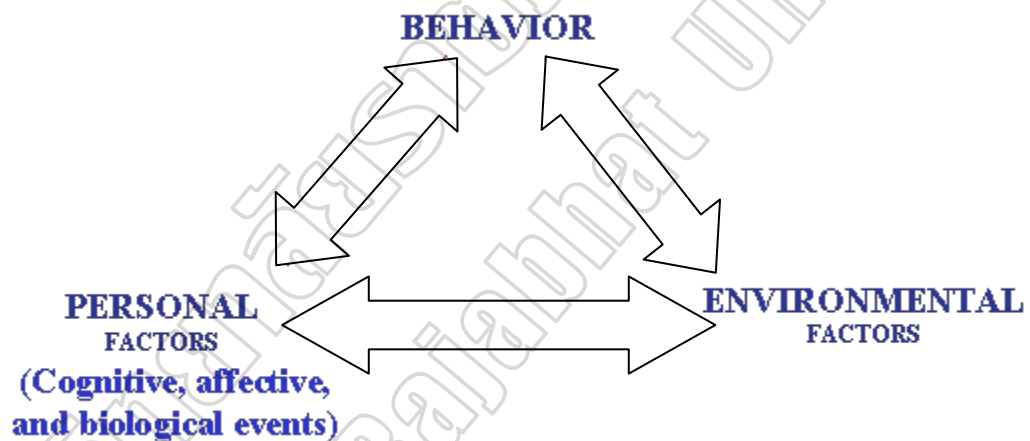


Figure 2.1 Social Cognitive Theory Illustration

Source: Pajares (2002)

In the person-environment interaction, human beliefs, ideas and cognitive competencies are modified by external factors such as a supportive parent, stressful environment or a hot climate. In the person-behavior interaction, the cognitive processes of a person affect his behavior; likewise, performance of such behavior can modify the way he thinks. Lastly, the environment-behavior interaction, external

factors can alter the way you display the behavior. Also, your behavior can affect and modify your environment. This model clearly implies that for effective and positive learning to occur an individual should have positive personal characteristics, exhibit appropriate behavior and stay in a supportive environment.

In addition, Social Cognitive Theory states that new experiences are to be evaluated by the learner by means of analyzing his past experiences with the same determinants. Learning, therefore, is a result of a thorough evaluation of the present experience versus the past.

According to Pajares (2002), Cognitive Theory includes several basic concepts that can manifest not only in adults but also in infants, children and adolescents as follows:

1. Observational Learning: Learning from other people by means of observing them is an effective way of gaining knowledge and altering behavior.

2. Reproduction: The process wherein there is an aim to effectively increase the repeating of a behavior by means of putting the individual in a comfortable environment with readily accessible materials to motivate him to retain the new knowledge and behavior learned and practice them.

3. Efficacy: The course wherein the learner improves his newly learned knowledge or behavior by putting it into practice.

4. Emotional Coping: Good coping mechanisms against stressful environment and negative personal characteristics can lead to effective learning, especially in adults.

5. Self-regulatory Capability: Ability to control behavior even within an unfavorable environment.

2.1.3.2 Cognitive Behavioral Theory

Cognitive Behavioral Theory describes the role of cognition (knowing) to determining and predicting the behavioral pattern of an individual. This theory was developed by Aaron Beck. The Cognitive Behavioral Theory said that individuals tend to form self-concepts that affect the behavior they display. These concepts can be positive or negative and can be affected by a person's environment.

In summary, Cognitive Behavioral Theory explains human behavior and learning using the cognitive triad. This triad includes negative thoughts about the self (i.e., I am rubbish), world/environment (i.e., the world is irrational), and future (i.e., my future is doomed).

2.2 Language Learning Styles and Strategies

Oxford (2003) states that Language learning styles and strategies are among the main factors that help determine how –and how well –our students learn a second or foreign language. A second language is a language studied in a setting where that language is the main vehicle of everyday communication and where abundant input exists in that language. A foreign language is a language studied in an environment where it is not the primary vehicle for daily interaction and where input in that language is restricted.

English as a second or foreign language (ESL or EFL) have been conducted to study in ESL or EFL settings. However, some of the studies cited here focus on native English speakers learning French, German, Japanese, and other languages foreign to them. Information about language learning styles and strategies is valid regardless of what the learner's first language is.

Learning styles are the general approaches –for example, global or analytic, auditory or visual –that students use in acquiring a new language or in learning any other subject. These styles are “the overall patterns that give general direction to learning behavior”(Cornett. 1983: 9). Of greatest relevance to this methodology book is this statement: “Learning style is the biologically and developmentally imposed set of characteristics that make the same teaching method wonderful for some and terrible for others” (Dunn &Griggs. 1988: 3). This part explores the following aspects of learning style: sensory preferences, personality types, desired degree of generality, and biological differences.

Learning strategies are defined as “specifications, behaviors, steps, or techniques - such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task - used by students to enhance their own learning” (Scarcella &Oxford. 1992: 63). When the learner consciously chooses strategies that fit his or her learning style and the L2 task at hand, these strategies become a useful toolkit for active, conscious, and purposeful self-regulation of learning. Learning strategies can be classified into six groups: cognitive, metacognitive, memory-related, compensatory, affective, and social.

However, it is important to emphasize that learning styles and strategies of individual students can work together with –or conflict with –a given instructional methodology. If there is harmony between 1) the student (in terms of style and strategy preferences), and 2) the combination of instructional methodology and materials, then the student is likely to perform well, feel confident, and experience low anxiety. If clashes occur between 1) and 2), the student often performs poorly, feels unconfident, and experiences significant anxiety. Sometimes such clashes lead to

serious breakdowns in teacher-student interaction. These conflicts may also lead to the dispirited student's outright rejection of the teaching methodology, the teacher, and the subject matter.

2.2.1 Learning Styles

Ehrman and Oxford (1990) have cited 9 major style dimensions relevant to L2 learning, although many more style aspects might also prove to be influential. This part discusses four dimensions of learning style that are likely to be among those most strongly associated with L2 learning: sensory preferences, personality types, desired degree of generality, and biological differences. Learning styles are not dichotomous (black or white, present or absent). Learning styles generally operate on a continuum or on multiple, intersecting continua. For example, a person might be more extraverted than introverted, or more closure-oriented than open, or equally visual and auditory but with lesser kinesthetic and tactile involvement. Few if any people could be classified as having all or nothing in any of these categories (Ehrman, 1996).

2.2.1.1 Sensory Preferences

Sensory preferences can be broken down into four main areas: visual, auditory, and kinesthetic (movement-oriented), and tactile (touch-oriented). Sensory preferences refer to the physical, perceptual learning channels with which the student is the most comfortable. Visual students like to read and obtain a great deal from visual stimulation. For them, lectures, conversations, and oral directions without any visual backup can be very confusing. In contrast, auditory students are comfortable without visual input and therefore enjoy and profit from unembellished lectures, conversations, and oral directions. They are excited by classroom interactions in role-

plays and similar activities. They sometimes, however, have difficulty with written work. Kinesthetic and tactile students like lots of movement and enjoy working with tangible objects, collages, and flashcards. Sitting at a desk for very long is not for them; they prefer to have frequent breaks and move around the room.

Reid (1987) demonstrates that ESL students varied significantly in their sensory preferences, with people from certain cultures differentially favoring the three different modalities for learning. Students from Asian cultures, for instance, were often highly visual, with Koreans being the most visual. Oxford and Anderson (1995) have found that the panic learners were frequently auditory. Also, Reid (1995) has discovered that Japanese are very non auditory. ESL students from a variety of cultures were tactile and kinesthetic in their sensory preferences.

2.2.1.2 Personality Types

Another style aspect that is important for L2 education is that of personality type, which consists of four strands: extraverted vs. introverted; intuitive-random vs. sensing-sequential; thinking vs. feeling; and closure-oriented/judging vs. open/perceiving. Personality type (often called psychological type) is a construct based on the work of psychologist Carl Jung. Ehrman and Oxford (1989, 1990) have found a number of significant relationships between personality type and L2 proficiency in native-English-speaking learners of foreign languages. For more on personality type in language learning.

2.2.1.3 Extraverted vs. Introverted

By definition, extraverts gain their greatest energy from the external world. They want interaction with people and have many friendships, some deep and some not. In contrast, introverts derive their energy from the internal world, seeking

solitude and tending to have just a few friendships, which are often very deep. Extraverts and introverts can learn to work together with the help of the teacher. Enforcing time limits in the L2 classroom can keep extraverts' enthusiasm to a manageable level. Rotating the person in charge of leading L2 discussions gives introverts the opportunity to participate equally with extraverts.

2.2.1.4 Intuitive-Random vs. Sensing-Sequential

Intuitive-random students think in abstract, futuristic, large-scale, and non-sequential ways. They like to create theories and new possibilities, often have sudden insights, and prefer to guide their own learning. In contrast, sensing-sequential learners are grounded in the here and now. They like facts rather than theories, want guidance and specific instruction from the teacher, and look for consistency. The key to teaching both intuitive-random and sensing-sequential learners is to offer variety and choice: sometimes a highly organized structure for sensing-sequential learners and at other times multiple options and enrichment activities for intuitive-random students.

2.2.1.5 Thinking vs. Feeling

Thinking learners are oriented toward the stark truth, even if it hurts some people's feelings. They want to be viewed as competent and do not tend to offer praise easily—even though they might secretly desire to be praised themselves.

Sometimes they seem detached. In comparison, feeling learners value other people in very personal ways. They show empathy and compassion through words, not just behaviors, and say whatever is needed to smooth over difficult situations. Though they often wear their hearts on their sleeves, they want to be respected for personal contributions and hard work. L2 teachers can help thinking learners show greater

overt compassion to their feeling classmates and can suggest that feeling learners might tone down their emotional expression while working with thinking learners.

2.2.1.6 Closure-oriented/Judging vs. Open/Perceiving

Closure-oriented students want to reach judgments or completion quickly and want clarity as soon as possible. These students are serious, hardworking learners who like to be given written information and enjoy specific tasks with deadlines. Sometimes their desire for closure hampers the development of fluency (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989). In contrast, open learners want to stay available for continuously new perceptions and are therefore sometimes called “perceiving.” They take L2 learning less seriously, treating it like a game to be enjoyed rather than a set of tasks to be completed. Open learners dislike deadlines; they want to have a good time and seem to soak up L2 information by osmosis rather than hard effort. Open learners sometimes do better than closure-oriented learners in developing fluency (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989), but they are at a disadvantage in a traditional classroom setting. Closure-oriented and open learners provide a good balance for each other in the L2 classroom. The former are the task-driven learners, and the latter know how to have fun. Skilled L2 teachers sometimes consciously create cooperative groups that include both types of learners, since these learners can benefit from collaboration with each other.

2.2.1.7 Desired Degree of Generality

This strand contrasts the learner who focuses on the main idea or big picture with the learner who concentrates on details. Global or holistic students like socially interactive, communicative events in which they can emphasize the main idea and avoid analysis of grammatical minutiae. They are comfortable even when not

having all the information and they feel free to guess from the context. Analytic students tend to concentrate on grammatical details and often avoid more free-flowing communicative activities. Because of their concern for precision, analytic learners typically do not take the risks necessary for guessing from the context unless they are fairly sure of the accuracy of their guesses. The global student and the analytic student have much to learn from each other. A balance between generality and specificity is very useful for L2 learning.

2.2.1.8 Biological Differences

Differences in L2 learning style can also be related to biological factors, such as biorhythms, sustenance, and location. Biorhythms reveal the times of day when students feel good and perform their best. Some L2 learners are morning people, while others do not want to start learning until the afternoon, and still others are creatures of the evening, happily “pulling an all-nighter” when necessary. Sustenance refers to the need for food or drink while learning. Quite a number of L2 learners do not feel comfortable learning without a candy bar, a cup of coffee, or a soda in hand, but others are distracted from study by food and drink. Location involves the nature of the environment: temperature, lighting, sound, and even the firmness of the chairs. L2 students differ widely with regard to these environmental factors. The biological aspects of L2 learning style are often forgotten, but vigilant teachers can often make accommodations and compromises when needed.

2.2.1.9 Beyond the Stylistic Comfort Zone

L2 learners clearly need to make the most of their style preferences. However, occasionally they must also extend themselves beyond their style preferences. By providing a wide range of classroom activities that cater to different

learning styles, teachers can help L2 students develop beyond the comfort zone dictated by their natural style preferences. The key is systematically offering a great variety of activities within a learner-centered, communicative approach.

2.2.1.10 Assessing L2 Learning Style

By far the most common type of assessment tool for L2 learning styles is the written survey. In surveys, students answer questions that reveal their particular style preferences. Style surveys vary in reliability and validity, but in the last few decades they have provided data from which teachers and students have begun to understand L2 styles. See Reid (1995) for examples of such surveys.

2.3 Learning Strategies

As seen earlier, L2 learning strategies are specific behaviors or thought processes that students use to enhance their own L2 learning. The word strategy comes from the ancient Greek word *strategia*, which means steps or actions taken for the purpose of winning a war. The warlike meaning of *strategia* has fortunately fallen away, but the control and goal directedness remain in the modern version of the word (Oxford, 1990).

A given strategy is neither good nor bad; it is essentially neutral until the context of its use is thoroughly considered. What makes a strategy positive and helpful for a given learner? A strategy is useful if the following conditions are present: 1) the strategy relates well to the L2 task at hand, 2) the strategy fits the particular student's learning style preferences to one degree or another, and 3) the student employs the strategy effectively and links it with other relevant strategies. Strategies that fulfill these conditions "make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable,

more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations” (Oxford. 1990: 8). Learning strategies can also enable students to become more independent, autonomous, lifelong learners (Allwright & Bailey. 1991; Little. 1991).

Yet students are not always aware of the power of consciously using L2 learning strategies for making learning quicker and more effective (Nyikos & Oxford. 1993). Skilled teachers help their students develop an awareness of learning strategies and enable them to use a wider range of appropriate strategies. The most effective strategy instruction appears to include demonstrating when a given strategy might be useful, as well as how to use and evaluate it, and how to transfer it to other related tasks and situations. So far, research has shown the most beneficial strategy instruction to be woven into regular, everyday L2 teaching, although other ways of doing strategy instruction are possible (Oxford & Leaver. 1996).

There are six major groups of L2 learning strategies identified by Oxford (1990). Alternative taxonomies have been offered by O’Malley and Chamot (1990).

2.3.1 Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies enable the learner to manipulate the language material in direct ways, e.g., through reasoning, analysis, note-taking, summarizing, synthesizing, outlining, reorganizing information to develop stronger schemas (knowledge structures), practicing in naturalistic settings, and practicing structures and sounds formally. Cognitive strategies are significantly related to L2 proficiency in studies by Kato (1996), Ku (1995), Oxford and Ehrman (1995), Oxford, Judd, and Giesen (1998), and Park (1994). Among others of these studies, three were specifically in EFL settings: Ku (Taiwan), Oxford, Judd, and Giesen (Turkey), and Park (Korea). The other two studies involved the learning of Kanji by native English speakers

(Kato. 1996) and the learning of various foreign languages by native English speakers (Oxford & Ehrman. 1995).

2.3.2 Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategies (e.g. Identifying one's own learning style preferences and needs, planning for an L2 task, gathering and organizing materials, arranging a study space and a schedule, monitoring mistakes, and evaluating task success, and evaluating the success of any type of learning strategy) are employed for managing the learning process overall. Among native English speakers learning foreign languages, Purpura (1999: 61) has found that metacognitive strategies had "a significant, positive, direct effect on cognitive strategy use, providing clear evidence that metacognitive strategy use has an executive function over cognitive strategy use in task completion". Studies of EFL learners in various countries (e.g., in South Africa (Dreyer & Oxford. 1996); and in Turkey (Oxford, Judd, & Giesen. 1998)) uncovered evidence that metacognitive strategies are often strong predictors of L2 proficiency.

2.3.3 Memory-related strategies

Memory-related strategies help learners' link one L2 item or concept with another but do not necessarily involve deep understanding. Various memory-related strategies enable learners to learn and retrieve information in an orderly string (e.g., acronyms), while other techniques create learning and retrieval via sounds (e.g., rhyming), images (e.g., a mental picture of the word itself or the meaning of the word), a combination of sounds and images (e.g., the keyword method), body movement (e.g., total physical response), mechanical means (e.g., flashcards), or location (e.g., on a page or blackboard) (see Oxford. 1990 for details and multiple examples).

Memory-related strategies have been shown to relate to L2 proficiency in a course devoted to memorizing large numbers of Kanji characters (Kato, 1996) and in L2 courses designed for native-English speaking learners of foreign languages (Oxford & Ehrman, 1995). However, memory-related strategies do not always positively relate to L2 proficiency. In fact, the use of memory strategies in a test-taking situation had a significant negative relationship to learners' test performance in grammar and vocabulary (Purpura, 1997). The probable reason for this is that memory strategies are often used for memorizing vocabulary and structures in initial stages of language learning, but that learners need such strategies much less when their arsenal of vocabulary and structures has become larger.

2.3.4 Compensatory Strategies

Compensatory strategies (e.g., guessing from the context in listening and reading; using synonyms and “talking around” the missing word to aid speaking and writing; and strictly for speaking, using gestures or pause words) help the learner make up for missing knowledge. Cohen (1998) asserts that compensatory strategies that are used for speaking and writing (often known as a form of communication strategies) are intended only for language use and must not be considered to be language learning strategies. However, Oxford (1990, 1999) contends that compensation strategies of any kind, even though they might be used for language use, nevertheless aid in language learning as well. After all, each instance of L2 use is an opportunity for more L2 learning. Oxford and Ehrman (1995) demonstrate that compensatory strategies are significantly related to L2 proficiency in their study of native-English-speaking learners of foreign languages.

2.3.5 Affective Strategies

Affective strategies, such as identifying one's mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself for good performance, and using deep breathing or positive self-talk, have been shown to be significantly related to L2 proficiency in research by Dreyer and Oxford (1996) among South African EFL learners and by Oxford and Ehrman (1995) among native English speakers learning foreign languages. However, in other studies, such as that of

Mullins (1992) with EFL learners in Thailand, affective strategies showed a negative link with some measures of L2 proficiency. One reason might be that as some students progress toward proficiency, they no longer need affective strategies as much as before. Perhaps because learners' use of cognitive, metacognitive, and social strategies is related to greater L2 proficiency and self-efficacy, over time there might be less need for affective strategies as learners' progress to higher proficiency.

2.3.6 Social Strategies

Social strategies (e.g., asking questions to get verification, asking for clarification of a confusing point, asking for help in doing a language task, talking with a native-speaking conversation partner, and exploring cultural and social norms) help the learner work with others and understand the target culture as well as the language. Social strategies are significantly associated with L2 proficiency in studies by the South African EFL study by Dreyer and Oxford (1996) and the investigation of native-English-speaking foreign language learners by Oxford and Ehrman (1995).

2.4 Assessing Learners' Use of Strategies

Many assessment tools exist for uncovering the strategies used by L2 learners. Self-report surveys, observations, interviews, learner journals, dialogue journals, think-aloud techniques, and other measures have been used. Each one of these has advantages and disadvantages, as analyzed by Oxford (1990) and Cohen and Scott (1996). The most widely used survey, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (Oxford, 1990), has been translated into more than 20 languages and used in dozens of published studies around the world.

Various learning strategy instruments have disclosed research results beyond those that have been mentioned above. These additional findings include the following: L2 learning strategy use is significantly related to L2 learning motivation, gender, age, culture, brain hemisphere dominance, career orientation, academic major, beliefs, and the nature of the L2 task. A number of these findings have been summarized in Oxford (1999a, 1999b).

2.5 Vocabulary Learning

Vocabulary learning is the process acquiring building blocks in second language acquisition (Ramos, 2015). The impact of vocabulary on proficiency in second language performance "has become an object of considerable interest among researchers, teachers, and materials developers" (Huckin & Coady, 1999: 182). From being a neglected aspect of language learning (Meara, 1980; cited in Xu & Hsu, 2017), vocabulary gains recognition in the literature and reclaimed its position in teaching. Educators shift their attention from accuracy to fluency by moving from the Grammar translation method to communicative approaches to teaching. As a result,

incidental vocabulary teaching and learning became one of the two major types of teaching programs along with the deliberate approach.

Effective vocabulary instruction should include the following three components:

1. Definitional and contextual information about a word - To know a word, students need to see it in context and learn how its meaning relates to the words around it. An approach that includes definitions and shows how words are used in various contexts can generate a full and flexible knowledge of word meanings.

2. Multiple exposures to a word in different contexts - A word that is encountered once has about a 10 percent chance of being learned from context. When students see a word repeatedly, they gather more and more information about it until they get an idea of what it means.

3. Encouragement of students' active participation in their word learning – Students remember words better when they relate new meanings to knowledge they already have. Group discussion of word meanings also helps students learn new vocabulary by having to actively participate in their own learning.

2.5.1 Considerations for ELLs in Vocabulary

Vocabulary needs to be taught explicitly and be a part of the daily curriculum to promote English language development. In order to read fluently and comprehend what is written, students need to use not just phonics, but also context. It is possible for students to read phonetically yet not comprehend what they read because they do not have the vocabulary.

2.5.1.1 Scientific research on vocabulary development demonstrates that children learn the majority of their vocabulary indirectly in the following three ways:

1) conversations, mostly with adults, 2) listening to adults read to them, and 3) reading extensively on their own (CIERA. 2001). This is a challenge for ELLs because their parents and other adults in their lives are often not fluent in English. Therefore, educators must provide many opportunities for students to learn vocabulary directly, including explicitly teaching vocabulary words before students read a text and providing read aloud and structured independent reading time.

2.5.1.2 Teaching vocabulary development involves more than teaching the definition of technical or unfamiliar words in texts. Many encounters with a word in meaningful contexts are needed for students to acquire it. It also requires understanding how the words are learned in non-instructional contexts through conversation and reading. Researchers claim we don't learn much from looking up words in a dictionary and memorizing definitions (Tyler & Nagy. 1989).

2.5.1.3 When teaching vocabulary special attention must be given not only to single words but also to poly words (e.g. by the way); collocations, or word partnerships (i.e. community service); institutionalized utterances (i.e. we'll see) and idioms.

2.5.1.4 ELLs often bring knowledge of cognates (words and concepts) from their first language that can help them make meaning of the text they are reading. Teachers need to foster an environment where students feel comfortable using what they know to make meaning of new words. Thanks to their shared Latin and Greek roots, there are many words in English with meanings and sounds similar to words in other languages such as Spanish. Teachers can use cognates to develop students' oral vocabulary.

2.5.1.5 Creating a literate environment is crucial for vocabulary development of ELLs. Word walls provide a systematically organized collection of words displayed alphabetically, by phonics element, or by themes. To greater benefit ELLs, the word wall should be interactive and include: bilingual (or multilingual) words and pictures. Daily activities such as be a Mind Reader and Sight Word Bingo make the word wall most effective. A literate environment includes the following books: picture books, alphabet books, wordless picture books, concept books, predictable books, poetry and traditional literature.

2.5.1.6 Reading aloud is an effective way of developing vocabulary. The more opportunities for ELLs to have encounters with words, the more words they can add to their vocabulary. Literature books, trade books, poems, rhymes, etc. are filled with wonderful examples of language, words, and content. Reading aloud has been traditionally implemented as a strategy for only young students, yet it can play an effective role in the LEP classroom at any age. Picture books are excellent resources for students of all ages to build vocabulary. In addition, publishers and authors have seen the benefit of reading aloud for vocabulary instruction. Thus, there are specific books targeting vocabulary development.

2.6 Vocabulary Learning Strategies

2.6.1 Definitions of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Different researchers propose varied definitions of Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLSs) based on their different perspectives. Some of them are as follows:

Cameron (2001: 92) defines VLSs as “the actions that learners take to help themselves understand and remember vocabulary items”.

Catalan (2003: 56) explains her working definition for VLSs as “knowledge about the mechanisms (processes and strategies) used in order to learn vocabulary as well as steps or actions taken by students to 1) find out the meaning of unknown words, 2) to retain them in long-term memory, 3) to recall them at will, and 4) to use them in oral or written mode”.

Intaraprasert (2004: 9) sees VLSs as “any set of techniques or learning behaviors, which language learners reported using in order to discover the meaning of a new word, to retain the knowledge of newly-learned words, and to expand their knowledge of vocabulary”.

Hamzah et al. (2009) view VLSs from three different angles. First, it can be any actions the learners take to aid the learning process of new vocabulary. Second, these actions must be able to improve the efficiency of vocabulary learning. Third, VLSs are conscious actions taken by the learner in order to study new words.

With reference to the definitions of the term ‘vocabulary learning strategies’ above, we can conclude that the term ‘VLSs’ has been used to refer to the purposeful steps, actions or mental processes that the learners employ, more or less consciously, with the purpose to facilitate vocabulary learning. These processes lead the interventions that enhance vocabulary skills in the target language.

2.6.2 The Importance of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

It is known that mastery of vocabulary is a gradual process and needs an effort invested by the learners. To the second language learners, learning new vocabulary has always been challenging for them. It may not be possible for students to learn all new vocabulary items only in the classroom setting. It is imperative for the teacher to help students learn how to acquire new vocabulary on their own (Sokmen. 1997).

Learner independence has long been recognized important by a number of linguists in the process of vocabulary acquisition (Hamzah et al. 2009). Oxford and Nyikos (1989: 291) remark that strategies foster “learner autonomy, independence, and self-direction”. In vocabulary learning, VLSs are considered important and have received much attention in the area of second language learning (Schmitt, 2000). The merit of all learning strategies including VLSs is to facilitate learners to take control of their own learning so that they can take responsibility for their own studies.

Furthermore, for students of any languages, a large number of new vocabulary items can be acquired with the assistance of VLSs (Nation. 2001). VLSs help stimulate explicit vocabulary learning which involves many aspects, such as making conscious efforts to notice new vocabulary items, selective attending, and storing into long-term memory (Ellis. 1994). Gu and Johnson (1996) point out that learners who employ selective attending strategies may know which words are important and necessary for them to learn so that they are able to comprehend the passage. Learners who employ self-initiation strategies may use a variety of means to understand the meaning of vocabulary items. If learners are equipped with a range of VLSs, they may be able to deal with the new or unfamiliar vocabulary items without difficulty as VLSs help simplify the new vocabulary learning process for them. However, VLSs may not be considered inherently good. The effectiveness of the strategies may depend upon a number of factors, such as proficiency level, context of learning and learners’ characteristics, etc. (Schmitt. 1997). There are many factors that may affect the learners' VLS use in terms of their choice and frequency.

2.6.3 Factors Influencing Vocabulary Learning

A number of research works on VLS have pointed out several factors that constitute a source of variation in learners' VLS use. The frequency and type of VLS employed by learners has been found to vary depending on such factors. The factors affecting learners' VLS use discussed in this paper have been grouped under Ellis's framework (1994). Three broad categories are presented as follows.

2.6.3.1 Learner Individual Difference Factors

Learner individual difference factors constitute one sort of the variation in the use of VLSs. These factors include belief, attitude, motivation and language learning experience.

1) Belief

Belief has been singled out as one of the clear factors affecting learners' VLS use. A study done by Gu and Johnson (1996) found that Chinese university students devalued rote memorization strategies and they employed more meaning-oriented strategies than rote strategies. Recently, Si-xiang and Srikhao (2009) discovered that Miao students (an ethnic group in China) who believed that words should be studied and put to use, employed a wide range of VLSs. According to Gu and Johnson's and Sixiang and Srikhao's, learners' strategy use seems to relate to what they believed. On the contrary, Wei (2007) discovered the opposite results indicating that what students believed did not yield their actual VLS use. That is, students believed that knowing a word means the ability to use such words in appropriate context. However, they concentrated too much on isolated short-term retention of form and meaning.

2) Attitude

Among individual learner difference factors, attitude does appear to positively correlate with learners' VLS use. Apart from belief, Wei (2007) takes attitude into account as another factor influencing learners' VLS use. The findings showed that Chinese college students with positive attitudes towards vocabulary learning employed VLSs more frequently than those with negative attitudes in four categories, i.e. dictionary, activation, guessing and management. The findings were consistent with Zhi-liang's (2010) study revealing that Chinese students with positive attitudes tended to employ a large variety of VLSs either to discover the meaning of the new words or to consolidate the use of the words.

3) Motivation

Students' motivation seems to positively correlate with their VLS. For example, Fu's (2003) study revealed that inherent interest motivation (learners' inherent interest in vocabulary learning) positively correlated with student's VLS use. The other research work that confirms the relationship between motivation and learners' VLS use is Marttinen's (2008), indicating that Finnish ESL students with high motivation employed a wider range of VLSs than those with low motivation.

2.6.3.2 Language Learning Experience

In addition to motivation, language learning experience is considered as a factor that affects learners' VLS use. For example, Porte (1988) discovered that EFL students studying in language schools in London used the VLSs they had used at schools in their native countries. More recently, Stoffer (1995) found that EFL students' VLS use was significantly related to their previous language learning experience. Regarding the Thai context, Siriwan (2007) examined the students' VLS

use and their language learning experience indicating that the more experienced students made more use of VLS than the less experienced ones.

2.6.3.3 Social and Situational Factors

Social and situational factors are other sources that influence the learners' VLS use. Social and situational variables comprise the field of study, course type, class level, gender and language learning environment.

1) Field of Study

Considerable evidence supports the relationship between learners' field of study and their VLS use. For example, Gu's (2002) findings reveals the difference in strategy use between science and arts students in which science students tended to employ strategies such as relying on visual coding more frequently than arts students. The findings in this study are consistent with Mingsakoon (2002) who discovered that science students employed VLS differently from the arts students. The VLS use of English and non-English major students are also examined. For example, Liao (2004) has found that students studying in English and non-English employed VLS differently. The results are consistent with Chiang's (2004) and Zhang's (2009) studies. In addition, the VLS use of students in other disciplines has also been investigated. In the study done by Bernardo and Gonzales (2009), it has been found that the use of determination and social VLSs was significantly different among the Filipino students across five disciplines; Liberal Arts and Education; Computer Science and Engineering; Business Education; Hospitality Management and Allied Medical Science.

2) Course Type

Other than field of study, course type is considered a key factor affecting learners' VLS use. Course type refers to 'regular' and 'part-time' programs. In a study made by Siriwan (2007), the relationship between students' course type and their VLS use was explored. The findings revealed that Thai university students studying in regular programs reported greater use of VLSs than students studying in part time programs. Correspondingly, Al-Shuwairkh (2001) examined the VLSs employed by learners learning Arabic as a foreign language. It was discovered that learners studying in the morning courses reported higher use of VLSs than evening-course learners.

3) Class Level

Class level emerges as a clear factor affecting the way the VLSs are used. For example, Doczi's (2011) findings indicated that as the level of Hungarian ESL students improved the number of strategies to practice on regular basis and use word lists for consolidation decreased, strategies like skipping a new word were used more when students became more advanced. Along the same line, Mongkol's (2008) findings revealed that the second year Thai EFL university students tended to use VLS to analyze affixes and roots to understand the meaning of words more as compared to the first year students. In the same study, however, the first year students used VLSs more when learning new words by remembering parts of speech or paraphrasing the word's meaning.

4) Gender

Among the situational and social factors, gender seems to receive the widest attention from the researchers. However, the results are still inconclusive. For

example, Nation's findings (2003) revealed that Spanish female and male students differ significantly in strategy employing. The findings are consistent with the studies of Jones (2006), Siriwan (2007) Marttinen (2008) and Seddigh (2012). On the other hand, Chang and Chang (2009) discovered the opposite results in which Chinese female and male students showed no significant difference of their VLS use. The findings were consistent with Fatemeh's (2009), Khatib and Hassandeh's (2011) and Arjomand and Sharififar's (2011) which indicated that gender had no significant difference on students' VLS use.

5) Language Learning Environment

Language learning environment seems to receive less attention from previous researchers. According to the available research works, this factor can be categorized into formal and informal language learning environment. With regard to this factor, Kameli et al. (2012) discovered that the role of teachers, peers and classroom environment affected Malaysian ESL students' VLS use. For example, a teacher's encouragement could influence the learners' VLS use in which learners were encouraged to learn new words by focusing on the pronunciation of a word. Regarding informal language learning environment, Asgari and Mustapha's (2011) findings indicated that the role of supportive and unsupportive parents affected Malaysian ESL students' VLS use differently. For example, students living with supportive parents employed more variety of strategies to learn new words than those living with unsupportive parents who tended to lack the motivation in learning a language.

2.6.4 Learners' Learning Outcomes

Different researchers use different means as a predictor of learners' learning outcomes, such as students' language achievement, language proficiency and vocabulary knowledge.

2.6.4.1 Language Achievement

The relationship between students' language learning achievement and their VLS use is supported by some studies. For example, Gidey' s (2008) findings revealed that the high achievers had greater use of VLS than the low achievers. The results were consistent with Suppasetserree and Saitakham' s (2008) which showed the difference between high and low achievers among EFL Thai university students majoring English.

2.6.4.2 Language Proficiency

Attempts have been made to examine the students' language proficiency in connection to their VLS use. For example, in Loucky's (2003) findings revealed that Japanese college students with high language proficiency made higher use of VLSs than those with low proficiency. The results corresponded with Kung and Chen's (2004), Nemati's (2008), Chang and Chang's (2009) and Celik and Toptas's (2010) which revealed that students' VLS use positively correlated with their language proficiency level. In addition to the frequency of strategy used, the high and low proficient students employed the types of VLSs differently. For example, Lachini's finding (2008) revealed that some types of VLSs, such as "creative" highly correlated with the participants' proficiency levels. The results were consistent with Mizumoto and Takeuchi's (n.d.) which demonstrated that some types of VLSs highly correlated with students' TOEIC scores.

2.6.4.3 Vocabulary Knowledge

Many researchers use vocabulary size as a basis for vocabulary knowledge. There is considerable evidence available to support the link between students' vocabulary size and their VLS use. For example, Tilfarlioglu and Bozgeyik's (2012) findings, showed that student's VLS use positively correlated with their vocabulary size. The findings corresponded to the previous research works, such as Ahmed's (1989), Gu and Johnson's (1996), Lawson and Hogben's (1996), Fan's (2003), Cusen's (2005), Hamzah, Kalifpour and Abdullah's (2009), Kafipour et al.'s (2011), Komol and Sripetpun's (2011) and Waldvogel's (2011).

2.7 Wordlists

The first systematic attempts in designing wordlists were taken by Thorndike and Lorge (1944) who has counted 18,000,000 running written words manually. Their "The Teacher Word Book" consisted of 30,000 words. As it is evident, the value of the work lies in its size. Later, it was used as a source of frequency data for the most well-known and probably the most outstanding wordlist, the General Wordlist, designed by Michael West in 1953. According to Hirsh and Nation (1992), the reason for choosing this name is that the words were supposed to cover a wide range of genres, situations and uses. This list has been the basis of many series of graded readers (Nation & Kyongho. 1995). It is composed of 2,000 word families and is based on a corpus of 5 five million words of English. Family or *lemma* as clearly defined by Francis and Kucera (1982; cited in Coxhead. 2000) refers to a set of lexical forms which the same stem and which belong to the same major word class, differing from each other only in inflection and/or spelling. Though frequency was the main

criterion in the procedure of choosing these words, West considered some other criteria as well, namely, ease of learning, coverage of useful concepts and their stylistic level.

General Service List (GSL) has been evaluated and criticized for a number of reasons. Engels (1968) criticizes it for its size. He also expresses doubts over the necessity for the inclusion of the second 1,000 word families since it covers about 4.7% of the running words in non-fiction texts which is to a great extent trivial compared to the approximately 70% coverage of its first 1,000 word families. He considers them fallacious since they can't be called general service words.

The list has been also criticized by Richards (1974) for its age. He believes since many changes have occurred in language and also in views about the appropriate content for an ESL course, the list contains many archaic and nonessential words (e.g. mannerism) and does not contain words of current high frequency (e.g. computer). In another study carried out by Hirsh and Nation (1992) on three short novels, it was found out that the 2,000 words provided by GSL are not adequate to read simplified texts for pleasure. To gain 97-98% coverage of the running words (tokens), supposed to be necessary for pleasurable reading, they believe learners need a vocabulary of about 5000 words.

However, GSL with the coverage potential of up to 90 percent of fiction texts as claimed by (Hirsh. 1993), up to 75 percent of non-fiction texts (Hwang. 1989) and up to 76 percent of the academic corpus (Coxhead. 1998), has resisted the test of time and many researchers have benefited from it as a stop list. The amount of coverage reported by different researchers as stated above seems to be a justified reason for insistence on the part of Hwang and Nation (1995: 36) who claimed that whatever the

criticisms of the General Service List, a general service vocabulary is essential for all learners no matter whether they are using English as a foreign or second language, for spoken or written use, or for general or special purposes

2.8 Previous Studies

Many researchers have studied various aspects of vocabulary learning to investigate vocabulary learning strategies employed by Educators or Teachers with their students in vocational education institutes, examine what strategies they often used in their teaching as if vocabulary learning strategies and approaches have been studied for many years.

Intaraprasert (2004) explored vocabulary learning strategies reported to be employed by the 133 EST university students in Northeast Thailand. No variables have been taken into consideration. The subjects of the study were sampled on the basis of convenience and availability. An open-ended strategy questionnaire was used as the main instrument for the data collection. The data obtained were analyzed qualitatively in response to the purpose of the investigation. The findings of the research show that two different emergent categories have been reported which include 1) the strategies to discover the meaning of a new word; and 2) the strategies to retain the knowledge of newly-learned vocabulary items. The former comprises 10 individual strategies and the latter 11 individual strategies.

Siriwan (2007) revealed that three main vocabulary categories: the discovery of the meaning of new vocabulary items (DMV), the retention of the knowledge of newly learned vocabulary items (RKV), and the expansion of the knowledge of vocabulary (EKV), were discovered and examined. Rajabhat University students, on a

whole, reported medium frequency of strategy use for their vocabulary learning. The findings also reveal that frequency of students' overall reported use of strategies varied significantly according to the examined variables. The factor analysis results show that seven factors were found strongly related to four examined variables, including gender of the students, major field of study, previous language learning experience and level of vocabulary proficiency. No factors were found to be related to type of academic program of study.

Riankamol (2008) surveyed English vocabulary learning strategies adopted by English gifted students of Triam Udomsuksa School in the first semester of the academic year 2008. The subjects were twenty seven students who were studying in English gifted program at Triam Udomsuksa School. The purpose of the survey is to find most and least frequently used vocabulary learning strategies used by the English gifted students. An instrument used in this survey study was a 25-item questionnaire adapted from Schmitt's taxonomy for vocabulary learning strategies. The data was analyzed by using frequency, percentages, and means. The mean score indicated that the use of metacognitive strategies was most frequently used by English gifted students who are considered high proficient students in English. And the least frequently used vocabulary strategy was "I learn words by listening to vocabulary CDs." in Cognitive strategies.

Asgari and Mustapha (2011) examined the type of vocabulary learning strategies used by Malaysian ESL students majoring at Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) whereby ESL students at Universiti Putra Malaysia is a population that has been rarely included in any previous studies on vocabulary learning strategies. Based on the aim of this study, it was decided that the best method for this

investigation to better understand the use of VLSs by these particular students is to adopt the qualitative research design. Hence, the method of conducting is an open-ended interview that was conducted individually with ten students at the Faculty of Education Studies in UPM. The concluded strategies such as the learning a word through reading , the use of monolingual dictionary, the use of various English language media, and applying new English word in their daily conversation where are related to memory, determination, metacognitive strategies respectively are popular strategies and the learners are keen in using them.

Zhang (2009) investigated the situation of using vocabulary learning strategies among Chinese good and poor college students through a questionnaire. The result of the questionnaire clearly shows that the employment of vocabulary learning strategies is widely spread among Chinese college students, which is proved by the relatively high means in both high and low groups for all the strategies listed in the questionnaire. In China, atypical input-poor EFL environment, students are expected to learn vocabulary on their own. This makes vocabulary strategies even more important in the learning process. Through the detailed analysis and discussion which is based on the questionnaire, this case study also finds that that strategy use is positively related to the language outcomes. The better the students are, the more frequently they employ various strategies in their learning. The good learners are found to use 21 strategies more often than the poor learners in the 26 strategies investigated.

Pourshahian (2012) explored the relationship between vocabulary learning strategies and vocabulary size of 125 undergraduate English Language Teaching students at Eastern Mediterranean University. This research study was a correlational

survey study of descriptive nature. The major findings of this study were as follows. First, the findings indicated that most of the ELT students adequately operated the psycholinguistic strategies, whereas somewhat adequately the metacognitive strategies. Next, the ELT students reportedly had a somewhat average vocabulary size to cope with advanced studies at the university level. Finally, this study found no relationship between the psycholinguistic strategy and the vocabulary size of the participants, and the relationships between the metacognitive strategy and the vocabulary size, as well as the vocabulary learning strategy questionnaire and the vocabulary size of the participants were negligible. The findings also revealed that students did not operate certain strategies, rather a variety of strategies.

Boonkongsan (2012) revealed that students studying at the tertiary-level in the Northeast of Thailand, reported medium frequency of the overall VLS use, and use of VLSs to discover the meaning or other aspects of vocabulary items, retain knowledge of newly-learned vocabulary items and expand knowledge of vocabulary. The findings also reveal that the students' overall VLS use, use of VLSs by the three main categories and use of individual VLSs varied significantly according to the five investigated variables. The results of factor analysis indicate that 5 factors were the underlying dimensions of the students' VLS use. All factors were found to be strongly related to the investigated variables. The results of the content analysis reveal that 7 categories emerged as the reasons for using certain VLSs frequently, while 9 categories emerged as the reasons for using certain strategies infrequently.

Wanpen et al. (2013) conducted the questionnaire on technical vocabulary learning strategies was administered to 47 undergraduate engineering students from Udon Thani Rajabhat University selected as samples in the study. The subjects were

also asked to complete the technical vocabulary test, and some agreed to participate in semi-structured interviews. The findings revealed that students with the educational backgrounds in vocational stream had higher technical vocabulary proficiencies than students whose educational backgrounds were in the general education stream. Differences in the use of learning strategies were found between students who employed different streams of educational backgrounds (general education stream and vocational stream) at the significant level of .05 in determination, memory, and cognitive strategies.

Nirattisai and Chiramanee (2014) investigated the vocabulary learning strategies employed by Thai university students. The relationship between the students' vocabulary learning strategies and their vocabulary size was also explored. The subjects of this study were 257 Prince of Songkla University students in the 6 fields of study: medicine, dentistry, nursing, engineering, accounting, hospitality and tourism which will be highly affected by the forthcoming ASEAN Economy Community (AEC) in 2015. The research data were obtained from 2 instruments: the vocabulary learning strategy questionnaire and the bilingual English-Thai version of vocabulary size test. The study revealed that the subjects slightly employed the overall vocabulary learning strategies. Out of 39 vocabulary learning strategies, the subjects employed 2 strategies at a high level, 18 strategies at a moderate level, and 19 strategies at a low level. The subjects' use of the overall vocabulary learning strategies was moderately correlated with their vocabulary size. Seventeen vocabulary learning strategies were correlated with their vocabulary size at a moderate degree while the rest at a low degree.

Astika (2016) described the vocabulary learning strategies that the students used when they learned new words. It attempted to find out if vocabulary learning strategies differed across school levels, gender, and ability groups as indicated by their English grades. This study involved 706 students from 8 secondary schools. The data were collected using a questionnaire developed using a taxonomy consisting of cognitive, metacognitive, memory, and determination categories. The overall results indicate that the students appear to rely more on determination strategies. This reliance on determination strategies is consistent across gender, ability groups, and school levels.

Puangsang and Intharaksa (2017) conducted their study about vocabulary learning strategies (VLSs) employed by vocational students. The participants of this study were 242 first-year high vocational certificate students studying in three fields: engineering, accounting, and hotel and tourism from five government vocational colleges in Krabi Province, Thailand. A questionnaire and an individual semi-structured interview were used to elicit the frequency of VLSs use. The results of this study revealed that among five strategic categories (determination, social, memory, cognitive and meta-cognitive), social strategies were ranked as the most frequently used. The participants employed strategies from all five categories at the frequency level of "sometimes". In addition, VLSs use varied based on a participant's fields of study (Sig. at $P < 0.05$, $P < 0.01$).

2.9 Summary of the Chapter

To sum up, this chapter provides the background information about theories of learning, language learning styles and strategies, learning strategies, assessing learning's use of strategies, vocabulary learning, vocabulary learning strategies, wordlists, and previous studies related to the present study. Next chapter gives more information about the research methodology.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research methodology utilized in the present study. It explains the population and samples, the instruments and how to construct them, the data collection, the data analysis, the statistical method.

3.1 Population and Samples

3.2 Research instruments

3.3 Data Collection

3.4 Data Analysis

3.5 Summary of the Chapter

3.1 Population and Samples

3.1.1 Population

The population of this study consisted of 11,384 vocational education students who enrolled in the first semester of academic year 2019 from 8 institutes in Surin Province: 1) Surin Technical College, 2) Surin Vocational College, 3) Surin Polytechnic College, 4) Thatum Industrial and Community Education College, 5) Sikhoraphum Industrial and Community Education College, 6) Prasat Industrial and Community Education College, 7) Sangkha Industrial and Community Education College, and 8) Rattanaaburi Technology and Management College.

3.1.2 Samples

The samples were 375 students of vocational education institutes in Surin Province in the first semester of academic year 2019. They were selected by using the table of Krejcie and Morgan (1978), stratified random sampling, and simple random sampling, respectively.

The details of population and samples in each college were shown in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1 Information of Population and Samples

Vocational Education Institutes	Population	Samples
1. Surin Technical Collage	1,943	64
2. Surin Vocational College	2,124	70
3. Surin Polytechnic College	875	21
4. Thatum Industrial and Community Education College	1,996	65
5. Sikhorphum Industrial and Community College	1,607	53
6. Prasat Industrial and Community Educational College	1,032	34
7. Sangkha Industrial and Community Education College	1,707	56
8. Ratanaburi Technology and Management College	409	12
Total	11,384	375

3.2 Research Instrument

The research instrument in this study used was a questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of 3 parts as follows:

Part 1: This section was about the personal information of the samples. The samples were required to answer the research questions about gender, year level, field of study, GPA, and level of English ability. This part was in the form of check list.

Part 2: This section has been designed to collect data on students' English vocabulary learning strategies employed. The participants can rate their opinions according Likert scale as below:

	Meaning	Opinion Level
4	means	always true for me
3	means	often true for me
2	means	sometimes true for me
1	means	rarely true for me

Part 3: This section was about the addition opinions on the use of English vocabulary learning strategies. It was the open-ended form in which the samples can write their suggestions or comments down.

The above questionnaire was constructed and developed gradually as follows:

3.2.1 The researcher studied theories and principles from textbooks, documents, articles and related literatures.

3.2.2 The researcher reviewed the literatures on how to construct the English language learning's problem questionnaires as defined and adapted by Likert or four point rating scales.

3.2.3 The researcher constructed the draft questionnaire with the 43 questions of English vocabulary learning strategies adapted from Schmitt (1997), Siriwan (2007) and Nirattisai and Chiramanee (2014). The 43 items were divided into five major categories of vocabulary learning strategies: 12 items in memory strategy, 5 items in cognitive strategy, 10 items in meta-cognitive strategy, 9 items in determination strategy, and 7 items in social strategy.

3.2.4 The researcher proposed the 43 statements of questionnaire to the thesis advisors to check the correctness and appropriateness. Then the researcher revised and edited some items in questionnaire statements according to the thesis advisors' suggestions and comments.

3.2.5 The revised questionnaire statements were examined by the three experts to check the correctness and appropriateness.

The names of the three experts are as follows:

- 1) Assistant Professor Dr. Jongkit Wongpinit, an English lecturer from Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Surindha Rajabhat University.
- 2) Dr. Wirote Thongplew, an English lecturer from Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Surindha Rajabhat University.
- 3) Mr. Navy Ruppown, an English lecturer from Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Surindha Rajabhat University.

3.2.6 The researcher organized the approved statements and tried out with 30 vocational education students who were not the samples.

3.2.7 The researcher calculated the reliability of the questionnaire by using the Coefficient Alpha of Cronbach (α -coefficient) in which the value must be at least 0.70. The reliability value of the questionnaire was 0.947.

3.3 Data Collection

Before the vocational education students started to work on the questionnaire, the researcher explained in Thai. The research data were kept confidentially. A consent form for taking a questionnaire was distributed to all students. Only the students who agreed to participate in the study signed the forms. Then the participants completed the questionnaire. The students were allowed to ask the researchers about technical questions or unclear information in the questionnaire during the survey. The entire procedure of administering this part was about 60 minutes each class met, including the time spent on instructions and consent forms.

3.4 Data Analysis

After checking the completion of each questionnaire, the data gathered from the questionnaire were statistically analyzed by using Statistic Package for Social Science (SPSS) mainly focusing on the descriptive statistic analysis i.e. alpha coefficient, frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation. The statistical devices employed in this study were as follows:

3.4.1 Alpha coefficient of Cronbach was used to calculate the reliability of questionnaire.

3.4.2 Frequency (f) and percentage (%) were used to calculate the data of the personal information of the samples.

3.4.3 Mean (\bar{x}) and standard deviation (S.D.) were used to investigate the use of each English vocabulary learning strategy. The following criteria were employed for interpretation by Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) in table below:

Table 3.2 Three levels of interpretation proposed by Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995)

The key to understand average of usage group		
High	Always use	3.50 or above
	Often use	
Moderate	Occasionally use	2.50 to 3.49
Low	Seldom use	Below 2.50
	Never use	

3.4.1.4 Content analysis technique was used to analyze the data from the open-ended form.

3.5 Summary of the Chapter

In summary, this chapter has presented the research methodology including population and samples, research instrument, how to collect the data, and how to analyze the collected data, and statistical methods used in research.

In the next chapter, the results of the data analysis will be presented.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter reports the results of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province. It is divided into 3 main parts: Part 1 gives general information of the samples which includes genders, fields of study. Part 2 reports the use of English vocabulary learning strategies. Part 3 reports the comparison of English vocabulary learning strategies classified by genders and fields of study. The details of each part are as follows:

4.1 General Information

This part provides the general information of 375 vocational education students in Surin Province, who responded to the questionnaire. In this part, they were required to specify their general information which are gender, and field of study. The collected general information data are showed in Table 4.1 as follows:

Table 4.1 General Information

Sample (n = 375)		
General Information	Frequency	Percent
1. Genders		
1.1 Male	256	68.27
1.2 Female	119	31.73
Total	375	100.00
2. Fields of study		
2.1 Technical	259	69.07
2.2 Business	116	30.93
Total	375	100.00

As shown in Table 4.1, there were 375 respondents, 68.27 % were male and 31.73 % were female. Of all the respondents, 69.07% were in the field of technical, and 30.93% were in the field of business.

4.2 English Vocabulary Learning Strategies Employed by Vocational Education Students in Surin Province

The English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Mean, standard deviation and interpretation of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province (n=375)

English Vocabulary Learning Strategies	\bar{X}	S.D.	Interpretation
1. Memory strategy	2.59	0.78	Moderate
2. Cognitive strategy	2.44	0.87	Low
3. Meta-cognitive strategy	2.68	0.71	Moderate
4. Determination strategy	2.63	0.72	Moderate
5. Social strategy	2.50	0.72	Moderate
Total	2.57	0.72	Moderate

As shown in Table 4.2, it reveals that the English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province in overall was at a moderate level ($\bar{X} = 2.57$, S.D.= 0.72). When considering each strategy used, it was found that the cognitive strategy was reported at the low level while the rest strategies were at the moderate level. The meta-cognitive strategy was used most ($\bar{X} = 2.68$, S.D.= 0.71), followed by determination strategy ($\bar{X} = 2.63$, S.D.= 0.72), memory strategy ($\bar{X} = 2.59$, S.D.= 0.78), social strategy ($\bar{X} = 2.50$, S.D.= 0.72), and cognitive strategy ($\bar{X} = 2.44$, S.D.= 0.87), respectively.

The followings are the English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province in each strategy as shown in Tables 4.3 – 4.7 below.

Table 4.3 Mean, standard deviation and interpretation of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province in terms of memory strategy (n=375)

Memory Strategies	\bar{X}	S.D.	Interpretation
10. Say words aloud when studying	2.54	1.00	Moderate
12. Make a group of words by topic for reviewing	2.52	1.12	Moderate
14. Study words with pictures	2.96	1.01	Moderate
19. Associate the word with other words you have learned	2.54	0.93	Moderate
20. Connect words to personal experiences	2.65	1.04	Moderate
21. Remember the word from its root, prefix, and suffix	2.38	0.95	Low
23. Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms	2.64	1.03	Moderate
28. Learn words of an idiom together	2.65	0.95	Moderate
29. Make a group of words by alphabetical order for reviewing	2.46	0.99	Low
33. Use words in sentences	2.59	0.99	Moderate
34. Stick the word and its meaning in a place where it can be obviously seen	2.57	1.28	Moderate
Total	2.59	0.78	Moderate

As shown in Table 4.3, it reveals that the memory strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province in overall was at a moderate level ($\bar{X} = 2.59$, S.D.= 0.78). When considering each item used, it was found that No.14 “Study words with pictures” was used most ($\bar{X} = 2.96$, S.D.= 1.01), followed by No. 28 “Learn words of an idiom together” ($\bar{X} = 2.65$, S.D.= 0.95), and No. 20 “Connect words to personal experiences” ($\bar{X} = 2.65$, S.D.= 1.04), while No. 21 “Remember the word from its root, prefix, and suffix” was used least ($\bar{X} = 2.38$, S.D.= 0.95), respectively.

Table 4.4 Mean, standard deviation and interpretation of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province in terms of cognitive strategy (n=375)

Cognitive Strategies	\bar{X}	S.D.	Interpretation
5. Learn words through verbal repetition	2.71	1.19	Moderate
8. Learn words through written repetition	2.71	0.92	Moderate
30. Listen to MP3/ MP4 of word lists	2.30	1.13	Low
31. Keep a vocabulary notebook wherever you go	2.12	1.16	Low
39. Use vocabulary flashcards	2.35	1.38	Low

Table 4.4 (Continued)

Cognitive Strategies	\bar{X}	S.D.	Interpretation
41. Take notes of the important points while reading	2.42	1.09	Low
Total	2.44	0.87	Low

As shown in Table 4.4, it reveals that the cognitive strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province in overall was at a low level ($\bar{X} = 2.44$, S.D.= 0.87). When considering each item used, it was found that No. 8 “Learn words through written repetition” was used most ($\bar{X} = 2.71$, S.D.= 0.92), followed by No. 5 “Learn words through verbal repetition” ($\bar{X} = 2.71$, S.D.= 1.19), while No. 31 “Keep a vocabulary notebook wherever you go” was used least ($\bar{X} = 2.12$, S.D.= 1.16), respectively.

Table 4.5 Mean, standard deviation and interpretation of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province in terms of meta-cognitive strategy (n=375)

Meta-cognitive Strategies	\bar{X}	S.D.	Interpretation
2. Listen to English songs	2.70	0.86	Moderate
3. Use English websites	2.71	0.98	Moderate

Table 4.5 (Continued)

Meta-cognitive Strategies	\bar{X}	S.D.	Interpretation
4. Watch English television programs/ English films	2.60	0.96	Moderate
16. Translate the meanings of words from English into Thai	2.97	0.96	Moderate
17. Use English printed matter	2.60	1.21	Moderate
18. Play vocabulary games	2.61	1.08	Moderate
25. Translate the meanings of words from Thai into English	2.76	1.06	Moderate
27. Test yourself with word tests	2.65	0.94	Moderate
38. Study words over time	2.44	1.10	Low
42. Practice pronunciation the words from the examples	2.64	0.95	Moderate
43. Use Thai language as basic, then speak and write the words	2.77	1.09	Moderate
Total	2.68	0.71	Moderate

As shown in Table 4.5, it reveals that the meta-cognitive strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province in overall was at a moderate level ($\bar{X} = 2.68$, S.D.= 0.71). When considering each item used, it was found that No. 16 “Translate the meanings of words from English into Thai” was used most ($\bar{X} = 2.97$, S.D.= 0.96), followed by No. 43 “Use Thai language as basic, then speak and write

the words” ($\bar{X} = 2.77$, S.D.= 1.09), and No. 25 “Translate the meanings of words from Thai into English” ($\bar{X} = 2.76$, S.D.= 1.06), while No. 38 “Study words over time” was used least ($\bar{X} = 2.44$, S.D.= 1.14), respectively.

Table 4.6 Mean, standard deviation and interpretation of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province in terms of determination strategy (n=375)

Determination Strategies	\bar{X}	S.D.	Interpretation
1. Look up words in an English-Thai dictionary	2.58	0.91	Moderate
7. Guess the meanings of words from textual context	2.77	0.93	Moderate
9. Look up words in a Thai-English dictionary	2.74	0.97	Moderate
11. Analyze affixes and roots to guess the meanings of words	2.61	0.98	Moderate
13. Analyze parts of speech to guess the meanings of words	2.60	1.09	Moderate
15. Analyze any available pictures or gestures to understand the meanings of words	2.99	1.11	Moderate
26. Look up words in an English-English dictionary	2.22	1.13	Low

Table 4.6 (Continued)

Determination Strategies	\bar{X}	S.D.	Interpretation
40. Look up words in an electronics dictionary	2.76	1.19	Moderate
Total	2.63	0.72	Moderate

As shown in Table 4.6, it reveals that the determination strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province in overall was at a moderate level ($\bar{X} = 2.63$, S.D.= 0.72). When considering each item used, it was found that No. 15 “Analyze any available pictures or gestures to understand the meanings of words” was used most ($\bar{X} = 2.99$, S.D.= 1.11), followed by No. 7 “Guess the meanings of words from textual context” ($\bar{X} = 2.77$, S.D.= 0.93), and No. 40 “Look up words in an electronics dictionary” ($\bar{X} = 2.76$, S.D.= 1.19), while No. 26 “Look up words in an English-English dictionary” was used least ($\bar{X} = 2.22$, S.D.= 1.13), respectively.

Table 4.7 Mean, standard deviation and interpretation of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province in terms of social strategy (n=375)

Social Strategies	\bar{X}	S.D.	Interpretation
6. Ask classmates to translate the meaning of words	2.61	0.96	Moderate
22. Discover new meanings through group work activities	2.71	1.08	Moderate
24. Ask teachers to translate the meaning of words	2.75	1.05	Moderate
32. Interact with classmates	2.36	1.04	Low
35. Interact with an English teacher	2.43	1.12	Low
36. Ask other people to translate the meaning of words	2.59	1.07	Moderate
37. Interact with native English speakers	2.01	0.96	Low
Total	2.50	0.72	Moderate

As shown in Table 4.7, it reveals that the social strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province in overall was at a moderate level ($\bar{X} = 2.50$, S.D.= 0.72). When considering each item used, it was found that No. 24 “Ask teachers to translate the meaning of words” was used most ($\bar{X} = 2.75$, S.D.= 1.05), followed by No. 22 “Discover new meanings through group work activities”

($\bar{X} = 2.71$, S.D.= 1.08), while No. 37 “Interact with native English speakers” was used least ($\bar{X} = 2.01$, S.D.= 0.96), respectively.

4.3 Comparing the English Vocabulary Learning Strategies Employed by Vocational Education Students in Surin Province Classified by Genders

A comparison of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by genders is presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 A comparison of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by genders

English Vocabulary Learning Strategies	Male (n=256)		Female (n=119)		t
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	
1. Memory strategy	2.55	0.87	2.69	0.49	1.93*
2. Cognitive strategy	2.34	0.95	2.64	0.63	3.60**
3. Meta-cognitive strategy	2.63	0.80	2.79	0.44	2.39*
4. Determination strategy	2.58	0.83	2.74	0.40	1.92*
5. Social strategy	2.47	0.89	2.56	0.42	1.36
Total	2.51	0.82	2.68	0.40	2.65**

* statistically significant difference at .05 level ** statistically significant difference at .01 level

As shown in Table 4.8, it reveals that the English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by

genders in overall showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level. When considering each strategy, the cognitive strategy showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level, the memory strategy, meta-cognitive strategy and determination strategy were at 0.05 level while the social strategy was not different.

The following showed the comparison of English vocabulary learning strategies used by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by genders in each strategy as shown in Tables 4.9 – 4.13 below.

Table 4.9 A comparison of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by genders in terms of memory strategy

Memory Strategies	Male (n=256)		Female (n=119)		t
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	
10. Say words aloud when studying	2.54	1.01	2.53	0.98	0.07
12. Make a group of words by topic for reviewing	2.45	1.19	2.67	0.95	1.93*
14. Study words with pictures	2.92	1.10	3.04	0.80	1.20
19. Associate the word with other words you have learned	2.50	1.02	2.61	0.71	1.26
20. Connect words to personal experiences	2.65	1.15	2.65	0.73	0.04

Table 4.9 (Continued)

Memory Strategies	Male (n=256)		Female (n=119)		t
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	
21. Remember the word from its root, prefix, and suffix	2.34	1.02	2.47	0.76	1.41
23. Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms	2.58	1.08	2.76	0.91	1.76*
28. Learn words of an idiom together	2.58	1.04	2.79	0.70	2.25*
29. Make a group of words by alphabetical order for reviewing	2.39	1.09	2.59	0.74	2.04*
33. Use words in sentences	2.53	1.06	2.71	0.80	1.90*
34. Stick the word and its meaning in a place where it can be obviously seen	2.50	1.34	2.72	1.13	1.69*
Total	2.55	0.87	2.69	0.49	1.93*

* statistically significant difference at .05 level ** statistically significant difference at .01 level

As shown in Table 4.9 above, it reveals that the memory strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by genders in overall showed statistically significant difference at 0.05 level. When considering each item, it was found items 12, 23, 28, 29, 33 and 44 showed statistically significant difference at 0.05 level while the rest items were not different.

Table 4.10 A comparison of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by genders in terms of cognitive strategy

Cognitive Strategies	Male (n=256)		Female (n=119)		t
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	
5. Learn words through verbal repetition	2.66	1.23	2.83	1.11	1.36
8. Learn words through written repetition	2.69	0.97	2.77	0.73	0.91
30. Listen to MP3/ MP4 of word lists	2.21	1.24	2.49	0.83	2.53**
31. Keep a vocabulary notebook wherever you go	2.00	1.22	2.38	0.97	3.25**
39. Use vocabulary flashcards	2.17	1.37	2.75	1.29	3.97**
41. Take notes of the important points while reading	2.37	1.22	2.53	0.76	1.56
Total	2.34	0.95	2.64	0.63	3.60**

* statistically significant difference at .05 level ** statistically significant difference at .01 level

As shown in Table 4.10 above, it reveals that the cognitive strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by genders in overall showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level. When considering each item, it was found items 30, 31 and 39 showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level while the rest items were not different.

Table 4.11 A comparison of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by genders in terms of meta-cognitive strategy

Meta-cognitive Strategies	Male (n=256)		Female (n=119)		t
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	
2. Listen to English songs	2.64	0.91	2.83	0.73	2.15*
3. Use English websites	2.64	1.02	2.86	0.87	2.13*
4. Watch English television programs/ English films	2.56	1.04	2.68	0.79	1.23
16. Translate the meanings of words from English into Thai	2.93	1.06	3.05	0.72	1.33
17. Use English printed matter	2.64	1.38	2.50	0.72	1.24
18. Play vocabulary games	2.45	1.09	2.94	0.98	4.36**
25. Translate the meanings of words from Thai into English	2.71	1.13	2.87	0.92	1.46
27. Test yourself with word tests	2.58	1.02	2.82	0.75	2.55**
38. Study words over time	2.41	1.18	2.50	0.91	0.83
42. Practice pronunciation the words from the examples	2.62	1.05	2.68	0.69	0.63
43. Use Thai language as basic, then speak and write the words	2.76	1.22	2.81	0.73	0.45
Total	2.63	0.80	2.79	0.44	2.39*

* statistically significant difference at .05 level ** statistically significant difference at .01 level

As shown in Table 4.11 above, it reveals that the meta-cognitive strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by genders in overall showed statistically significant difference at 0.05 level. When considering each item, it was found items 2 and 3 showed statistically significant difference at 0.05 level while items 18 and 27 were at 0.01 level. In contrast, the rest items were not different.

Table 4.12 A comparison of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by genders in terms of determination strategy

Determination Strategies	Male (n=256)		Female (n=119)		t
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	
1. Look up words in an English-Thai dictionary	2.45	0.93	2.83	0.84	3.92**
7. Guess the meanings of words from textual context	2.74	0.97	2.82	0.84	0.75
9. Look up words in a Thai-English dictionary	2.62	1.01	2.99	0.83	3.76**
11. Analyze affixes and roots to guess the meanings of words	2.62	1.10	2.59	0.68	0.38
13. Analyze parts of speech to guess the meanings of words	2.56	1.19	2.70	0.87	1.16

Table 4.12 (Continued)

Determination Strategies	Male (n=256)		Female (n=119)		t
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	
15. Analyze any available pictures or gestures to understand the meanings of words	2.93	1.18	3.13	0.93	1.86*
26. Look up words in an English-English dictionary	2.28	1.19	2.11	0.98	1.45
40. Look up words in an electronics dictionary	2.67	1.30	2.93	0.88	2.25*
Total	2.58	0.83	2.74	0.40	1.92*

* statistically significant difference at .05 level ** statistically significant difference at .01 level

As shown in Table 4.12 above, it reveals that the determination strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by genders in overall showed statistically significant difference at 0.05 level. When considering each item, it was found items 15 and 40 showed statistically significant difference at 0.05 level while items 1 and 9 were at 0.01 level. In contrast, the rest items were not different.

Table 4.13 A comparison of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by genders in terms of social strategy

Social Strategies	Male (n=256)		Female (n=119)		t
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	
6. Ask classmates to translate the meaning of words	2.59	1.04	2.66	0.77	0.79
22. Discover new meanings through group work activities	2.68	1.21	2.77	0.73	0.94
24. Ask teachers to translate the meaning of words	2.70	1.11	2.87	0.88	1.57
32. Interact with classmates	2.31	1.13	2.46	0.80	1.50
35. Interact with an English teacher	2.41	1.21	2.48	0.93	0.63
36. Ask other people to translate the meaning of words	2.57	1.75	2.63	0.80	0.59
37. Interact with native English speakers	2.00	1.10	2.03	0.60	0.24
Total	2.47	0.89	2.56	0.42	1.36

* statistically significant difference at .05 level ** statistically significant difference at .01 level

As shown in Table 4.13 above, it reveals that the memory strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by genders both in overall and each item were not different.

4.4 Comparing the English Vocabulary Learning Strategies Employed by Vocational Education Students in Surin Province Classified by Fields of Study

A comparison of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by fields of study is presented in Table 4.14 below.

Table 4.14 A comparison of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students classified by fields of study

English vocabulary learning strategies	Technical (n=259)		Business (n=116)		t
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	
1. Memory strategy	2.53	0.86	2.75	0.51	3.10**
2. Cognitive strategy	2.31	0.91	2.74	0.68	4.62**
3. Meta-cognitive strategy	2.62	0.78	2.83	0.47	3.23**
4. Determination strategy	2.57	0.82	2.77	0.43	2.97**
3. Social strategy	2.44	0.86	2.62	0.51	2.49**
Total	2.49	0.80	2.74	0.46	3.79**

** statistically significant difference at .01 level

As shown in Table 4.14, it reveals that the English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students classified by fields of study both in overall and each strategy showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level.

Table 4.15 A comparison of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students classified by fields of study in terms of memory strategy

Memory strategies	Technical (n=259)		Business (n=116)		t
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	
10. Say words aloud when studying	2.53	1.04	2.57	0.93	0.41
12. Make a group of words by topic for reviewing	2.44	1.24	2.71	0.76	2.56**
14. Study words with pictures	2.88	1.09	3.16	0.78	2.82**
19. Associate the word with other words you have learned	2.49	1.01	2.64	0.72	1.62
20. Connect words to personal experiences	2.64	1.15	2.67	0.71	0.32
21. Remember the word from its root, prefix, and suffix	2.37	1.03	2.40	0.72	0.24
23. Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms	2.58	1.14	2.77	0.69	1.97*
28. Learn words of an idiom together	2.57	0.97	2.84	0.87	2.66**
29. Make a group of words by alphabetical order for reviewing	2.37	0.98	2.66	0.99	2.62**
33. Use words in sentences	2.46	0.96	2.88	0.99	3.87**

Table 4.15 (Continued)

Memory strategies	Technical (n=259)		Business (n=116)		t
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	
34. Stick the word and its meaning in a place where it can be obviously seen	2.40	1.32	2.96	1.10	4.28**
Total	2.53	0.86	2.75	0.51	3.10**

* statistically significant difference at .05 level ** statistically significant difference at .01 level

As shown in Table 4.14 above, it reveals that the memory strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by fields of study in overall showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level. When considering each item, it was found items 12, 14, 28, 29, 33 and 34 showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level while item 2 was at 0.05 level. In contrast, the rest items were not different.

Table 4.16 A comparison of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students classified by fields of study in terms of cognitive strategy

Cognitive strategies	Technical (n=259)		Business (n=116)		t
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	
5. Learn words through verbal repetition	2.69	1.28	2.78	0.97	0.74

Table 4.16 (Continued)

Cognitive strategies	Technical (n=259)		Business (n=116)		t
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	
8. Learn words through written repetition	2.68	0.97	2.80	0.78	1.33
30. Listen to MP3/ MP4 of word lists	2.17	1.17	2.58	0.99	3.45**
31. Keep a vocabulary notebook wherever you go	1.94	1.13	2.53	1.15	4.65**
39. Use vocabulary flashcards	2.05	1.25	3.03	1.39	6.82**
41. Take notes of the important points while reading	2.34	1.15	2.61	0.93	2.46*
Total	2.31	0.91	2.74	0.68	4.62**

* statistically significant difference at .05 level ** statistically significant difference at .01 level

As shown in Table 4.15 above, it reveals that the cognitive strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by fields of study in overall showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level. When considering each item, it was found items 30, 31 and 39 showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level while item 41 was at 0.05 level. In contrast, the rest items were not different.

Table 4.17 A comparison of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students classified by fields of study in terms of meta-cognitive strategy

English vocabulary learning strategies	Technical (n=259)		Business (n=116)		t
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	
2. Listen to English songs	2.59	0.89	2.95	0.71	3.76**
3. Use English websites	2.63	1.02	2.88	0.86	2.42*
4. Watch English television programs/ English films	2.45	0.94	2.92	0.95	4.45**
16. Translate the meanings of words from English into Thai	2.94	1.06	3.02	0.69	0.70
17. Use English printed matter	2.70	1.36	2.37	0.70	2.45*
18. Play vocabulary games	2.44	1.09	2.99	0.96	4.92**
25. Translate the meanings of words from Thai into English	2.78	1.12	2.72	0.92	0.62
27. Test yourself with word tests	2.52	0.93	2.95	0.89	4.22**
38. Study words over time	2.32	1.09	2.70	1.08	3.08**
42. Practice pronunciation the words from the examples	2.60	0.98	2.74	0.87	1.42
43. Use Thai language as basic, then speak and write the words	2.77	1.16	2.78	0.90	0.15
Total	2.62	0.78	2.83	0.47	3.23**

* statistically significant difference at .05 level ** statistically significant difference at .01 level

As shown in Table 4.16 above, it reveals that the meta-cognitive strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by fields of study in overall showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level. When considering each item, it was found items 2, 4, 18, 27 and 38 showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level while items 3 and 17 were at 0.05 level. In contrast, the rest items were not different.

Table 4.18 A comparison of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students classified by fields of study in terms of determination strategy

English vocabulary learning strategies	Technical (n=259)		Business (n=116)		t
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	
1. Look up words in an English-Thai dictionary	2.41	0.89	2.95	0.84	5.62**
7. Guess the meanings of words from textual context	2.78	1.04	2.74	0.65	0.44
9. Look up words in a Thai-English dictionary	2.60	1.00	3.05	0.83	4.58**
11. Analyze affixes and roots to guess the meanings of words	2.59	1.02	2.67	0.89	0.82
13. Analyze parts of speech to guess the meanings of words	2.53	1.16	2.76	0.92	2.02*

Table 4.18 (Continued)

English vocabulary learning strategies	Technical (n=259)		Business (n=116)		t
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	
15. Analyze any available pictures or gestures to understand the meanings of words	2.92	1.21	3.15	0.80	2.11*
26. Look up words in an English-English dictionary	2.42	1.17	1.78	0.88	5.95**
40. Look up words in an electronics dictionary	2.57	1.22	3.18	1.01	5.10**
Total	2.57	0.82	2.77	0.43	2.97**

* statistically significant difference at .05 level ** statistically significant difference at .01 level

As shown in Table 4.17 above, it reveals that the determination strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by fields of study in overall showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level. When considering each item, it was found items 1, 9, 26 and 40 showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level while items 13 and 15 were at 0.05 level. In contrast, the rest items were not different.

Table 4.19 A comparison of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students classified by fields of study in terms of social strategy

English vocabulary learning strategies	Technical (n=259)		Business (n=116)		t
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	
6. Ask classmates to translate the meaning of words	2.62	1.06	2.60	0.72	0.15
22. Discover new meanings through group work activities	2.64	1.20	2.87	0.75	2.25*
24. Ask teachers to translate the meaning of words	2.68	1.11	2.92	0.86	2.30**
32. Interact with classmates	2.28	1.06	2.54	0.97	2.33**
35. Interact with an English teacher	2.39	1.21	2.53	0.89	1.25
36. Ask other people to translate the meaning of words	2.53	1.12	2.73	0.93	1.83*
37. Interact with native English speakers	1.95	1.00	2.14	0.88	1.79*
Total	2.44	0.86	2.62	0.51	2.49**

* statistically significant difference at .05 level ** statistically significant difference at .01 level

As shown in Table 4.18 above, it reveals that the social strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by fields of study in overall showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level. When considering each item,

it was found items 24 and 32 showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level while items 22, 36 and 37 were at 0.05 level. In contrast, the rest items were not different.

4.5 Summary of the Chapter

In this summary, this chapter has presented the results of this study based on the questionnaire used as the data collection instrument. The findings of the study will be summarized and discussed in the next chapter. Recommendations will also be provided for further research.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents a summary of the study, a summary of the finding discussions of the finding, implications from the findings, and recommendations for future studies provided in the last section of this Chapter.

5.1 Summary of the Findings

The objectives of this study were 1) to study English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province, and 2) to compare vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province, classified by their genders and fields of study.

The research questions of this study were 1) What are English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province?, and 2) Are there any differences of English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by genders and fields of study? If so, how?

The population of this study consisted of 11,384 vocational education students who enrolled in the first semester of academic year 2019 from 8 institutes in Surin Province: 1) Surin Technical College, 2) Surin Vocational College, 3) Surin Polytechnic College, 4) Thatum Industrial and Community Education College, 5) Sikhoraphum Industrial and Community Education College, 6) Prasat Industrial and

Community Education College, 7) Sangkha Industrial and Community Education College, and 8) Rattanaaburi Technology and Management College.

The samples were 375 students of vocational education institutes in Surin Province in the first semester of academic year 2019. They were selected by using the table of Krejcie and Morgan (1978), stratified random sampling, and simple random sampling, respectively.

The instrument used in this study was a questionnaire. This questionnaire was adapted from Schmitt (1997), Siriwan (2007) and Nirattisai (2014). It consisted of three sections: personal profile, statement section. In section one, the samples were asked to answer some general questions concerning themselves, including genders, year levels, fields of study and grade point average. In section two, the samples were requested to fill in the English vocabulary learning strategy questionnaire with 43 statements. The 43 items were divided into five major categories of vocabulary learning strategies: 12 items in memory strategy, 5 items in cognitive strategy, 10 items in meta-cognitive strategy, 9 items in determination strategy, and 7 items in social strategy. The samples were asked to report their use of English vocabulary learning strategies on a four-point scale by ticking the number: rarely true for me=1, sometimes true for me=2, often true for me=3, and always true for me=4. The higher number indicated a more frequent use of the strategy concerned. The instrument was tried out with a non-sample group of 50 vocational education students at Surin Technical College. The reliability value of the questionnaire was 0.947 that can be used with the sample group.

Before the vocational education students started to work on the questionnaire, the researchers explained in Thai. The research data were kept confidentially. A consent form for taking a questionnaire was distributed to all students. Only the students who agreed to participate in the study signed the forms. Then the participants completed the questionnaire. The students were allowed to ask the researchers about technical questions or unclear information in the questionnaire during the survey. The entire procedure of administering this part was about 60 minutes each class met, including the time spent on instructions and consent forms.

In data analysis, Alpha Coefficient of Cronbach was used to calculate the reliability of the questionnaire. The collected data from questionnaire were analyzed by using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) to find the descriptive statistics (frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation). The details of each part consisted of the respondent's information including gender, and fields of study which were analyzed by using frequency and percentage. The obtained data from questionnaire were analyzed by mean and standard deviation and criteria were compared with for interpretation by Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995). The content analysis was also conducted of analyzing the samples suggestions form.

The findings could be summarized as follows:

1. The English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province in overall was at a moderate level. When considering each strategy used, it was found that the cognitive strategy was reported at the low level while the rest strategies were at the moderate level.

2. The English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by genders in overall showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level. When considering each strategy, the cognitive strategy showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level, the memory strategy, meta-cognitive strategy and determination strategy were at 0.05 level while the social strategy was not different.

3. The English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students classified by fields of study both in overall and each strategy showed statistically significant difference at 0.01 level.

5.2 Discussion of the Findings

The findings from this present investigation can be discussed in the following points.

5.2.1 English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province

The findings revealed that the use of English vocabulary learning strategies of vocational education students both in overall and each strategy was at the moderate level, except cognitive strategy was reported at the low level. This may be explained by the fact that the findings may be related to the neglect of explicit teaching and learning of vocabulary (Hedge, 2000; Schmitt, 1997). In Thailand, especially in vocational colleges, vocabulary has not received attention as a subject, but is taught as a part of listening, speaking, reading and writing (Nirattisai & Chiramanee. 2014). Therefore, a lack of attention to vocabulary learning and teaching appears to be a key

factor affecting students' use of vocabulary learning strategies. This finding is similar to Siriwan (2007) who mentioned that Rajabhat University students, as a whole, reported medium frequency of strategy use for their vocabulary learning strategies and the learners are keen in using them. In terms of each strategy used, it was found that the meta-cognitive strategy was used the most, followed by determination strategy, memory strategy, social strategy, and cognitive strategy, respectively. This finding is in line with Siriwan (2007) who found that metacognitive strategy was most frequently used while the cognitive strategy was reported to use at the least.

5.2.2 Comparing the English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by genders

The findings showed that there are statistically significant differences between male and female students in using the English vocabulary learning strategies both in overall and in each strategy. The findings are similar to Jones (2006), Siriwan (2007), and Seddigh (2012) who reported that female and male students differ significantly in strategy employing. These studies mentioned that females tend to use vocabulary learning strategies more often than males. This could possibly be explanations for such significant differences appear to be linked to different gender and learning style preferences. Females appear to employ more vocabulary learning strategies, not only in interaction in the classroom, but also in interaction in the real world, such as working cooperatively with peers to obtain feedback; asking questions to obtain clarification; requesting repetition, explanation, or examples which can be seen in the studies by Ehrman and Oxford (1989); Oxford and Nyikos (1989) . On the other hand, males employed visual and tactile learning strategies as indicated by Reid (1987), and

utilization of media as well as computer programs in English as a source of the target language input (Intaraprasert. 2000).

5.2.3 Comparing English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students in Surin Province classified by fields of study

The findings showed that there are statistically significant differences at 0.05 level between technical field and business field in using the English vocabulary learning strategies both in overall and in each strategy. This could possibly be drawn out to explain such significant differences that have been hypothesized by the researchers involving nature of the major field of study (major-based) and students' learning style preference. That means the vocational education students who are in the field of business realized that they have to use more English both in their lessons and future works; therefore, they have to learn vocabulary in order to master English language learning. This result is consistent with Gu (2002) who revealed the difference in strategy used between science and arts students in which science students tended to employ strategies such as relying on visual coding more frequently than arts students. The findings in this study were consistent with Mingsakoon (2002) who discovered that science students employed VLS differently from the arts students. The VLS use of English and non-English major students are also examined. For example, Liao (2004) found that students studying in English and non-English employed VLS differently. The results were consistent with Chiang's (2004) and Zhang's (2009) studies. In addition, the VLS use of students in other disciplines was also investigated. In the study done by Bernardo and Gonzales (2009), it was found

that the use of determination and social VLSs was significantly different among the Filipino students across five disciplines; Liberal Arts and Education; Computer Science and Engineering; Business Education; Hospitality Management and Allied Medical Science. Also, it is in line with Puagsang and Intharaksa (2017) who conducted the study about vocabulary learning strategies employed by 242 vocational students studying in three fields: engineering, accounting, and hotel and tourism from five government vocational colleges in Krabi Province, Thailand, and found that the vocabulary learning strategies use varied based on a participant's fields of study with statistical significance at 0.05 level.

5.3 Pedagogical Implications

5.3.1 The findings showed that the vocational education students have common and discrepancy in using English vocabulary learning strategies. Therefore, we should teach students in accordance with their aptitude and strengthen guidance and training of their vocabulary learning strategy use.

5.3.2 The present study showed that English vocabulary learning strategies employed by vocational education students used most vocabulary learning strategies at the moderate level. Therefore, teachers should inform them the importance of vocabulary learning strategies that all types of strategies can help them improve their vocabulary learning.

5.3.3 Since the English vocabulary learning strategies can help vocational education students in vocabulary learning, therefore, English teachers should tell and teach them the advantages of vocabulary learning strategies. Also, teachers should tell

the students how to select and use the English vocabulary learning strategies appropriately.

5.3.4 The results of this study proved that meta-cognitive strategy use is of crucial importance for improving students' vocabulary learning. Teachers should, therefore, help language learners acquire and consciously focus on using the meta-cognitive strategies.

5.4 Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the findings of this study, the following suggestions for future research are given:

5.4.1 The present study conducted with the vocational education students. The future research may be conducted with different levels of students such as primary, secondary and university levels.

5.4.2 The present research compared the similarities and differences of English vocabulary learning strategies classified by genders and fields of study. It might be possible to compare and study the relationship of English vocabulary learning strategies classified by other factors such as the English proficiency and learning styles of students in the future research.

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APPENDIX A

The Letter Requesting to be on Experts for the Research Instruments

มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏสุราษฎร์ธานี
Buriram Rajabhat University

APPENDIX B

**The Formal Letters for Asking Permission to try-out the Research
Instruments**

มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏสุราษฎร์ธานี
Buriram Rajabhat University

APPENDIX C

The Formal Letters for Asking Permission to Collect the Research Data

มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏสุราษฎร์ธานี
Buriram Rajabhat University

APPENDIX D

VLS-Questionnaire

มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏสุราษฎร์ธานี
Buriram Rajabhat University

APPENDICES

มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏสุราษฎร์ธานี
Buriram Rajabhat University

แบบสอบถามเพื่อการวิจัย

กลวิธีการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนอาชีวศึกษาในจังหวัดสุรินทร์

คำชี้แจง

แบบสอบถามนี้จัดทำเพื่อสำรวจกลวิธีการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนอาชีวศึกษาจังหวัดสุรินทร์ คำตอบของท่านจะเป็นประโยชน์อย่างยิ่งในการนำมาวิเคราะห์ เพื่อนำผลการสำรวจไปพัฒนาสื่อการเรียนการสอน คำศัพท์สำหรับนักเรียนอาชีวศึกษาในจังหวัดสุรินทร์ต่อไป อนึ่ง คำตอบของท่านจะถือเป็นความลับ และจะนำเสนอ โดย ภาพรวมเท่านั้น ในการนี้ จึงใคร่ขอความร่วมมือจากท่านในการตอบแบบสอบถาม และขอขอบคุณท่านที่ให้ความร่วมมือ ในการตอบแบบสอบถามในครั้งนี้ด้วย

แบบสอบถามฉบับนี้ แบ่งออกเป็น 3 ตอน ได้แก่

ตอนที่ 1 ข้อมูลทั่วไปของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

ตอนที่ 2 ระดับการใช้กลวิธีการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ภาษา

อังกฤษ ตอนที่ 3 ความคิดเห็นและข้อเสนอแนะอื่นๆ

ตอนที่ 1 ข้อมูลทั่วไปของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

1. เพศ () ชาย () หญิง
2. ระดับชั้น () 1 () 2 () 3
ปี () ช่างยนต์ () ช่างกลโรงงาน () ช่างเชื่อมโลหะ
3. สาขาวิชา () ช่างไฟฟ้ากำลัง () ช่างอิเล็กทรอนิกส์ () ช่างก่อสร้าง
() ช่างสำรวจ () ช่างโยธา () บัญชี
() ช่างเทคนิคคอมพิวเตอร์ () การตลาด () เลขานุการ
() คอมพิวเตอร์ธุรกิจ () เทคโนโลยีศิลปกรรม () การโรงแรม
() คอมพิวเตอร์กราฟิก () แฟชั่นสิ่งทอ () การท่องเที่ยว
() อาหารและโภชนาการ () พืชศาสตร์
4. เกรดเฉลี่ย
5. ระดับความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษ
() อ่อน () ปานกลาง
() ดี () ดีมาก

ตอนที่ 2 ระดับการใช้กลวิธีการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษ

คำชี้แจง โปรดใส่เครื่องหมาย / ลงในช่องที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นของท่านที่เกี่ยวกับระดับการใช้กลวิธีการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ แต่ละข้อ โดยในแต่ละระดับมีความหมายดังนี้

“ใช้เป็นประจำ/ เกือบเป็นประจำ” หมายความว่า นักศึกษาใช้กลวิธีการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษสม่ำเสมอทุกวัน หรือเกือบทุกวัน

“บ่อยๆ” หมายความว่า นักศึกษาใช้กลวิธีการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษ 3-4 วันต่อสัปดาห์

“ในบางครั้ง” หมายความว่า นักศึกษาใช้กลวิธีการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษ 1-2 วันต่อสัปดาห์

“ไม่เคย” หมายความว่า นักศึกษาไม่เคยใช้ใช้กลวิธีการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษเลย

ข้อ	ข้อความ	ระดับการใช้กลวิธีเรียนการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์			
		ภาษาอังกฤษ			
		เป็นประจำ/เกือบ เป็นประจำ	บ่อยๆ	บางครั้ง	ไม่เคย
1.	ค้นหาคำศัพท์ในพจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษ - ภาษาไทย				
2.	ฟังภาษาอังกฤษ				
3.	ใช้เว็บไซต์ภาษาอังกฤษ				
4.	ดูรายการโทรทัศน์ภาษาอังกฤษ / ภาพยนตร์ภาษาอังกฤษ				
5.	เรียนรู้คำศัพท์ผ่านการทำ พูดซ้ำๆ				
6.	ขอร้องให้เพื่อนแปลความหมายของคำให้				
7.	เดาคความหมายของคำจากบริบทเชิงข้อความ				
8.	เรียนรู้คำศัพท์ผ่านการเขียนซ้ำๆ				
9.	ค้นหาคำศัพท์ในพจนานุกรมไทย - อังกฤษ				
10.	พูดคำออกมาดัง ๆ เมื่อเรียน				
11.	วิเคราะห์คำและรากศัพท์เพื่อเดาคความหมายของคำ				
12.	จัดกลุ่มคำตามหัวข้อเพื่อทบทวน				
13.	วิเคราะห์ชนิดของคำ (Parts of speech) เพื่อเดาคความหมายของคำ				
14.	ศึกษาคำศัพท์ด้วยรูปภาพ				
15.	วิเคราะห์รูปภาพหรือท่าทางที่มีอยู่เพื่อทำความเข้าใจคความหมายของคำ				
16.	แปลคความหมายของคำจากภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาไทย				
17.	ใช้สิ่งพิมพ์ภาษาอังกฤษ				
18.	เล่นเกมคำศัพท์				
19.	เชื่อมโยงคำกับคำอื่น ๆ ที่ได้เรียนรู้มาแล้ว				
20.	เชื่อมต่อคำจากประสบการณ์ของตัวเอง				
21.	จำคำจาก รากศัพท์ (Root) อุปสรรค (Prefix) และปัจจัย (Suffix)				
22.	ค้นคความหมายใหม่โดยผ่านกิจกรรมการทำงานกลุ่ม				
23.	เชื่อมต่อคำกับคำที่มีความหมายเดียวกันและคำที่มีคความหมายตรงกันข้าม				
24.	ขอร้องให้ครูแปลคความหมายของคำให้				
25.	แปลคความหมายของคำจากภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ				
26.	ค้นหาคำในพจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษ - ภาษาอังกฤษ				

ข้อ	ข้อความ	ระดับการใช้กลวิธีเรียนการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ ภาษาอังกฤษ			
		เป็นประจำ/เกือบ เป็นประจำ	บ่อยๆ	บางครั้ง	ไม่เคย
27.	ทดสอบด้วยการทดสอบคำศัพท์				
28.	เรียนรู้คำศัพท์และจำนวนไปพร้อม ๆ กัน				
29.	จัดกลุ่มคำตามลำดับตัวอักษรเพื่อตรวจสอบ				
30.	ฟังเทปรายการคำ				
31.	พกสมุดบันทึกคำศัพท์ทุกที่ที่คุณไป				
32.	โต้ตอบกับเพื่อนร่วมชั้น				
33.	ใช้คำในประโยค				
34.	ติดคำและความหมายไว้ในที่ที่สามารถมองเห็นได้ชัดเจน				
35.	โต้ตอบกับครูสอนภาษาอังกฤษ				
36.	ขอให้คนอื่นแปลความหมายของคำให้				
37.	โต้ตอบกับเจ้าของภาษา				
38.	ศึกษาคำศัพท์ตลอดเวลา				
39.	ใช้บัตรคำศัพท์ (Flash card)				
40.	ใช้พจนานุกรมอิเล็กทรอนิกส์				
41.	จดบันทึกประเด็นสำคัญขณะที่อ่าน				
42.	ฝึกการฟังและการพูดตามตัวอย่าง ด้วยการพูดออกเสียง				
43.	ใช้ภาษาไทยเป็นฐานในการคิดแล้วจึงพูดหรือเขียน				

ตอนที่ 3 ความคิดเห็นและข้อเสนอแนะอื่นๆ

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ขอบคุณที่ให้ความร่วมมือในการตอบ
แบบสอบถาม นางสาวพัชรกิติ์ ผลโพธิ์
นักศึกษาสาขาวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ ระดับปริญญาโท
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