

1 Perceptual Learning Styles of Medical Sciences Students

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5 **Abstract**

6 This study, conducted in Iran, reports on research into perceptual learning style of medical
7 sciences students generally and that of Students of Medicine (SM) and Anesthesiology (SA) in
8 particular. Results revealed that the students' preferred learning styles were tactile and
9 kinesthetic followed by visual and auditory but individual and group preferences were at the
10 lowest. Females of the two fields were stronger than males in 5 domains. Female SM were
11 better in all 6 areas of learning compared to female SA. Male SA, compared to their female
12 peers, however, were better motivated and thus more oriented toward their field and future
13 profession. The findings can have some implications for curriculum development, material
14 development, teacher training courses, and class management. Moreover, by having an
15 awareness of our students' learning styles, classes can be placed into homogeneous groups and
16 expose each to their most preferred learning orientation and even work on and improve the
17 learners' least preferred styles from the other end of the continuum.

19 **Index terms**— perceptual learning style, tactile, kinesthetic, auditory, visual.

20 **1 Introduction**

21 eing replete with and idealized in terms of administrative and pedagogical perspectives, contemporary practices
22 in education have in many occasions been plagued by lack of attention to learners' learning orientation and thus
23 lack of adoption of an anticipated and felicitous approach in the classes. Moreover, language awareness has taken
24 several forms of conceptualization by the educationalists and methodologists; in this regard, awareness, noticing,
25 and attention to particular properties of language have come to enjoy some relevance in language learning and
26 teaching. In its specific concept, language awareness may refer to a form of consciousness-raising whereby learners'
27 attention is drawn to those aspects of language on which they possibly mostly linger. This may virtually arise,
28 at least in some settings, some doubt on using this technique as it can somehow remind us the socalled outlawed,
29 notorious, incongruous aspects of grammar translation method and other prescriptivist approaches that suggest
30 learners' preprogrammed syllabi of what to do and not to do in an L2 learning Authors ? ? ¥ : Shahid Sadoughi
31 University of Medical Sciences, Yazd, Iran. E-mail : mozayan38@yahoo.com Authors ? ? : Islamic Azad
32 University -Science and Research Branch, Tehran, Iran. context (Lier, 2001). This is actually not the case if we
33 however, appear to distinguish, as ??iddowson rightly (1990) does, between a natural milieu for language learning
34 and what really happens within the confines of a second language classroom. To Widdowson, replication in the
35 classroom of the conditions for natural communicative use of language is mistaken for two critical reasons: "First
36 to do so is to deny the whole purpose of pedagogy, which is to contrive economical and more effective means for
37 language learner ?. Second, natural language use typically deflects attention from language itself and presupposes
38 knowledge of the language system as a basic resource which learners have, by definition, not yet acquired." In
39 this regard, Brown (2007) points to the facilitating role of the teachers in L2 settings and sets forth ways on how
40 to increment learners' awareness so as to depart from the near-naturalness, as some assert, of the communicative
41 situations. In a chapter entitled, "The Post Method Era: toward informed approaches," Brown (ibid) introduces
42 his own terminology for autonomy of the learners in L2 context as 'strategic investment' and goes on to explain
43 that "students are given opportunities to focus on their own learning process through raising awareness of their
44

3 METHODOLOGY A) SETTING

45 own styles of learning (strengths, weaknesses, preferences) and through the development of appropriate strategies
46 for production and comprehension." Lier (2001) points to three fundamental reasons as sources underscoring
47 language awareness: 1) language awareness movement initiated in the early 1980s in the UK; 2) consciousness-
48 raising, focus on form, and various approaches to explicit teaching and metalinguistic awareness; and 3) critical
49 perspectives on language and discourse. In Widdowson's (1990) viewpoint, a distinction has fundamentally been
50 made in reality between 'authoritarian' and 'authoritative' perspectives of instructional enterprises as the former
51 refers to the superior position taken by the instructors to exert complete dominance and power thereby adopting
52 a prescriptionist surveillance over the proceedings of the class whereas in the latter the teacher acts as a person
53 who is skilled and has special expertise in nearly directing the class through multiple tasks appealing to a large
54 swath of learners; this is to be the goal of most post-method enlightened educational settings.

55 2 B

56 For adults, learners' preferences in how to come to grips with a language were not usually detected in traditional
57 classroom settings. Learners were typically left on their own to find the root to their success. Today, though,
58 it is asserted that learners demonstrate varying orientations and styles that bring with them to the learning
59 environment the awareness of which is a prerequisite for efficient and appropriate grasp of an L2. (Nunan, 1999;
60 Eightbown and Spada, 2003).

61 Styles, by definition are "related to personality (such as extroversion, self-esteem, anxiety) or to cognition
62 (such as left/right orientation, ambiguity tolerance, field sensitivity), characterizing the consistent and enduring
63 traits, tendencies or preferences that may differentiate you from another person" (Brown, 2007). Styles have been
64 identified to be more fixed and immutable than strategies which are specific techniques and activities adopted
65 by the learners to deal with a difficult task in a particular learning context. And as Kumaradivelu (2006) points,
66 learners have to identify their learning styles so as to become aware of their strengths and weaknesses as language
67 learners. Also as Scrivener (2011) identifies, picking up signals from students can assist teachers' orientation in
68 squaring their teaching career with most learners' learning traits. As to learning styles, a distinction has often
69 been made, as Oxford (2003) argues, between sensory preferences and personality orientations. For the former,
70 she refers to 'visual, auditory, kinesthetic (movement oriented), and tactile (touch-oriented)' propensity of learners
71 in learning whereas for the latter she identifies individuals as 'introverted vs. extroverted; intuitive-random vs.
72 a sensing sequential; thinking vs. feeling; and closureoriented -judging vs. open/perceiving. ' Moore et al
73 (2007), however, contend that "the most popular typology of learning styles comes famously from Kolb (1984)
74 who through his research and analysis has divided learners into four key categories according to the following
75 styles: reflectors, activists, theorists, and pragmatics." Ellis (2008) by referring to an extant distinction between
76 learning style and cognitive style, first made by Dörnyei, which to him contributes to resolving a contradiction
77 in literature, states that, "cognitive styles are seen as relatively fixed? but learning styles are often seen as
78 mutable, changing according to experience, and potentially trainable." Ellis (ibid) goes on with the concept of
79 field independence/dependence as the instances of cognitive style, initially put forth by general psychology, the
80 first of which captures analytical orientation and association with tests of formal language learning whereas the
81 second, i.e. field dependence, pertains to a global orientation and concern for mostly informal and communicative
82 tests. Leveling some criticism at GEFT (Group Embedded Figures Test), developed by Witkins and his associates
83 (1971) as a measure of field independence/dependence and referring to its inadequacy in determining a proper
84 and acceptable differentiation between these two modes, Ellis refers to a very different approach for measuring
85 cognitive style developed by Riding (1991). For Riding, the distinction has been made in accordance with
86 holistic -analytic learning dimension "distinguish[ing] individuals in terms of whether they preferred to organize
87 information as an integrated whole or as a set of parts making up the whole. This corresponds closely to the
88 FI/FD distinction" (ibid).

89 A Gass and Selinker, 2008). And provided the styles of learning are accommodated, learning conditions and
90 attitude towards learning can be improved. Once the students have identified their own tendencies, they will be
91 given choices from a range of options commensurate with their experience to pave the way for learner-centered
92 classes Cook (1999) has put it rightly saying, "[s]tudents do not like classes in which they sit passively, reading
93 or translating. They do not like classes where the teacher controls everything. They do not like reading English
94 literature much, even when they are literature majors. Thus it is clear that the great majority of university
95 English classes are failing to satisfy learner needs in any way." Therefore, the instructors main responsibility
96 could certainly be creating a favorable learning environment that would zero in on learner-centered approaches
97 emerged from an understanding about learners orientation. Dunn et al (1989) developed a measure of learning
98 style termed Productivity Environmental Preference Survey which identifies learning style in four different areas:
99 environmental, emotional, sociological, and physical stimuli. This questionnaire surveys preferences of the learners
100 in 20 different modalities related to these areas. Some other measures, however, have been specifically designed
101 to investigate language learners (Reid, 1987)

102 3 Methodology a) Setting

103 This study was conducted in the Medical Faculty of Yazd Shahid Sadoughi University of Medical Sciences
104 (SSUMS) in Iran. The English department of this university offers English language courses such as pre-university,

105 general, and EAP courses for all the medical, dentistry, pharmacy, paramedical and nursing disciplines. The
106 English courses are designed to prepare students to excel mainly in reading comprehension skill so as to be able
107 to deal with texts during or even after graduation and thus keep up with new developments in their disciplines.

108 **4 b) Instrument**

109 In this research, the perceptual learning style (PLS) preference of medical sciences students was assessed using
110 Perceptual Learning-Style Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ) designed by Joy Reid (1984) which is reported to
111 have a high reliability by peacock (2001).

112 **5 c) Participants**

113 The participants of the present study were 107 Iranian medical sciences students (out of 108 but one student
114 was eliminated through data cleaning): 78 (72.9%) Students of Medicine (SM), and 29 (27.1%) Students of
115 Anesthesiology (SA). Of all the participants, there were 34 (31.8%) males, and 73(68.3%) females.

116 **6 III.**

117 **7 Design and Procedure**

118 The PLSPQ designed by Reid (1984) is a multiitem questionnaire which assesses learning styles of the students in
119 six different domains: visual, auditory, tactile, kinesthetic, group and individual, and for each learning category
120 there are 5 questions. The reason for applying this questionnaire is multifaceted; it is easy both to administer and
121 to interpret, it is self-scoring, it has easily reportable scales, and it is of high cited and acceptable reliability and
122 validity. Nonetheless the Cronbach alpha of the questionnaire was also determined through a pilot study with the
123 participation of 48 students is Yazd University of Medical Sciences (? =0.73). This questionnaire assesses visual
124 (learning with eyes), auditory (learning with ears), tactile (hands on activities), kinesthetic (physical activities)
125 individual (working alone) and group (cooperation with others) learning preferences through a 5-point Likert
126 scale (5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=undecided, 2=disagree, 1=strongly disagree). Anyway after getting assured
127 of the scale's applicability, the participants were asked to fill out the questionnaire. Data were than collected and
128 analyzed through SPSS. Alpha level was set at ? < 0.05. The first table summarizes the frequency distribution
129 of the participants. Table 2 represents mean, median, and standard deviation (SD) related to all the 6 styles of
130 learning in 107 students and, as it is evident, the mostly preferred learning style was tactile (38.95 ± 6.03) followed
131 by kinesthetic (37.36 ± 6.35), and then visual (37.32 ± 5.95) whereas individual (32.76 ± 8.1) and group (32.99 ± 8.90)
132 styles ranked the lowest respectively. Table 3 indicates mean and SD of the students on the basis of their
133 gender representing that the females (F) rank higher on the 5 domains of visual, tactile, auditory, kinesthetic,
134 and group compared to males (M); the difference, however, is shown to be statistically significant only in group
135 domain ($F=34.43 \pm 9.1 > M=29.88 \pm 7.62$, $P=0.013$). For individual domain, though, males ($M=34.94 \pm 8.44 > F=31.72 \pm 7.79$ $p=$)
136 indicate a greater preference showing a trend toward significance. ($p=0.056$). The results
137 illustrated in table 5 demonstrates the aforementioned preference of the male students in terms of their field of
138 study. It shows a higher mean score for tactile, kinesthetic, and individual styles among the Students of Medicine
139 (SM) but for other styles (i.e., group, auditory, and visual), Students of Anesthesiology (SA) rank higher. In
140 none of the domains, however, the difference is significant. Table 6 is indicative of the preference of the female
141 SM in all the six learning styles compared to female SA with a significant difference related to kinesthetic style
142 (SM= 39.40 ± 5.83 , SA= 34.86 ± 6.9 , $P=0.005$).

143 **8 IV.**

144 **9 Results**

145 **10 Perceptual Learning Styles of Medical Sciences Students**

146 V.

147 **11 Discussion and Conclusion**

148 As the results of the research suggest, tactile and kinesthetic learning styles gained higher mean scores among the
149 students of medical sciences whereas group and individual styles ranked the lowest. In a study by Reid (1987)

150 **12 ()**

151 students with disparate cultural aspects were investigated, the kinesthetic and tactile learning styles came to be
152 known as the preferred learning styles of the learners respectively thus being somehow consonant with the results
153 of ours. Mulalic et al (2009) also investigated the perceptual learning style of ESL students in Malaysia. Their
154 results demonstrated kinesthetic as the preferred style of the ESL learners (somehow in line with our study),
155 visual, auditory, and group learning were ranked as minor, but tactile was reported to be the negative preference
156 of the learners which is inconsistent with the results of ours. This can be attributed to the fact that ESL learners
157 are far less concerned in their academic life with hands-on activities compared to medical sciences students.

158 Seifouri and Zarei's (2011) study on the Iranian EFL students conducted to detect the relationship between
159 their learning styles and multiple intelligences also found that the students strongly relied on kinesthetic capacity
160 followed by auditory style. Perhaps the reason behind auditory style positioning the second stance in their study
161 is that EFL students in Iran are concerned more than medical students in their college life with auditory activities
162 to improve at least their listening abilities; medical sciences students took the fourth stance for this (auditory)
163 style, and perhaps in view of having many practical and laboratory courses, tactile turned out to be the strongest
164 style with these students.

165 Interestingly enough, as it is evident from their grade point averages, female students of medicine and
166 anesthesiology, compared to males, are much better and stronger in most of the university courses offered to
167 them so this being consistent with their strength in 5 domains (and the significant difference was detected in
168 group domain); males are stronger only in individual learning style with no significant difference.

169 As to university Entrance-Examination (Konkour) grade in Iran, Students of Anesthesiology bear little
170 resemblance to their peers in the field of medicine and always position much lower rank so this being in line
171 with the results of this study that the latter group (SM) turned out to be stronger in all domains and the
172 difference was statistically significant for kinesthetic style. In terms of gender differentiation exactly the same
173 results were obtained with female learners to represent the fact that females are generally stronger in varying
174 learning domains in medical sciences.

175 That the male students of the two fields struck a balance (individual, kinesthetic, and tactile styles preference
176 with male SM, and visual, auditory and group styles preference with male SA) can be representative of the fact
177 that male SA, compared to females are more enthusiastic about and better motivated by their future profession
178 and regard their job fairly more masculine!; in the interview held randomly with some SA, boys expressed that
179 on the scene in the operating room (and when an anesthesiologist is trying to make a patient unconscious),
180 girls usually have their hearts in their mouths! Reid (*ibid*), however reported that medicine students preferred
181 auditory learning as a major learning style (one of the two most strong preferences) thus not being consonant
182 with the results of this research.

183 13 VI.

184 14 Suggestions

185 The strong tactile learning style preference indicated by most medical sciences students, followed by kinesthetic
186 and visual styles can have implications for curriculum development, material development and teacher training
187 courses. Through burgeoning research with a wealth of students across nations it has been reported that
188 traditional classroom instruction is mostly oriented to the auditory learners (Hodges, 1982 cited in Reid 1987)
189 thereby ignoring a large number of other learners. If however students are placed into homogenous learning
190 groups and are exposed to teaching styles that are consistent with their learning styles, a portion of the problem
191 might certainly be resolved. Moreover, for the rather mutability of the learning styles (Brown, 2007), some
192 longitudinal studies could be conducted to examine the case as well as to investigate the factors that bear on
193 the issue. Very few, if any, researches has also been carried out on the relationship between critical thinking
194 and learning styles as both of them may be developed and altered across the learners. The relation between
195 the nature of the courses offered to the students and their consistency with the learners' learning styles can also
196 be a useful and interesting matter of concern. Specifically detailing the relationship between English languages
courses, either general or EAP, and learning styles could also have some relevance to the issue. ^{1 2}

1. What types of perceptual learning styles are mostly preferred by Iranian medical sciences students?
2. What types of perceptual learning styles are most preferred by Iranian "Students of Medicine" (SM)?
3. What types of perceptual learning styles are mostly preferred by Iranian "Students of Anesthesiology" (SA)?
4. Is there any difference between the learning styles of males and females in terms of their fields of study?

II.

Figure 1:

1

		the study	Frequency	Percent
	Variable			
Sex	Male	34	31.8	
	Female	73	68.2	
	Total	107	100	
Field of Study	Students of Medicine	78	72.9	
	Students of Anesthesiology	29	27.1	
	Total	107	100	

Figure 2: Table 1 :

2

Variable	Visual	Tactile	Auditory	Group	Kinesthetic	Individual
mean \pm SD	37.32 ± 5.96	38.95 ± 6.03	36.16 ± 7.28	32.99 ± 8.90	37.36 ± 6.35	32.74 ± 8.1
Median	38	40	36	34	38	32
Min	22	20	22	10	16	18
Max	50	50	50	50	50	50
Total	107	107	107	107	107	107

Figure 3: Table 2 :

3

Sex	Variable	Visual	Tactile	Auditory	Group	Kinesthetic	Individual
Male	36.17 ± 6.32	39.12 ± 6.32	37.12 ± 6.87	34.43 ± 9.1	37.97 ± 6.49	31.72 ± 7.79	
Female	37.86 ± 6.32	37.12 ± 6.32	37.12 ± 6.87	34.43 ± 9.1	37.97 ± 6.49	31.72 ± 7.79	
P-value		0.174	0.671	0.051	0.013	0.148	0.056

Figure 4: Table 3 :

4

Field of Study	Variable	Visual	Tactile	Auditory	Group	Kinesthetic	Individual
Students of Medicine		37.41 ± 5.90	39.35 ± 5.83	36.48 ± 7.53	33.05 ± 8.89	38.35 ± 6.04	33.28 ± 8.52
Students Anesthesiology of		37.10 ± 6.22	37.86 ± 6.52	35.37 ± 6.59	32.82 ± 9.07	34.68 ± 6.48	31.31 ± 6.72
P-value		0.814	0.256	0.487	0.909	0.007	0.265

Figure 5: Table 4 :

4

$6.04 > SA = 34.68 \pm 6.48, P = 0.007$.

Figure 6: Table 4

14 SUGGESTIONS

5

Field of Study	Variable	Visual	Tactile	Auditory	Group	Kinesthetic	Individual
Students of Medicine		35.78 \pm 5.11	39.28 \pm 5.39 n=28	33.92 \pm 7.6 n=28	29.28 \pm 8.09 n=28	36.50 \pm 6.07 n=28	35.78 \pm 8.93 n=28
Students Anesthesiology of		38 \pm 4.19 n=6	35.33 \pm 4.67 n=6	35.33 \pm 9.00 n=6	32.66 \pm 4.32 n=6	34 \pm 5.05 n=6	31.00 \pm 4.14 n=6
P-value		0.33	0.106	0.70	0.33	0.35	0.21

Figure 7: Table 5 :

6

	Visual	Tactile	Auditory	Group	Kinesthetic	Individual
Students of Medicine	38.32 \pm 6.15 n=50	39.40 \pm 6.11 n=50	37.92 \pm 7.1 n=50	35.16 \pm 8.7 n=50	39.40 \pm 5.83 n=50	31.88 \pm 8.03 n=50
Students Anesthesiology of	36.86 \pm 6.71 n=23	38.52 \pm 6.85 n=23	35.39 \pm 6.07 n=23	32.86 \pm 10.03 n=23	34.86 \pm 7.39 n=23	31.39 \pm 7.39 n=23
P-value	0.36	0.58	0.146	0.32	0.005	0.80

Figure 8: Table 6 :

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