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ТРУДНОЩІ ВИВЧЕННЯ ІНОЗЕМНОЇ МОВИ УЧНЯМИ СТАРШИХ КЛАСІВ

РЕВАК БРІГІТТИ ЙОСИИПІВНИ

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Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education
Department of Philology

FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING DIFFICULTIES OF HIGH-SCHOOL LEARNERS

Bachelor's Thesis

Presented by: Brigitta Revák

a 4th year student

Professional Education program:

014 Secondary education. English language and literature

Thesis supervisor: Katalin Hnatik
PhD
Second reader: Katalin Fodor
PhD

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ЗМІСТ

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

In the 21st century foreign language learning has great impact on people's lives. There are different factors to teach influence foreign language learning, language environment, motivation, intensity of instruction, and prior experience in learning foreign languages.

For nearly a century, foreign language learning difficulties have become a controversial topic in the fields of grammar, foreign language acquisition, and language teaching methods. There is still much debate about the difficulties that students have to deal with during developing language skills.

The central theme of this thesis is the foreign language learning difficulties of high-school learners.

The *subject* matter of the present study is giving theoretical concepts of foreign language learning difficulties. presentation of foreign language learning difficulties, analysis of their types, study of their causes along language skills.

The *object* of the recent study is to provide useful information about types of foreign language learning difficulties and presenting the possible causes of them.

The *purpose* of current thesis is to give an overview of the role of the difficulties when learning a foreign language with concrete examples, furthermore there is an investigation of teacher's attitudes toward successfully solving task types.

The *tasks* of the thesis are as follows:

- Critical analysis of the relevant academic literature;
- Expanding the theoretical study and conceptual framework to the given study;
- Having an insight into different difficulties in the foreign language learning
- Collecting the positive and negative answers
- The ability of students to solve a task when they encounter a difficulty;

The *theoretical* value of the study lies in the fact that it collects information on the specific cause of the difficulties, answers to the question of what role language skills play in the difficulties and how they can be developed by the learners.

The *practical* value of this thesis provides exact examples about students 'foreign language difficulty problems in language skills and also presents specific problems.

The *novelty* of the thesis informs about first-hand information and experiences from teachers who learn the importance language learning difficulties in their education.

The first two parts of the thesis are largely based on theory. The first and second parts of this paper were compiled with the method of descriptive and comparative analysis of literary sources. The study tried to approach the effects of the the problems of students' language difficulties with language skills it also provides insight into their task-solving skills.

The first part of this thesis was compiled using descriptive analysis on literary sources. After describing the different types of difficulty comparative analysis is used. Discusses the concept of a foreign language as well as the difficulties of learning a foreign language.

The second part of the thesis focuses on the role of the 4 skills focus on the main problems and difficulties and their suggested solutions. The study provides a more detailed insight into the four basic language skills that provide foreign language learning.

The third part explores the difficulties of learning a foreign language among high school students. A survey of high school teachers are used to support the study. It investigates students' attitudes students 'attitudes towards problems and details of difficulties along the four language skills.

Newhall, Ganschow, Sparks, DiFino only a few of the many researchers who have looked into the role of foreign language learning difficulties. Many of them provided insights, detailed descriptions of foreign language learning difficulties, and pointed to differences in the performance of students with disabilities and healthy students.

PART 1.

THEORETICAL CONCEPTS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE LEARNING DIFFICULTIES

This part of the thesis gives general concepts and detailed information about the foreign language learning and their difficulties. This section provides a specific definition of a foreign language and its properties, as well as a precise definition of what a foreign language learning difficulty is. Provides detailed information on the types of learning difficulties.

1.1. Definitions of Foreign Language

If a language is mostly acquired in the classroom and is not spoken in the society where it is taught, it is termed foreign. The ability to communicate effectively and creatively in another language, as well as participate in real-life situations, is enhanced by learning the language of the authentic culture. Learning a foreign language allows one to get insight into a different point of view, improves one's capacity to recognize connections across content areas, and fosters an interdisciplinary approach while obtaining intercultural understandings. Language is the medium via which efficient human-to-human interactions can take place, as well as a deeper understanding of one's own language and culture. Studying a language provides the learner with the opportunity to gain linguistic and social knowledge and to know when, how, and why to say what to whom National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project (NSFLEP, 2014).

Language experts distinguish between acquisition and learning: 'acquisition' refers to the natural process of learning first and second languages without formal teaching, whereas 'learning' refers to the systematic study of second or foreign languages in classroom settings. The process of SLA for children is frequently distinguished from the more formal and rigorous SLA procedure for adults. The teaching of a foreign language that is neither an official language nor the mother tongue of a large portion of the population is referred to as foreign language education.

A foreign language is one that originated in a country other than the speaker's. There must, however, be a clear difference made between foreign and second languages. It is also a language is not spoken in the individual's unique country; for instance, an English speaker living in Spain can guarantee that Spanish is a foreign language to him.

However, these two definitions do not deplete the scope of potential outcomes, and the name is some of the time applied in manners that are either deceptive or authentically wrong. Bilingual or multilingual children are those that advance a larger number of than one language from birth or at a youthful age. These children are said to have two, three, or more mother tongues neither one of the language is strange to them, regardless of whether one of them is a foreign language to by far most of individuals in the nation where they were conceived. A youngster concentrating on English from his English father and Irish at school in Ireland, for instance, can impart in the two languages, however nor is an unknown language to him. Because of the way that India, South Africa, and Canada all have numerous official languages , this is a commonplace event. These children are said to have two, three, or more first languages: neither one of the lingos is unusual to them, whether or not one of them is an obscure vernacular to by a wide margin the vast majority of people in the country where they were imagined. A child focusing on English from his English father and Irish at school in Ireland, for example, can convey in the two lingos, but nor is an obscure tongue to him. On account of the way that India, South Africa, and Canada all have various power vernaculars, this is an ordinary occasion (Merritt, Anne 2013).

1.2. Definitions of FL learning difficulties

Foreign language learning and teaching have undergone a significant paradigm shift as a result of the research and experiences that have expanded the scientific and theoretical knowledge base on how students learn and acquire a foreign language. Traditionally, learning a foreign language was thought to be a 'mimetic' activity, a process that involved students repeating or imitating new information. Grounded in behaviorist theories of learning and structural linguistics, the quality and quantity of language and feedback were regarded as the major determinants of language learning success. A popular method of teaching in the 1950s, called the audio-lingual approach (ALM), promoted an imitation and practice approach to language development.

The major figure in the ALM classroom was the instructor who was cast into the role of drill sergeant, expert, and authority figure. Students were relegated to practicing and imitating patterns to a point of automatic response in the belief that the learner would then merely have to slot in lexical items appropriate to the conversational situation. It was believed that the first language interfered with the acquisition of the second language and that a transfer would take place from the first to the second language, resulting in errors. In 1959, Noam Chomsky's review (1959, p. 39) of B.F. Skinner's (1957) Verbal Behavior dramatically changed the way of looking at language by arguing that language was a rule-governed activity, not a set of habits. Chomsky argued that stimulus–

response psychology could not adequately account for creativity involved in generating novel utterances using internalized rules.

The creative aspect of language behavior implies that the human mind is involved in deep processing of meaning rather than in memorized responses to environmental stimuli. Chomsky's view of language and cognitive psychology, dubbed generative transformational grammar, regarded language acquisition as an internal thinking–learning process. Chomsky claimed that children are biologically programmed for language and have an innate ability to discover for themselves the underlying rules of a language system. Chomsky's ideas led to the demise of structural linguistics, behaviorist psychology, and the ALM approach to language learning. An alternative theoretical position emerged centered on the role of the linguistic environment in combination with the child's innate capacities in acquiring language. This position (interactionist) viewed language development as the result of a complex interplay between innate language capacities of the learner and the learner's environment. Unlike the innatist position (Chomsky, 1959, pp. 26-58) the interactionists claimed that language had to be modified to the ability of the learner. According to Long (Long, 1985, pp. 377-393), language input was made comprehensible by simplifying the input, by using linguistic and extralinguistic cues, and by modifying the interactional structure of the conversation. Long maintained that speakers adjust their language as they interact or negotiate meaning with others. Through negotiation of meaning, interactions are changed and redirected, leading to enhanced comprehensibility. Long proposed that learners, in order to acquire language, cannot simply listen to input, rather they must be active co-constructive participants who interact and negotiate the type of input they receive. Each of these theories of language acquisition addresses a different aspect of a learner's ability to acquire a language.

Behaviorist explanations explain systematic aspects, whereas innatist explanations explain the acquisition of complex grammar. Interactionist explanations assist in understanding how learners relate form and meaning in language, how they interact in conversation, and how they use language appropriately. More recently, researchers have identified nine contemporary language learning theories: Universal Grammar, Autonomous Induction, Associative-Cognitive CREED, Skill Acquisition, Input Processing, Process ability, Concept- Oriented Approach, Interaction Framework, and Vygotskian Sociocultural Theory (NSFLEP, 2014). Some of these theories share a linguistic view of language cognition, others view it from a psychological point of view and in the case of Sociocultural Theory, a social approach is taken. The Universal Grammar (UG) and Autonomous Induction theory share the linguistic view that learners have innate knowledge of grammatical structures that is not learned through mere exposure to input. They believe that

linguistic knowledge is predetermined and is independent from experience. Learning is believed to occur incidentally by deduction from innate abstract knowledge.

The psychological view of language cognition is represented by the following theories: Associative-Cognitive CREED, Skill Acquisition theory, Input Process theory, Process ability theory, Concept-Oriented Approach, and the Interaction Framework. While these approaches share a psychological view of cognition, there are some distinct differences. The Associative -Cognitive CREED, Input Processing, Process ability, and Concept Oriented theories view language acquisition as implicit and language learning is presented as an incidental and a subconscious learning process. However, according to the Skill Acquisition theory there is a conscious processing in language acquisition that requires explicit instruction in order for deliberate learning to occur. The most prevalent and most widely held theory, the Sociocultural Theory (SCT) proposed by Vygotsky, views cognition as a social faculty. According to this theory, participation in culturally organized activities is essential for learning to occur. Active engagement in social dialogue is important. Learning is regarded as intentional, goal-directed, and meaningful and is not a passive or incidental process but is always conscious and intentional. According to Ellis and Larsen- Freeman (Ellis, 2006, p. 26) learning from exposure comes about "as part of a communicatively rich human social environment" . This is discussed in more detail later in this article.

A learning difficulty (sometimes known as a learning disability) is an impairment of brain ability to process information. Individuals with learning disabilities may not learn in the same way or at the same rate as their peers, and they may find particular parts of learning difficult, such as the acquisition of basic skills.

Because learning disabilities cannot be healed, their consequences might affect a person's performance in school, at work, in relationships, and in everyday life. An individual with a learning disability can benefit from intervention and support, which may be augmented by counseling or other mental health care services (Hallahan, Kauffman, & Pullen, 2009)

1.3 Types of FL learning difficulties in secondary education

These general characteristics of foreign language learning tend to the conclusions that the domain-specific language acquisition system of children ceases to operate.in adults and, in addition, that adult foreign language acquisition resembles general adult learning in fields for which no domain specific learning system is believed to exist. Let us tentatively assume, therefore, that the same language acquisition system which guides children is not available to adults. The assumption that the acquisition system no longer functions easily predicts failure. Nevertheless, although few adults,

if any, are completely successful, and many fail miserably, there are many who achieve very high levels of proficiency, given enough time, input, and effort, and given the right attitude, motivation, and learning environment. The logical problem of foreign language acquisition then, is to explain the quite high level of competence that is clearly possible in some cases, while at so permitting the wide range of variation that is observed.

Language remains an abstract formal system of great complexity - one which is, furthermore, underdetermined by the data of experience. On the face of it, the contention that the language acquisition faculty effectively does not exist in adults could be understood to suggest that the adult learner should abandon all hope of any degree of success. This would be the correct conclusion were it not for the fact that the adult possesses other knowledge and faculties which are absent in the infant. And these may, in part, take some of the explanatory burden usually assumed by the language acquisition device. Most obvious is that the adult already has knowledge of at least one language. The proposal here is that the function of the innate domain-specific acquisition system in adults filled (though indirectly and imperfectly) by this native language knowledge and by a general abstract problem-solving system.

 In order to be more precise, let say that the child learner possesses a language acquisition system which contains the following two components: A) definition of possible grammar: a Universal Grammar B) a way of arriving at a grammar based on available data: a Learning Procedure (or set of procedures)

Workers in the formal theory of language acquisition have generally assumed such a framework with these components, at least since Chomsky (Chomsky, 1959). There have been differences in terminology, emphasis, and specific proposal. Chomsky, in Aspects, proposed that a formal evaluation metric would fill function B; would allow the learner to "select from the store of potential grammar a specific one that is appropriate to the data available to him". A different approach to B is, for example, that of Pinker, who suggests a system of many highly specific learning procedures which construct and revise a grammar (within the constraints provided by Universal Grammar) bit by bit, as data become available. Also, there is clearly a potential trading relationship between A and B; tight constraints on possible grammars (A) may carry some of the burden of choosing a grammar which would otherwise fall on B. Despite the numerous possible variations, something like the distinction between A and B seems justified. For terminological clarity, let us say that function A is filled by a system which we shall call 'Universal Grammar', and that function B is filled by what we shall call a system of 'Learning Procedures'.

Inclusion is characterized "as a course of addressing and answering the variety of necessities, all things considered, youth and grown-ups through expanding cooperation in learning, societies and networks, and diminishing and killing exclusion" (UNESCO, 2009). In a comprehensive climate, all

understudies with unique requirements, despite what the sort and seriousness of their incapacity or trouble, go to standard schools in their area, and they are the obligation of general training instructors (Hallahan, Furthermore, it is an overall instructor's liability to address shortcoming areas of understudies with inabilities and hardships by making educational and content alterations, and now and again, to participate in ID of these understudies in class. This particularly alludes to the recognizable proof of understudies with language-based learning handicaps (LBLD). Newhall (2012) characterizes language-based learning handicaps as "a range of hardships connected with the arrangement and utilization of communicated in and composed language" (Newhall, 2012). Some understudies with LBLD are recognized at an early age. Notwithstanding, numerous understudies with this issue go through early primary school with not many issues. It is just when the instructive requests and assumptions rise that their language-based learning incapacities become distinguished (Newhall, 2012). Schwarz (1997) proposes that occasionally even those understudies who were not recently determined to have a learning inability (LD) ended up being learning impaired in an foreign language class. In the event that a youngster has language delays in the local language, troubles in mother tongue education abilities, explicit language shortcomings in both native language and English (for example phonological), and on the off chance that there is a family background of understanding incapacities, and no advancement after fitting intercession, the chance of a learning inability is available (Spear-Swerling, 2006). Most scholarly issues of these kids result from challenges in language and education abilities, including tuning in, talking, perusing, composing and spelling, as well as hardships in consideration, memory, and chief capacities.

In their article on language learning incapacities in college understudies, DiFino and Lombardino (2004, pp. 390-400) give an agenda of caution signs which might help in distinguishing in danger understudies. General admonition signs might include: terrible showing on tests and tests despite customary participation, schoolwork and tasks; understudies regularly feel befuddled during an illustration and are either excessively quiet or pose inquiries too often; understudies feel disappointed and act improperly (for example forcefully towards the educator); due to their inability to cope with course materials; students need more time to complete tasks and work at a slower pace than their classmates understudies are quickly flustered and find it hard to follow instructor's directions (DiFino, & Lombardino, 2004).

Sparkles and Ganschow presented (2001, p. 34) the Linguistic Coding Differences Hypothesis (LCDH) as indicated by which native oral and composed language abilities, as well as unknown dialect fitness, are key elements in foreign language obtaining (Sparks, Patton, Ganschow, Humbach, & Javorsky, 2006, p. 56). Their examination discovered that troubles in foreign language securing to a great extent rely upon issues with one language expertise, most frequently

phonological/orthographic parts of language which then, at that point, impact both native and foreign language frameworks. As brought up in their survey article on Learning Difficulties and Foreign Language Learning (2001, pp. 79-98) , learning handicapped and in danger understudies "showed less fortunate execution than great foreign language students on local language measures" (2001, pp. 79-98). The connection among native and foreign language abilities was likewise upheld by later investigations. In their exploration on Writing Abilities in First and Second Language Learners With and Without Reading Disabilities, Ndlovu and Geva (2008, pp. 36-42) got results which showed that there were no huge contrasts between the accomplishments of English as a subsequent language and first language students. They presumed that a more significant variable of disappointment recorded as a hard copy capacities was the presence of perusing incapacities than the language status. Moreover, Geva and Massey-Garrison (2013, p. 46) thought about language abilities of English as a second language students and English as a first language students who had unfortunate unraveling abilities, unfortunate perception abilities, or were typical perusers. They presumed that understudies with issues in translating and cognizance experienced issues with different language viewpoints, again paying little mind to language status, for example whether English was their first or second language.

Likewise, Ganschow and Schneider (2001, p. 31) point out that further issues for understudies with language learning hardships might be brought about by various contrasts between an understudy's native language and the foreign language he/she is contemplating. These distinctions might incorporate sound-image correspondence, morphological intricacy, or syntactic principles. For instance, Serbian is a language with exceptionally basic sound image correspondence, where a solitary letter addresses a solitary sound. Accordingly, Serbian understudies might generally disapprove of English phonological/orthographic guidelines where this correspondence is extremely intricate, for example a few unique letters can address a similar sound, and various sounds can be addressed by one same letter.

As Ganschow et al. (1988, p. 29) finish up, all poor foreign language students, regardless of LD conclusion, regularly disapprove of native language abilities (fundamentally phonological/orthographic parts of language) and show more fragile foreign language inclination, which then, at that point, impacts foreign language procurement.

Numerous students experience issues and hardships with foreign language learning, even the people who have not recently given any indications of conceivable learning incapacities. Once in a while learning incapacities are analyzed in students after they have encountered hardships in foreign language procurement and accomplished unfortunate outcomes. The writing evaluated in this paper has shown that no matter what the LD finding, the two students with learning inabilities and those

with foreign language learning hardships have issues in local language abilities (normally phonological/orthographic parts of language) and have more vulnerable foreign language inclination, which later impact foreign language securing. Despite the fact that it is obsolete, the MLAT actually stays a critical indicator of foreign language capability. Aside from being knowledgeable, qualified, roused, experienced, and capable, foreign language instructors likewise should be prepared to work in a comprehensive homeroom. They should know how to perceive students with language learning handicaps or hardships in their study hall and make fitting educational alterations to address their issues. Various examinations have shown that multisensory organized language (MSL) guidance has ended up being one of the most mind-blowing informative strategies for understudies with issues foreign language learning.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING DIFFICULTIES OF DEVELOPING LANGUAGE SKILLS OF HIGH-SCHOOL LEARNERS

The second part of this thesis focuses on the role and the difficulties inherent in language skills. This section details the suggested solutions to language learning difficulties that can help learners perform. It also outlines different types of tasks that show students 'difficulties.

2.1. Listening skills

Many language learners find hearing challenging since they do not have the option of pausing and replaying as they do when reading (Goh, Christine, 2000, pp. 55-75). Listening comprehension includes aspects such as memory and the extent of automation in processing auditory information, in addition to auditory processing. Listeners must retain as much of the spoken word as possible in their short-term memory and interpret it before new information replaces it (Goh, Christine, 2000, pp. 55-75). Many learners, as Goh (Goh, Christine, 2000, pp. 55-75) points out, regularly find themselves in situations where they receive words before they have even comprehended the prior ones.

Students may have difficulty processing, sorting, and delivering auditory information due to functional issues in the auditory channel. It is possible that a student's hearing is not ready to accept auditory information, making it harder for him or her to maintain preparedness for the required amount of time. Students' reactions to auditory information can be poor or delayed, leaving them with insufficient time to read and respond to questions in listening comprehension activities. Because of the short-term memory's limitations, pupils may forget details and be unable to respond to multiple questions at once. Additional issues develop if a learner has trouble discriminating between crucial information and non-essential noises. Some students also have difficulties in following speech and writing at the same time (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

In addition, students may experience difficulties with aural interpretation. According to Naiman (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978), these issues could include difficulties organizing and understanding auditory information. In other words, auditory messages collide and become muddled. The learner has difficulty detecting and interpreting sounds and sound strings, as well as analyzing the phonological structure of a word, due to phonological processing issues. He or she may be unsure of sounds and, as a result, words. Furthermore, the learner may have difficulty

hearing language prosody: word boundaries, emphasis, and speech rhythm are not evident to him/her, making it impossible to interpret foreign speech. Low-ability listeners have special difficulties recognizing words, according to Goh , (Goh, Christine, 2000, pp. 55-75) and they quickly forget what they think they have understood. Another issue that low-ability listeners face is paying attention. They frequently miss the next portion of a text because they are preoccupied with something they have just heard (Goh, Christine, 2000, pp. 55-75).

Suggested Solution:

Many children with FL learning disabilities struggle with auditory processing, thus they require a lot of opportunities to hear spoken language. Students must, however, learn to be better listeners in addition to having opportunities to hear the foreign language (Goh, Christine, 2000, pp. 55-75) demonstrates that learners can be explicitly taught to increase their listening comprehension skills by giving them practice with certain sounds, content words, new word pronunciation, and intonation aspects like emphasis and tones. As a result, listening comprehension and speech production and pronunciation are inextricably intertwined.

When practicing listening comprehension, it's crucial to have a setting that's as noise-free as possible, because children with learning disabilities sometimes have issues with their auditory filters, making them easily distracted by additional noise (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). Because the headphones give not only sharper sounds but also earmuffs against background noises, language laboratories are perfect venues to practice listening comprehension abilities (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

Listening comprehension necessitates a calm and concentrated mind. As a result, the scenario should be set up so that there is time to take a deep breath and empty one's mind of superfluous information before beginning to listen. Students could be taught to practice certain relaxation techniques before listening, or an exercise termed 'the thinking cap,' in which the outermost fold of the earlap is straightened multiple times from top to bottom, as suggested by Hannaford (Horwitz, Elaine. 1988, pp. 283-294). This activity, according to Hannaford (Horwitz, Elaine. 1988, pp. 283-294), stimulates hearing and improves memory.

Students may also be advised to practice a variety of listening techniques. They can try taking notes while listening, or they can concentrate on learning the story's basic outline or, alternately, the details (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). When students don't comprehend everything on the tape, the teacher should urge them to utilize their general knowledge of how the world works to extrapolate results (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

Students can be trained to "film" what they hear, or make visuals of what is happening, in order to increase their auditory memory. Students produce as comprehensive a film as possible the first time they listen to the tape, and then they can fill in the gaps in the film that they missed the first time (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). It is far easier for them to remember what happened on video if they can visualize it rather than relying solely on their auditory memories. Visual stimuli, on the other hand, can be distracting for some kids. To eliminate visual distractions, these kids may be encouraged to keep their eyes closed while listening (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

According to Naimon (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978), the teacher should assess whether or not it is possible to listen to the same tape multiple times. The troublesome areas are explained after the initial listening, and the tape is then listened to again. The correct answers are given after the second listening, and the tape is listened to once more. The teacher can add supplementary tasks, such as more thorough questions, word hunting, or altering the angle, or students can simply be given other work to complete, so that the listening does not become dull for those who have already comprehended it during the first listening. If possible, the text might be recorded on individual tapes for each pupil.Then students are able to listen to the tape at their own pace and as many times as they need during the lesson and perhaps also at home.

At least in the beginning, listening comprehension should be practiced in short pieces. Because listening necessitates a lot of focus, it's a good idea to take a break after 20 minutes (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). During the pause, students can double-check their responses to the questions and relax for a few moments before going on to the next phase of the listening exercise.

It's also important to pay attention to the materials used for listening comprehension. The teacher can think about starting with some alternative listening comprehension tasks than the ones used in the matriculation exam, because advanced level assessments, at the very least, frequently feature abstract concepts and difficult terminology. SUKOL (The Federation of Foreign Language Teachers in Finland), for example, offers listening comprehension materials for both first- and second-year students. Additionally, using matriculation examination tests for the basic level and ensuring that the test themes are concrete enough increases the students' chances of success in the beginning.Because speech is much simpler to grasp when there are visual signals and the speaker can be seen, the teacher can consider using video material as a listening comprehension activity.

Following that, more recommendations are offered regarding various sorts of listening comprehension tasks that are employed in the matriculation examination and, as a result, when practicing listening comprehension in regular classes. Multiple choice questions, open-ended

questions, partial dictation, and drafting a summary are examples of these. Finally, a few ideas for more work outside of class are provided.

Students must read and understand both the question and up to four alternative responses, multiple choice questions frequently present difficulty for dyslexic pupils. Dyslexic pupils frequently find that they do not have enough time to read the questions and alternative answers and make a judgment on the correct answer due to phonological processing difficulties and a lack of short-term memory.

Multiple choice questions also tend to focus on students' understanding of the printed alternatives rather than their real listening comprehension abilities (Kristiansen, Irene 1999, pp 10-21). However, because multiple choice questions are so common in matriculation exams, the teacher can't completely avoid them. Although it is impossible to avoid utilizing multiple choice questions entirely, there are certain things that the teacher may do to assist pupils in dealing with them more effectively. So that pupils do not have to answer more than one question at a time, the teacher can lengthen or add more pauses. (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). Because new and difficult terms in the questions and alternative responses can distract kids, it's a good idea to go through them ahead of time to ensure that the listening comprehension exercise isn't made any more difficult by the fact that they don't comprehend the questions (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

The teacher could also give students the option of treating multiple choice questions as open-ended questions or allowing them to answer the questions orally in their own words (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). When verifying the answers, the teacher could first inquire as to how students who saw the questions as open-ended responded, and then inquire as to what the correct multiple-choice answer was. This would also assist pupils in selecting the correct response from a list of options (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

For dyslexic children, open-ended questions are frequently easier than multiple choice questions since they do not have to consider the alternative solutions as they do with multiple choice questions, and they can express their response in their own words. Questions can be asked in either English or Finnish, but utilizing Finnish questions allows students to concentrate more on the content of the text being listened to rather than on how to articulate their response in the foreign language (Kristiansen, Irene 1999, pp 10-21). According to Kristiansen (Kristiansen, Irene 1999, pp 10-21), open-ended questions should be posed in such a way that the replies create the story's essence. This makes it easier for the information to stay in long-term memory.

The written script of the text being listened to might also be offered to students. Students can learn the foreign language's sound-letter correspondences and speech rhythm by following the script while listening (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). The script can also improve concentration and assist with problem-solving (McColl, Hilary, 2000). Students can also pick whether they want to listen with or without the written script, which the teacher can provide (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). As a result, when students notice that their listening comprehension skills have improved, they can stop utilizing the script at their own speed. Alternatively, the teacher can provide a summary of the material to be heard before listening, a review of some vocabulary, an outline with the main headings, or a visual representation of the plot (McColl, Hilary, 2000).

For pupils with short-term memory issues, writing a summary based on hearing is likely to be difficult. This test type should, however, be practiced because of the matriculation examination. There are a few things you may do to make the workout go more smoothly. If the material has a number of vocabulary that the students are likely to be unfamiliar with, the teacher can write some of them down on the board before they listen McColl, Hilary, 2000). The material should be read aloud with natural pauses so that students can take notes (McColl, Hilary, 2000). According to Kristiansen (Kristiansen, Irene 1999, pp 10-21), the job may be changed such that students could write the summary in either Finnish or English, depending on their abilities. Instead of writing, the teacher could ask pupils to summarize the information orally. This could also be done either in their native language or in the foreign language.

If children believe they do not get enough practice at school, ideas for how they might improve their listening comprehension abilities at home could be offered. Because modern course books feature CDs or CD-ROMs that allow students to listen to readings, it may be suggested that students listen to the texts covered in the course while reading the text in their book. Listening to the texts without the book is also a fantastic way to improve your listening abilities. Additional listening comprehension exercises are included on certain CD-ROMs, which students can be encouraged to complete for extra practice if desired.There are also a lot of listening comprehension tests at schools because of the matriculation examinations so at least the older ones could be offered for students to be used as extra practice.

Students might, of course, be encouraged to seek out additional opportunities to hear English. Students may be asked to watch English-language television news or soap operas, for example, in which the characters often utilize simple, repetitive language, providing language learners with good opportunity to practice their listening comprehension abilities. DVD players allow users to watch

movies with or without subtitles in English. Listening to English-language music and radio programs is also beneficial.

2.2 Speaking skills

Pronunciation issues are frequently intertwined with listening difficulties. Problems in processing and interpreting auditory information produce difficulty in pronunciation, just as they do in listening (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). It is exceedingly difficult for a pupil to identify comparable sounds and consequently produce them appropriately if his or her auditory filter is not efficient and accurate enough (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

It's vital to remember that sound apprehension manifests itself not just in poor listening comprehension and pronunciation, but also in other areas. Students may make spelling mistakes because they write words as they hear them and mix up the spelling of words that seem similar, as Naiman (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978) points out. They may also have difficulty reading due to a malfunctioning phonological channel, and they may make grammatical errors as a result of not hearing grammatical words like prepositions and conjunctions. Problems with phonological processing may also be the cause of pupils' difficulty, uncertainty, and unwillingness to express themselves vocally.

Because of the potential consequences of auditory processing issues, it's critical to enhance kids' fundamental skills in making and identifying sounds (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).. Students may only identify words as wholes and focus their attention on learning new words and structures after they have learned to create and identify different sounds (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

Dyslexic children's strength is usually oral expression in general (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). However, because the auditory channel's poor functioning might cause problems processing auditory information, it may be difficult for some pupils to react to others' speech and keep up with the conversation (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). Problems with naming and retrieval might also produce difficulties in spoken expression (Peacock, Matthew, 2001, p.11).

Suggested Solutions:

The phonetic alphabet is introduced to students as the initial stage in pronunciation instruction. Because the phonetic alphabet is utilized in course materials and dictionaries, it is vital to teach or remind pupils how to use it in upper secondary school. When children learn the phonetic alphabet,

they can learn both the spoken and written forms of words when memorizing vocabulary. It is also easier for the teacher to teach pronunciation when students are familiar with the phonetic alphabet. It can be provided to pupils through several types of exercises.The teacher may, for example, give students a list of phonetic symbols and a list of sample words that contain these sounds, and the students' objective would be to match the two sets (James, Peter, 1991, pp. 321-333). Alternatively, pupils could be asked to divide a list of example words into two or more groups based on the sounds they include (James, Peter, 1991, pp. 321-333) . Students can also be taught phonetic alphabet words and asked to write them in their conventional written form, or the other way around (James, Peter, 1991, pp. 321-333).

Because dyslexic individuals frequently have poor auditory processing skills, clear training on how to move specific lip parts to generate the FL sounds correctly is critical (Schneider, Elke, and Margaret Crombie, 2003). This is something that should be done right from the start of FL studies, but it is also necessary to provide opportunities for pupils to refresh their basic knowledge of English pronunciation in upper secondary school. It's especially crucial to pay attention to the differences between sounds (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). Making the distinction between words with the /v/, /w/, and /f/ sounds, or the difference between the /p/ and /b/ sounds, for example, could be practiced.

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It is vital to practice pronouncing words in addition to practicing the pronunciation of individual sounds. At this level, the focus should be on how sounds work in various settings and how syllables are stressed (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978) . Finally, students should work on their prosody. Prosody is especially important to pay attention to since it aids children in comprehending speech (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). In order for dyslexic kids, in particular, to detect word boundaries, it is necessary to practice linking words together, unstressing key connective terms, and thereby rhythming the speech (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

If at all possible, have students tape their own speech and then compare it to the model. This is advantageous since hearing one's own voice aids with the coordination of the ear and mouth organs involved in pronunciation (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). Instead of requiring pupils to read out on their own, they could be asked to read as a group (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978) or in addition to the tape (Ehrman, Madeline, and Rebecca Oxford, 1990, p. 71) .Students could also be encouraged to practice pronunciation at home by listening to a text on tape, then repeating the text quietly, and then repeating the phrase aloud after listening to the tape (Ehrman, Madeline, and Rebecca Oxford, 1990, p. 71) . Students are also encouraged to read aloud in a non-threatening environment by giving them the option to read the texts in the course book with a partner in class. When a student asks for guidance or hears a word pronounced incorrectly, the teacher can travel around the room and offer assistance. However, correcting pupils' pronunciation should be done with caution and encouragement to avoid making them feel entirely rejected.

When Finnish people learn English, the gap in phonemegrapheme correspondence levels between Finnish and English is a significant factor. Naturally, this is a topic that should be addressed right at the start of your English education. The graphemephoneme relationships in English, as well as the disparities between the written and spoken forms of English words, must be taught to students. The irregularity of the English phoneme-grapheme system, on the other hand, continues to be an issue for certain pupils in upper secondary school. Pollock and Waller (Pollock, Joy, and Elisabeth Waller 1994) indicate that rhyming words or syllables might be used to practice pronunciation and spelling.Students could be asked to distinguish between words with similar beginnings (e.g. tip, tap, tub), endings (ten, pen, men), or vowel sounds (see, sea, meet, beat), or to discover the odd one out (bun, jam, fun, sun).

Students' oral expression naturally improves as they practice listening comprehension and pronunciation abilities. Traditional pair and group talks are used to practice speaking skills. The texts that are studied in class frequently serve as catalysts for pair or group conversations. Students are familiar with the vocabulary, and they are able to express their own ideas on the subject. Pair conversations can also be set up where the partners are given slightly different information and the goal is for them to reach an agreement. It's also worth remembering that students are more engaged when they can discuss about topics that are personal to them, such as their families, hobbies, and interests.

Students can also practice speaking skills by completing exercises that challenge them to react to situations, maintain a conversation, or apply compensatory tactics (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). When pupils are unsure how to express themselves, they may be advised to use synonyms, simpler words and structures, as well as facial expressions and gestures (Naiman, Frohlich,

Stern, and Todesco, 1978). Teaching children to employ terms like "really, I see," "well, yes," and "er, hm" to show that they are paying attention to the discourse may also help them become more proficient speakers (Ehrman, Madeline, and Rebecca Oxford, 1990, p. 71). These tactics could be practiced, for example, by introducing a topic about which students must talk for two minutes with a partner with no breaks in the conversation.

Students should be encouraged to utilize English as much as possible in class, even if they find it difficult to explain themselves verbally. The teacher should emphasize that the purpose of speaking is always to get the point across, thus grammatical precision takes a back seat to the message's communicativeness. Because switching from one language to another might be challenging for normal monolingual people, it's a good idea to give kids a chance to "warm up" their English. Before beginning the real speaking practice, they could be asked to recite a familiar piece aloud in chorus.

Because students' speech abilities are not examined in the matriculation examination, upper secondary school teachers may place an inordinate amount of emphasis on practicing oral expression. However, it is critical, especially for dyslexic kids, that they have opportunity to express themselves orally, as this is typically their strength. For dyslexic students, giving opportunity to utilize language creatively is especially vital (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

2.3 Reading skills

Students with dyslexia and FL learning difficulties frequently struggle with comprehension and reading speed (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978) . Short-term memory problems and trouble organizing thoughts are also frequent. Due to visual information processing impairments, it may be difficult to distinguish letters, and letters may appear to be moving, jumping, or exchanging locations. It can be tough to stay in line, and lines often move about. Moving around in the text, from one page to the next, and finding the appropriate position after a break can be difficult (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

Suggested Solutions:

The best strategy to develop one's reading skills, as with other language skills, is to practice as much as possible. However, if a student reads the foreign language very slowly and has trouble distinguishing the basic terms, reading the extensive and sometimes fairly complicated material in the course books will be very difficult for him or her. Because the student must learn to recognize

basic vocabulary and sentence structures spontaneously and smoothly in order to enhance his or her reading skills, it is vital to begin with simple texts.

According to Naiman (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978), students with reading difficulties should be provided additional texts to read that are easier and more straightforward than the ones in the course book. These additional readings should be interesting enough to pique students' interest in reading them. Some plot-related instructions or questions should be included to make pupils feel that reading the material is worthwhile. Because these books will be extra work for the students, it is critical to stress that the reading will not be graded . However, the instructor might confirm that the texts are read by requesting the student to keep a reading diary (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978), and in order to keep him/her motivated, the teacher could view this extra work as a plus when grading.

When compiling his or her own content, the teacher should also pay attention to the layout of the materials. Because the contrast between black and white might be challenging for dyslexic kids, a white background should be avoided (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978) . Font size and type should also be considered: the font size should be at least 12 and the font type should be Arial or another basic font (italics should be avoided). The text should be laid out clearly, with short lines, narrow columns, and proper line spacing.It's also a good idea to use boxed text and break up the text with colors and graphics. If a student's letters are hopping, swapping positions, or gluing together, the teacher may recommend reading through a colored transparency (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978) Using a ruler or cutting a hole in a piece of paper and reading through it can also make following the line simpler (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

When students are introduced to a new text in class, they should begin by listening to it. Reading the text aloud or listening to someone else read it can also help with comprehension (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978) . Students should be encouraged to listen to the texts while reading at home, as most modern course books include CDs with the texts read on them. Comprehension can also be aided by producing a video of the text, or picturing the text as graphics (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). Students might develop a summary or a mind map of the material after finishing the reading (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

The materials read in upper secondary school are generally lengthy and complex, and teachers frequently find it essential to interpret them into Finnish verbally. New texts should be translated into Finnish at home for pupils with learning difficulties, according to Paatela. They are able to focus better on the activity and there is no time constraint. However, it is critical that students' comprehension be reviewed subsequently, and that they have the opportunity to ask questions about the material if anything is unclear. Although many students find the translation valuable, it should be

emphasized that it is not always required to translate a text word for word.Students must learn to read texts in a variety of ways. Different styles of reading, lexical inferring, structural awareness, and the various sorts of reading comprehension activities commonly employed in upper secondary school are examined in the subsections that follow.

Students should be familiar with a variety of reading strategies since they will be expected to read for a number of purposes in real life. Light reading, skimming, scanning, and critical reading, according to Pollock and Waller (Pollock, Joy, and Elisabeth Waller, 1994) are four different forms of reading that are utilized for different objectives.

Light reading is reading for enjoyment, thus there are no time constraints and no need to remember anything you've read (Pollock, Joy, and Elisabeth Waller, 1994) . Students with FL learning problems may definitely benefit from some light reading. Because they are frequently slow readers with a history of negative reading experiences, they should be encouraged to read for pleasure with no time constraints. Some texts in the course volumes could be read as light reading to demonstrate to students that reading for the sake of learning is not always necessary. It's also worth noting that when reading for enjoyment, you don't have to understand everything you read.

Skimming is the technique of looking at only a few portions of a document, such as chapter titles, first paragraphs, illustrations, and diagrams (Pollock, Joy, and Elisabeth Waller, 1994). Skimming is also an important ability to master since it allows pupils to see how much they already know about a subject without having to read the entire material. Students can try to predict what a new work is about by glancing at the title and pictures, as well as utilizing their general understanding of the subject, before reading it.

Scanning is the process of going through a piece of text for certain facts or information. [24] Scanning is perhaps the most common style of reading for students, as course books frequently include exercises requiring students to locate specific data in the text. These are naturally beneficial exercises since they demand students to answer questions or hunt for words or sentences, which tests their comprehension.

Critical reading necessitates complete knowledge and analysis of what has been read, thus students must be able to recognize and comprehend the text's facts, views, and inferences (Pollock, Joy, and Elisabeth Waller, 1994). Upper secondary school pupils will undoubtedly benefit from learning critical reading skills. Giving students some questions or remarks about the text and asking them to voice their own perspectives and views, for example in small-group discussions, might help with critical reading. Before beginning critical reading, Pollock and Waller (Pollock, Joy, and Elisabeth Waller, 1994) recommend that students develop the practice of skimming first and deciding

on their objective and direction.It could be a succession of events, linked concepts, or opposing viewpoints, for example. Students should also consider what questions they can come up with in their heads that need to be answered. They might be able to answer questions like who, when, where, what, why, and how.

Reading comprehension relies heavily on the capacity to recognize the meanings of words. It is beneficial to encourage kids to estimate meanings when they do not know a term and to practice inferring word meanings and word classes (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). Lexical inferring can be practiced by highlighting a few unknown words in a text and asking students to guess their meanings based on the context (Pollock, Joy, and Elisabeth Waller, 1994). The teacher might also ponder aloud and demonstrate to the pupils how the context can be used to deduce the meaning of a word. Students should learn to accept uncertainty and the knowledge that they will never be able to know all of the words. It could also be beneficial to demonstrate how, in our native language, we use context to infer word meanings when we don't know what a word means.

Students' semantic inferring skills can also be improved by practicing word creation and teaching them how to cut words into smaller pieces to see their meaning (Pollock, Joy, and Elisabeth Waller, 1994). Word formation instruction is especially crucial for dyslexic kids because their phonological processing issues prevent them from immediately seeing the invisible borders between distinct elements of a word.

Tough sentence structures are frequently the source of reading comprehension issues, thus it's critical to train kids how to look for signals as to where to begin breaking down difficult phrases (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). In order to understand sentences, it is necessary to be able to recognize parts of speech and understand the norms of word order. Finding the subject and predicate, for example, is an excellent place to begin deconstructing a complex statement.

Looking for distinct word classes or parts of speech in a text can be a good way to practice. Students may be required to locate all adjectives or predicates in a text, for example. Alternatively, pupils can be given a manuscript in which certain words are missing and asked to fill in the gaps with appropriate words (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

Dyslexic students often struggle with grammatical words (articles, prepositions, and particles), which are common in English. By removing grammatical words out of a text and asking students to figure out what the text is about using vocabulary words, the teacher may assist students comprehend their function and importance (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs). When students discover anything is lacking, they can be challenged to think about what is missing and how they could make the text more understandable. The purpose and usage of grammatical words in English

can therefore be compared to the function and use of endings and other forms of expression in Finnish (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

Text structure, in addition to sentence structure, is an issue that pupils should be made aware of. Typically, writings are divided into three sections: the introduction, the actual treatment of the subject, and the conclusion. In addition, narrative texts have three parts: the beginning, which introduces the backdrop, events, and characters; the plot, which moves the story ahead; and the ending, which exposes the story's conclusion. Students could be asked to compare and contrast various types of literature to uncover parallels and contrasts. The teacher can assist students comprehend that there are some general principles for how texts are formed by focusing their attention to text structure, and that these rules can aid students in both reading comprehension and producing their own texts by directing their attention to text structure. Summarizing, coming up with titles for texts, forming questions based on texts, organizing text parts into cohesive texts, displaying the plot of a text in the form of a mind map, combining texts to appropriate pictures, and arranging the pictures of a comic strip in the right order and adding texts to them are all examples of ways to get students to think about text structure, according to Moilanen (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

Texts in course books are frequently followed by a variety of activities that require students to locate specific information or answers within the text. Different sorts of reading comprehension tests are also employed in the matriculation examination. Some suggestions for using these various sorts of reading comprehension tasks are provided below.

Multiple choice questions are problematic for dyslexic children since they have difficulty navigating through the material, hence it is preferable to employ open-ended questions. However, because the matriculation exam involves reading comprehension assessments with multiple choice questions, students should be provided with opportunity to practice this sort of exercise.

Choosing the correct option in a multiple choice question can be difficult for students. It could be a good idea to show pupils how to complete this type of task explicitly. The teacher may urge pupils to begin by reading the material to have a general understanding of the subject matter. Students might then be instructed to carefully study each question and alternative answer, as well as the paragraph that corresponds to each question. They could also highlight the sections that appear to respond to the queries. Following that, students may be asked to reconsider the questions and alternate responses and determine which ones are unquestionably erroneous.Finally, students select the response that most closely matches the text's phrasing or idea. Students could be asked to apply this step-by-step approach to a book in class so that they fully get how it is done in practice.

Like in listening comprehension, also in reading comprehension, open-ended questions, particularly when they are in the students' native language, are a good way to check whether the text has been understood (Kristiansen 1999, p.12). Kristiansen (1999 p. 12) points out that open-ended question are especially useful when the questions are posed so that the answers to them form the core of the text. Also asking students to think of their own questions about the text is a good way of making sure that the students really understand what they read (Kristiansen 1999, p.13)

Students may be requested to write a summary or sketch a mind map of a material they have studied on occasion. In both circumstances, students are expected to present the text's essential arguments in their own words. These activities assist students in comprehending the entire text as well as remembering the specifics associated with the main topic.

2.4 Writing skills

Writing is a challenge for many students with dyslexia and other learning problems. Some students may have developed a fear of writing, or they may believe that they must focus solely on the structural parts of writing at the price of originality (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). Writing can be sluggish and hard, handwriting is sloppy, and there is constant ambiguity about accurate word spelling, word choices, and grammatical structures. Students may struggle to organize their thoughts and begin a writing assignment. Sentences are generally too basic or structurally faulty (too many words or missing words), and word order is frequently improper.Dyslexic kids frequently write words as they are spoken, resulting in letters becoming mixed up or indistinguishable from one another (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

Suggested Solutions:

Since children with FL learning difficulties frequently have bad writing experiences, it is critical to enable them to rediscover the love of writing. Inadequate reading experience in the foreign language is reflected in writing as inadequacies in employing multiple sentence patterns, a paucity of literature, and difficulties in organizing thoughts and texts. Students should be encouraged to read as much as possible.

To make writing pleasurable for pupils, the teacher must provide a lot of positive comments as well as the opportunity to develop their work based on the input (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). Students can make the writing process easier by utilizing topics that they are

passionate about, and they can also be encouraged to write for themselves without anyone correcting their work.

It's also crucial to think about how the teacher handles the essays. Instead of using a red pencil, the teacher may use a lead pencil to make his or her markings and delegate the actual correction to the students (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). The time saved here could be put to better use by providing helpful comments. Aside from spelling, the teacher should consider the creativity, fluency, and consistency of the writing, as well as how the individual student's writing skills have progressed.

Many pupils struggle to organize their thoughts since they don't know where to start or how to proceed. Many dyslexic pupils believe they have greater recall for diagrams and images than for words, according to Pollock and Waller (Pollock, Joy, and Elisabeth Waller 1994). As a result, when it comes to planning essays, linear notes may not be as helpful as mental maps. The main topic is written in the center of the page in mind maps. The main themes are grouped around the central theme, and a line is traced from the theme word to the central theme. As each concept is developed, new lines emerge. Colors, numbers, and possibly even pictures can be used to connect and put the ideas into a logical order for writings (Pollock, Joy, and Elisabeth Waller 1994).

Process writing is another approach to make writing easier. In process writing, students first create a rough draft or plan for their essays, then present their plans to a group for comments and new ideas, and finally write their essays (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). Students can also be given a chart with all of the necessary components of an essay stated (title, introduction, real treatment of the topic, conclusion), along with some more thorough questions, so that they can ensure that they have covered each part in their essay. Grammar check lists can also be given to students to look over before submitting their essays (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

Reading different sorts of writings and discussing how the topic is dealt with and how the text is structured is important in addition to practicing the actual writing process. This allows pupils to observe how various types of texts can be created and what sections they typically contain (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). Naturally, producing many forms of texts and paying attention to the requirements that each text type sets for writing aids students in becoming better writers.

Many pupils struggle with not only organizing but also articulating their thoughts. As a result, teaching children how to extend their thoughts, locate synonyms for words, and combine sentences with conjunctions is a smart idea (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

Students can be asked to add as many parts of speech as they want (such as manner, place, and time adverbials) or adjectives and various types of descriptive and information-enhancing phrases to their sentences. Finding synonyms for phrases, such as underlining 10 terms in the essay and replacing them with a word or phrase that conveys the same thing (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

Conjunctions can be practiced by reading a text that has been stripped of any conjunctions (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). After that, students are invited to think how concepts and phrases might be linked, and their ideas are compared to the original, entire text.

2.5 Vocabulary

Memorizing and retrieving vocabulary items is tough for all language learners, but it can be especially difficult for dyslexic pupils due to their poor short-term memory skills and/or visual/auditory memory issues (Schneider, Elke, and Margaret Crombie, 2003)Words that sound or look alike may be confused, making it difficult to distinguish between them while listening or reading. Dyslexic kids frequently struggle with word formation, making it difficult for them to break down large words into understandable chunks (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

The discrepancy between the written and spoken forms of words causes students difficulty when acquiring English vocabulary. Students may mix up the written and spoken versions, or they may be unable to connect them (a written word is not understood before it is heard, or a spoken word before it is seen in writing) (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

Suggested Solutions:

Because English words have multiple written and spoken forms, it is critical that students have opportunities to practice both forms. As a result, it is critical to practice vocabulary in a variety of methods, including reading, writing, speaking, and listening.

New mental associations must be formed in order to learn new language items (Oxford, Rebecca, 1990) According to Ehrman (Ehrman, Madeline, and Rebecca Oxford, 1990), new words should always be learned in specific settings, as tying the word to the context aids in remembering its meaning. Oxford (Oxford, Rebecca, 1990), Kristiansen (1999), and Moilanen (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). have all expressed similar viewpoints. Words learned in isolation, according to Kristiansen (1999), are less likely to be remembered because they are not linked to previously learned material. To put it another way, the learner must connect new words to old

information structures. Words should only be studied in isolation after they have been practiced in context.

It's also beneficial to organize words into relevant categories. Making connections between words that are semantically related is crucial because it makes the words simpler to remember and recover later from memory (Ehrman, Madeline, and Rebecca Oxford, 1990). It's also worth noting that grouping works best when the student performs it himself (Kristiansen, Irene, 1999). This is because grouping the words forces the pupil to process them, which naturally boosts the learning effect (Kristiansen, Irene, 1999). Groups can be organized in a variety of ways, including lists and mind maps. A labelled diagram or graphic, or a word layout that clearly shows the links between words, could be effective techniques to memorize words, especially for visual learners (McColl, Hilary, 2000) Groups can be created depending on word type (for example, nouns), theme (for example, words about family), similarity (for example, warm, hot, tepid, tropical), dissimilarity or opposition (for example, usual/unusual), and so on (Oxford, Rebecca, 1990). Word creation can also be practiced by grouping words together. Because prefixes (in-, im-, un-, dis-) are frequently used to communicate dissimilarity and opposition in English, they can be learned alongside the root word (Kristiansen, Irene, 1999). Other common prefixes and suffixes could also be used to broaden the set of related terms.

Vocabulary can also be memorised by using flashcards on which the students have written English words on one side and their Finnish equivalents on the other side. Since visual learners may find it easier to remember words if they associate them with visual images or pictures, these could be added to the cards.(Ehrman, Madeline, and Rebecca Oxford, 1990). The cards can also be of different colours according to the word classes. Students can then arrange the cards on piles on different bases: the words of different word classes can be put on different piles, or students can put the cards on different piles according to the level of how well they have succeeded to memorise them. This is particularly helpful for kinaesthetic learners as they are able to handle the cards and move them around.

Repetition is very important in memorising vocabulary. Both visual and kinaesthetic learners benefit from writing the words down many times and using colours and boxes to stress difficult letters or letter strings (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). Auditory learners, on the other hand, benefit from having an opportunity to say the words aloud. They could try recording vocabulary lists that they would like to memorise and listen to them and repeat several times (Ehrman, Madeline, and Rebecca Oxford, 1990)

Students could also try reading a word list or listening to someone else read it while listening to music. Students with learning disabilities often have a need to use words in concrete situations in which they can imagine finding themselves. Therefore, different kinds of situations can be simulated in which students are required to use the new word. (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978) suggests that, for example, vocabulary in politics could be practised by imagining a situation where the student is at the airport and is asked to act as an interpreter for a Finnish group of ministers.Space vocabulary, on the other hand, could be practised by imagining a situation where the student is inside a spacecraft.

Although all learning styles cannot be considered all the time in the classroom setting, the teacher can provide opportunities to students with different learning styles to learn vocabulary by using as diverse exercises as possible. For example, rehearsing vocabulary by playing Alias or Pictionary provides an opportunity for learners of different sensory preferences to experience feelings of success. In Alias, one student explains a word and the others try to guess what word s/he is talking about. In Pictionary, a student tries to express the word by drawing (and is not allowed to speak) and the others try to guess what word s/he is drawing. Since kinaesthetic learners benefit from using their own body in learning, students could also be asked to perform the words that are to be learnt to their partner who tries to guess which word is in question (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). Also connecting words written on pieces of paper to the objects or pictures of the objects that they represent provides opportunities for kinaesthetic learners to use their hands (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). When memorising vocabulary outside the classroom, kinaesthetic students could also try writing the words they want to learn on a piece of paper which they occasionally look over during a walk or some physical activity.

For visual students, it could be useful to teach them to visualise words. In visualisation, the student is asked to think of a person or character s/he likes. Then s/he is instructed to observe where his/her eyes are directed when s/he retrieves the memory of this person. This is the place where s/he stores the pictures of the things s/he sees. Then the student is asked to write the word that s/he wants to learn down on a paper, photograph the word with his/her eyes, and direct his/her eyes to the place where his/her memory storage is. Then s/he is asked to imagine that the person s/he chose is showing him/her a note on which the word has been written. Now s/he can look at the word and try if s/he is able to spell it letter by letter. At home, visual students could also stick words on slips of paper around the house on places where they can see them. This way, the words are constantly in sight and students are able to check the words many times a day.

The keyword strategy could be beneficial to students as well. The key word approach is based on a learner's association of two words: the new foreign term is associated with a similar word in his

or her own language or another language (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). The learner can next conjure up an image in his or her mind or draw a picture that incorporates both concepts (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

It's critical to explicitly teach pupils how to employ various word memorization techniques. According to Naiman (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978)., the teacher would offer one approach to the pupils at a time, and the students would apply that strategy to learn the vocabulary in the current chapter. Following that, there may be a discussion about how effective the strategy was. As a result, students will have the opportunity to try out each method and see which one works best for them.

2.6 Grammar

Students with FL learning difficulties (Downey, Doris M., and Lynn E. Snyder, 2000, pp. 82-92) and dyslexia have been observed to have difficulty understanding grammatical principles and structures. Because dyslexic children struggle to recognize patterns, find rules, and understand complex grammatical words in their home language, it's only logical that they struggle with FL learning as well (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). Students may regard grammar as distinct from language because they lack an understanding of how grammatical rules are used and function in real-life circumstances, as well as how different rules are linked to one another (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

Suggested Solutions:

A few factors should be considered by the teacher in order to make the learning of grammatical structures more practical and motivating. According to Naiman (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978), the teacher should explain four things about each grammatical issue: its function (why and for what purposes the form, rule, or category is needed), its place in the language system (what connections it has to other structures), its use value (how important a form, rule, or category is), and its application in communication situations. By conveying these concepts to pupils, the teacher enables them to perceive the structure as an integral element of the language system in real-life communication settings, rather than merely as a rule to memorize for the exam.. Students need to know for what purposes they are learning certain rules and what they are expected to do with them. They need to know whether they are required to be able to produce these structures or whether they just need to be able to identify them when they encounter them in written text or speech.

The teacher might also think about using grammatical terminology. Grammar training should not rely on the command of terminology because foreign grammatical terms typically pose problems for dyslexic children. However, because the usage of terms cannot be avoided totally, and because understanding them is necessary for some students when applying for higher education, the terminology could be presented to those who are (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). To minimize misunderstandings, the FL teacher could double-check that the terms used are the same as those used in the students' native language.

The contrast between deductive and inductive learners is a frequently discussed topic in grammar instruction discussions. Deductive learners like to go from broad to narrow, whereas inductive learners prefer to go from narrow to broad (Felder, Richard M., and Eunice R. Henriques 1995, pp. 21-31). As a result, deductive learners prefer to be taught grammar by first explaining the rules and then applying them to instances. Inductive learners, on the other hand, prefer to start with examples and then draw up rules from there. These two sorts of learners present a dilemma for the language teacher because it is impossible to apply both ways simultaneously in front of the entire class.Therefore, it is probably necessary that the teacher reaches a compromise between the approaches and tries to use them varyingly in order to provide opportunities for both types of learners to study grammar in the way they prefer. For example, when a grammatical issue is dealt on two lessons, on one lesson, the approach could be deductive and on the other inductive.

Inductively, grammatical issues could be addressed by analyzing language samples and paying attention to specific forms, as well as allowing pupils to make up their own grammar rules (Ehrman, Madeline, and Rebecca Oxford,1990, pp.311-321). Students could then compare their newly generated rules to those in their grammars. Explicitly teaching students the rules or requiring them to study them independently is a logical approach to grammar. Students may be requested to practice the structure through various types of exercises or create up examples of the rule after becoming comfortable with the rules.

Many students benefit from an analytical approach that makes the processes necessary to achieve the goal obvious (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). This means that grammatical structures must be broken down into parts so that students can examine all of the structure's components and understand how to put them together step by step. Students can also learn FL patterns by comparing them to equivalent structures in their home language (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

Using graphics, colors, boxes, charts, arrows (cause and effect), and mind maps can also assist students remember grammatical structures. The adoption of a colorcoding scheme to simplify the

retrieval of diverse grammatical patterns has been demonstrated to aid dyslexic children (Schneider, Elke, and Margaret Crombie, 2003). For example, each portion of speech with a certain role in the sentence can be assigned a specific color in sentence structure patterns. The teacher uses the same color-coding technique for each grammatical function in the phrase to explicitly introduce new grammar ideas. On the other hand, students can use color-coded cards that have different words for different sentences inscribed on them.

To recall a specific rule, students can memorize an instructive example of the rule and use it as a model whenever they need to remember it (Ehrman, Madeline, and Rebecca Oxford,1990, pp.311-321). Using creativity, humour, and imagination also aids children in internalizing grammar errors by integrating the right hemisphere of the brain, which dyslexic students frequently engage in information processing and structuring (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978).

Because writing might be difficult for dyslexic pupils, it's a good idea to practice grammar orally as well (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). Fortunately, book producers have recognized this, and course books now offer a large number of activities for practicing oral grammar. Students can repeat oral exercises, and the previous owner of the book does not provide ready solutions. Because dyslexic kids have trouble moving through text, multiple choice questions and gap-filling exercises should be avoided (jumping from one page or line to another). These test kinds, however, cannot be completely dismissed because they are employed in the matriculation examination.

It's also crucial to give pupils time to digest the new grammar issue, thus breaking up the practice into multiple lessons is a good idea (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978). Using a variety of exercises and allowing students to select the ones that are most beneficial to them provides additional possibilities for students to internalize the structure and complete the assignment successfully. Alternative approaches of explaining grammatical rules should also be considered by the teacher. If students still don't comprehend a rule or structure after a lot of practice, the teacher should come up with a new way to convey it.

PRACTICAL RESEARCH ON THE FL LEARNING DIFFICULTIES OF HIGH SCHOOL LEARNERS

The aim of the research is to had insight into how difficult high school students struggle in school from the perspective of teachers. These difficulties cause negatives for students, because they are unable to complete the tasks successfully and actively.

3.1 Hypotheses

- What difficulties do the students have according to the teachers?

- What kind of difficulties do they have referring to language skills?

3.2 The process of research

A questionnaire was used as a research instrument on methodology and surveys. Questionnaire is an instrument for collecting data that involves asking a given subject to respond to a set of oral or written questions. It's a quick and easy way to collect information and it allows gathering information from a large audience. It is easy to analyze, we can get results quickly, the respondent is more open as the questionnaire is done anonymously. However, this tool has some disadvantages, such as the possibility of low response rates, the unconscientious responses or the accessibility issues, skipped questions.

3.2.1 Participants

The participants of the research were 20 teachers who have several years of experience from in higher education, 18 females and 2 males. These teachers are from different schools of Beregszász, Gát, Jánosi, Dercen, Nagybereg. Most of the teachers have more than 7 years of work experience, all of whom are Hungarian native speakers. They graduated from various universities and colleges.

3.2.2 Research instruments

The questionnaire was used for assessing students listening, reading, writing and speaking skills from perspective of teachers. The questionnaire contains 21 questions which concentrate on recognizing listening, reading, writing and speaking skills.

3.3 Analysis of the questionnaire

The first two questions focused on gender and how many years of work experience the teachers have. The other 5 questions are also for teachers. First and foremost, the question was what kind of thoughts did the teachers have, which type of task was the most difficult for the students to do in between the listening tasks.

The results can be found in diagram 3.3.1. According to the diagram, there are divided opinions as to which task type is the most difficult. Most teacher thoughts the sentence completion was the most complicated, accounting for more than 50 percent.

**Diagram 3.3.1 Task type difficulties**
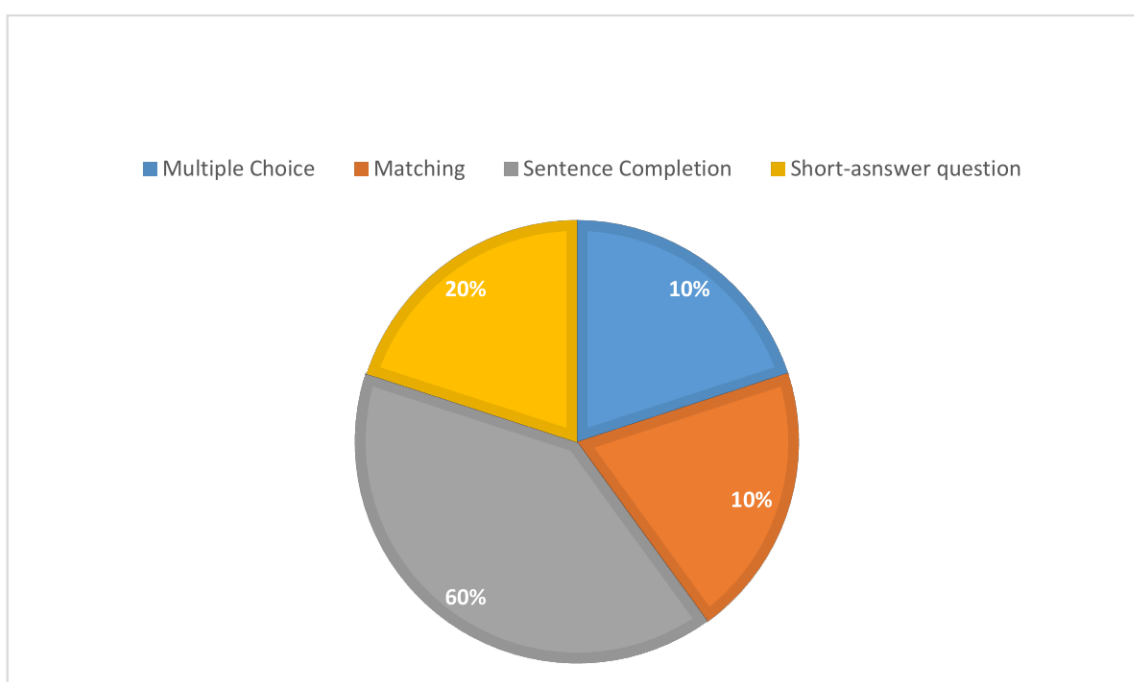
The fourth question was about how difficult it is for high school students to understand and recognize words in their listening tasks. Most of the teachers surveyed say that most students sometimes have difficulty understanding listening texts. According to 8 respondents, they only occasionally notice that students did not understand the full content.

The next question researched how well students could interpret and pay attention to the text they heard and the task at the same time. 20% of teachers think that students will almost never be able to do two things properly at the same time. 70% think that only occasionally do they manage to achieve this, while the rest say that students usually manage to overcome this difficulty.

The sixth question is about how well students are able to understand the text what they hear if there are too many unknown words in it. And by doing so, trying to research how well students are able to infer from already known words. According to the diagram, 3.3.2 it is difficult for students to understand the text if there are too many unknown words in it. It is often a problem for students to infer the meaning of the text what they are listening to.

Diagram 3.3.2 Difficulties in listening comprehension

Never difficult ■ Only Occasionally difficult ■ Sometimes difficult ■ Usually difficult ■ Always difficult
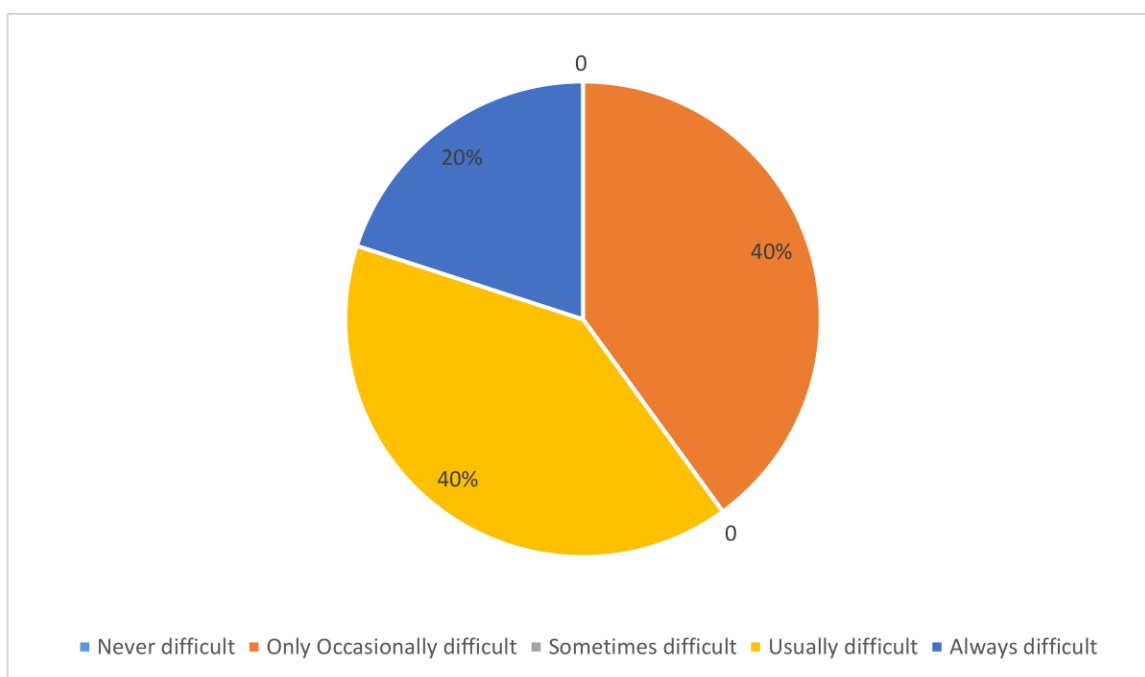
The seventh question consists of whether students have some strategy on how to understand the recordings more easily. It was an open question with various answers and views. Some teachers say students do not use any strategy, they simply listen and try to solve tasks. While other teachers gave answers that some students try to take notes to memorize and understand more important

information. There were also responses that teachers discuss unknown words with students before listening so that comprehension is not a problem.

The eighth question focuses on speaking skills. According to teachers, how difficult it is for students to understand them while speaking. 80% do not have any problems with understanding. The remaining 20% is only occasional, which is sometimes influenced by the context.

The next question was also an open question for teachers. In which the extent to which students are able to use appropriate words while speaking has been researched. Among the answers was that they know the use of words quite well and they rarely cause any problems. However, according to some observations, students sometimes do not use the right words, but similar ones, and because of this, synonym words are do not to use in the same way. According to other opinions, students are able to put together meaningful, correct sentences, but they also misunderstand the word and use it incorrectly.

In question ten, teachers had to describe whether students try to form only short sentences or try more complex, longer sentences. The answers were almost uniform, with students trying to use short sentences instead. Because they are afraid of the more complicated, longer sentences that they are not using the right words, they do not start with the correct word order or grammar.

Question eleven showed at how much pressure students feel when a teacher obliges them to speak English and they are not decide for themselves to want to speak in English or not. Iis clear that there were very different responses.

The twelfth question includes whether students have difficulty pronouncing while speaking or possibly pronouncing new words. In 40 and 40% of responses, this is sometimes or usually causes problem for young people. And in the remaining 20%, it is only occasionally difficult to pronounce the words while speaking.

In the next question, researched the writing skills to see how well students can systematize their thoughts while writing. The majority of responses suggest that this is not problem. And this results in students being able to write essays quite well, with the right structure and line of thought.

In the fourteenth question, teachers were asked how complicated the spelling for students. There was no response that was too negative, which is a big advantage. 40% of respondents say they only occasionally have a problem when they come across a word that is new and unfamiliar to them. Another 30% say it only causes difficulties for students sometimes, and the remaining few percent say it is usually a problem.

In the fifteenth question, research whether students are structurally flawed when they try to use more complex, longer sentences. 70% of respondents say it is usually a problem. 20% sometimes and 10% say it only causes difficulty occasionally.

The sixteenth question is that students know the correct word order when they are composing sentences. There was an almost unanimous answer. 90% of teachers say students can only sometimes use the correct word order. And 10% say students always know the right word order when editing simpler sentences.

The seventeenth question already focuses on reading skills. Subjects were asked if students had problem with reading aloud in lesson. Distributed responses were received. The results are shown in diagram 3.3.5. 50% of respondents chose the option that they never or almost never have a problem with their students reading aloud. 30% say they only have difficulties occasionally when children encounter new and complicated words. And 20% of teachers say this is sometimes a problem in the classroom.

The next question is that students tend to take this note in the reading tasks. There have been very definite answers to this. 70% of those surveyed say that students almost never take notes. The remaining 30% say only occasionally. This is quite negative, as it would be much easier to understand more complicated texts if at least students were to write notes.

In the nineteenth question, the question was asked if students would not know many words in their reading task and would be able to infer the meaning of the text. The result is shown in diagram 3.3.6. The diagram shows that 70% of students usually realize the meaning of words. 25% say sometimes, while the remaining 15% show that they only succeed occasionally.

Diagram 3.3.6 Inference of unknown words
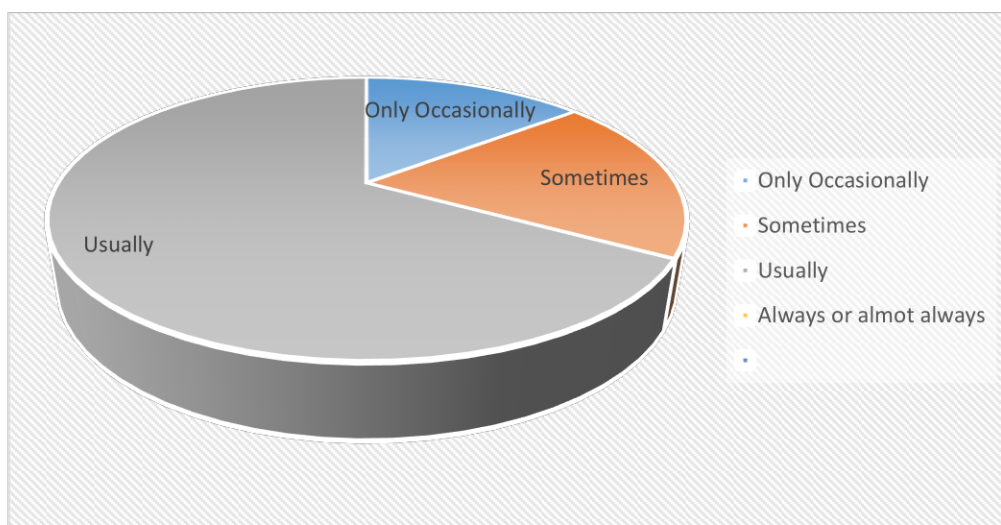
The twentieth question also concerns comprehension, which is the most difficult type of task for students in comprehension. 90% of teachers unanimously agreed that text with paragraph missing is the most difficult type of task for students. The remaining 5-5 percent say open cloze and multiple choice tasks are the most complicated.

The twenty-first question was also addressed to teachers, what materials are used to teach reading comprehension. Various ideas have been collected, bringing details from books and using them. They use short stories and articles. And for this, they use different types of tasks in the lessons.

3.4 Results and implications

Summarize the results of this questionnaire it can be stated that students have different difficulties in foreign language learning in school.

The results showed that most of the learners are able to understand English but they have a lot of difficulty with language skills. One of the goals of education and teachers is to help students overcome these difficulties to they can develop their foreign language skills as effectively as possible.

Teachers confirmed that the majority of students do not understand and recognize words in their listening tasks. And this is a serious problem because they are not able to solve tasks efficiently and successfully. Students do not try any strategies to solve these more easily. As a result, they do not concentrate enough in class and students do not practice this type of tasks at home, they do not listen to English often.

Research shows that students often unable to use words in the correct context while speaking. They do not memorize and learn the words enough so they cannot use synonyms well. Students often feel pressured to speak English, which shows that they do not speak enough to improve themselves.

According to research students perform significantly better in the writing skills than speaking. They have enough time to think through and formulate the sentences. Although here, too, they try to avoid making more complex sentences because they are afraid of the grammar and the correct word order.

According to research, only a small percentage of high school students struggle with reading aloud. When students see the text, they can deduce the meaning of the words in the text in a much higher percentage than when they only hear it. Almost consistent answers emerged from the research

that the most difficult type of reading task is text with paragraph missing. This may be because the paragraphs are often similar and students cannot decide which part to attach. They do not read enough English to develop their reading skills.

Finally, it can be stated that learners have many difficulty problems with language skills and when they are doing skills tasks because they are not motivated enough or do not concentrate and practice.

CONCLUSION

In today's world, multilingualism is becoming more and more important. Foreign language learning has a significant role in the of students life. It determines their future and offers special opportunities.

In this thesis, based on the literature review, the foreign language learning difficulties have been presented. It is allows to have insight into a different point of view, improves one's capacity to recognize connections across content areas. The teacher's responsibility to address shortcoming areas of understudied students with difficulties by making educational and content alterations.

The main goal of this study was to provide an explanation of foreign language learning difficulties and their types giving explanations of their causes. It also presents some possible alternatives of the avoidances of foreign language learning difficulties.

There are many types of foreign language learning difficulties, caused by different factors such as illness (dyslexia), lack of motivation, lack of practice, lack of concentration.

The first part of the thesis focused on discussed in the theoretical concepts of foreign language, foreign language difficulties and their types. A number of linguists have discussed on the issues Ganschow and Schneider. In the initial segment presented to which native oral and composed language abilities are key elements in foreign language obtaining.

In the second part the possible fl learning difficulties of developing language skills. Suggested solutions were also presented to solve this problems. Acquiring language skills is essential for students. It is important that they develop themselves and be sufficiently focused.

The third part of the thesis is a research project that examined the foreign language learning difficulties. The sample was chosen different criterias. . A total of 20 teachers took part in the research. The research instrument was a questionnaire consisting of 21 items. Based on the results of the survey, may be conclude that students have a lot of difficulties in all four skills. It has been revealed that if the students are not focused enough they will be able to complete the listening tasks and interpret the text with little success. Teachers confirmed that the majority of students do not understand and recognize words in their listening tasks. Research shows that students are unable to use words in the correct context while speaking. They do not memorize and learn the words enough so they cannot use synonyms well.

Overall, foreign language difficulties play an important role in characterizing how effectively learners can use their knowledge. They are less successful in lesson due to difficulties and are unable to solve tasks successfully.

Based on the findings of the study, assume that students are not motivated, under pressure, and not concentrated enough. Furthermore, it is not enough to just store the knowledge what they have acquired in class, they also need to develop skills at home, listen to more English to recognize words more easily and read much more to improve their vocabulary and grammar.

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РЕЗЮМЕ

У сучасному світі багатомовність стає все більш важливою. Вивчення іноземної мови відіграє значну роль у житті студентів. Це визначає їхнє майбутнє і відкриває особливі можливості.

У цій дипломній роботі на основі огляду літератури представлені труднощі вивчення іноземної мови. Це дозволяє мати уявлення про іншу точку зору, покращує здатність розпізнавати зв'язки між областями вмісту. Відповідальність вчителя за усунення недоліків недостатньо вивчених учнів із труднощами шляхом внесення змін у навчальні та змістовні роботи.

Основна мета цього дослідження полягала в тому, щоб дати пояснення труднощів вивчення іноземної мови та їх типи з поясненням їх причин. У ньому також представлені деякі можливі альтернативи уникнення труднощів із вивченням іноземної мови.

Існує багато типів труднощів із вивченням іноземної мови, викликаних різними факторами, такими як хвороба (дислексія), відсутність мотивації, відсутність практики, відсутність концентрації.

У першій частині дипломної роботи зосереджено увагу на розглянутих в теоретичних поняттях іноземної мови, іншомовних труднощах та їх видах. Ряд лінгвістів обговорювали питання Ганшова і Шнайдера. У початковому сегменті представлено, для якого вміння рідної та складної мови є ключовими елементами в опануванні іноземною мовою.

У другій частині можливі fl труднощі навчання розвитку мовних навичок. Були також запропоновані рішення для вирішення цієї проблеми. Набуття мовних навичок є важливим для студентів. Важливо, щоб вони розвивалися і були достатньо цілеспрямованими.

Третя частина дипломної роботи – це дослідницький проект, який досліджує труднощі вивчення іноземної мови. Вибірка була обрана за різними критеріями. . Всього в дослідженні взяли участь 20 викладачів. Інструментом дослідження була анкета, яка складалася з 21 пункту. За результатами опитування можна зробити висновок, що у студентів є багато труднощів у всіх чотирьох навичках. Було виявлено, що якщо учні недостатньо зосереджені, вони зможуть виконати завдання на аудіювання та інтерпретувати текст з незначним успіхом. Вчителі підтвердили, що більшість учнів не розуміють і не розпізнають слова у своїх завданнях на аудіювання. Дослідження показують, що учні не можуть використовувати слова в правильному контексті під час мовлення. Вони недостатньо запам'ятовують і не вивчають слова, тому не можуть добре використовувати синоніми.

Загалом, труднощі з іноземною мовою відіграють важливу роль у характеристиці того, наскільки ефективно учні можуть використовувати свої знання. Вони менш успішні на уроці через труднощі і не можуть успішно розв'язувати завдання.

Виходячи з результатів дослідження, припустимо, що студенти не мотивовані, знаходяться під тиском і недостатньо зосереджені. Крім того, недостатньо просто зберігати знання, які вони набули на уроці, їм також потрібно розвивати навички вдома, більше слухати англійську, щоб легше розпізнавати слова, і читати набагато більше, щоб покращити свій словниковий запас і граматику.

APPENDIX

A nevem Revák Brigitta, a II. Rákóczi Ferenc Kárpátaljai Magyar Főiskola 4. évfolyamos angol nyelv és irodalom szakos végzős hallgatója vagyok. A kérdőívben az idegen nyelv tanulásának nehézségeit kutatom.

1. **Nem? / Sex?**
   - Male
   - Female

2. **Hány éve tanít? / How many years have you been teaching?**

3. **Melyik hallgatási feladat típus okozza a legnagyobb nehézséget a tanulók számára? / Which type of task causes the greatest difficulty for students in listening tasks?**

   - Multiple Choice / Feleletválasztós
   - Matching / Párosítás
   - Sentence Completion / Mondat kiegészítés
   - Short-answer question / Rövid válaszú kérdések

4. **Mennyire okoz gondot a szavak felismerése a tanulók számára a hallgatási feladatokban? / How difficult is it for students to recognize words in their listening tasks?**

   - Never or almost never / Soha vagy szinte soha
   - Only Occasionally / Csak alkalmanként
   - Sometimes / Néha
   - Usually / Általában
   - Always or almost always / Mindig vagy szinte mindig

5. **A tanulók mennyire tudják értelmezni a hallottakat és közben odafigyelni a feladatra? / What extent can students interpret what they hear while paying attention to the task?**

   - Never or almost never / Soha vagy szinte soha

- Only Occasionally / Csak alkalmanként
- Sometimes / Néha
- Usually / Általában
- Always or almost always / Mindig vagy szinte mindig

6. **A tanulók számára mennyire bonyolult a hallgatási szövegek megértése, amikor túl sok ismeretlen szó van benne? / How difficult is it for students to understand listening texts when there are too many unknown words in it?**

- Never difficult / Soha nem bonyolult
- Only Occasionally difficult / Csak alkalmanként bonyolult
- Sometimes difficult / Néha bonyolult
- Usually difficult / Általában bonyolult
- Always difficult / Mindig bonyolult

7. **A tanulóknak van valamilyen stratégiájuk, hogy minél könnyebben fogják fel a szöveget hallgatás közben? / Do students have any strategies to grasp the text as easily as possible while listening?**

8. **A tanulók számára nehéz megérteni a tanárt beszéd közben? / Is it difficult for students to understand the teacher while speaking?**

- Never or almost never / Nem vagy többnyire nem
- Only Occasionally / Csak alkalmanként
- Sometimes / Néha
- Usually/ Általában
- Always or almost always / Mindig vagy szinte mindig

9. **A tanulók mennyire tudják használni a megfelelő szavakat beszéd közben? / To what extent can students use the right words while speaking**?

10. **A tanulók kizárólag rövid mondatokat használnak vagy próbálkoznak összetettebb mondatkat készíteni beszéd közben? / Do students use only short sentences or try to make more complex sentences while speaking?**

11. A tanulók nyomás alatt érzik magukat mikor nem önként kell megszólalniuk angolul / Do students feel pressured when they don't have to speak English voluntarily?

- Never or almost never / Soha vagy szinte soha
- Only Occasionally / Csak alkalmanként
- Sometimes / Néha
- Usually / Általában
- Always or almost always/ Mindig vagy szinte mindig

12. Nehézséget okoz-e a kiejtés a tanulók számára beszéd közben? / Does pronunciation make it difficult for students to speak?

- Never or almost never / Soha vagy szinte soha
- Only Occasionally / Csak alkalmanként
- Sometimes / Néha
- Sometimes / Néha
- Always or almost always / Mindig vagy szinte mindig

13. A tanulók tudják rendszerezni a gondolataikat írás közben? / Are students able to systematize their thoughts while writing?

- Never or almost never / Soha vagy szinte soha
- Only Occasionally / Cask alkalmanként
- Sometimes / Néha
- Usually / Általában
- Always or almost always / Mindig vagy szinte mindig

14. A tanulók tudják a helyes betűzést amikor íráskészségi feladatot kapnak? / Do students know the correct spelling when given a writing skills task?

- Never or almost never / Soha vagy szinte soha
- Only Occasionally / Csak alkalmanként
- Sometimes / Néha
- Usually / Általában
- Always or almost always / Mindig vagy szinte mindig

15. Ha hosszabb mondatokat írnak a tanulók akkor azok szerkezetileg hibásak? / If students write longer sentences, are they structurally incorrect?

- Never or almost never / Soha vagy szinte soha
- Only Occasionally / Csak alkalmanként
- Sometimes / Néha
- Usually / Általában
- Always or almost always / Mindig vagy szinte mindig

16. Szórendet megfelelően tudják a tanulók? / Do students know the word order correctly?

- Never or almost never / Soha vagy szinte soha
- Only Occasionally / Csak alkalmanként
- Sometimes / Néha
- Usually / Mindig
- Always or almost always / Mindig vagy szinte mindig

17. Jelent nehézséget a tanulók számára a hangos olvasás? / Is it difficult for students to read aloud?

- Never or almost never/ Soha vagy szinte soha
- Only Occasionally / Csak alkalmanként
- Sometimes / Néha
- Usually / Általában
- Always or almost always / Mindig vagy szinte mindig

18. Készítenek a tanulók jegyzetet olvasás közben, hogy jobban megértsék a szöveget? / Do students make a note while reading to better understand the text?

- Never or almost never / Soha vagy szinte soha
- Only Occasionally / Csak alkalmanként
- Sometimes / Néha
- Usually / Általában
- Always or almost always / Mindig vagy szinte mindig

19. Ha több szót nem ismernek a tanulók a szövegből, akkor a szövegkörnyezetből ki tudják következtetni a helyes jelentést? / If students do not know more words from the text, can they deduce the correct meaning from the context?

- Never or almost never / Soha vagy szinte soha
- Only Occasionally / Csak alkalmanként
- Sometimes / Néha
- Usually / Általában
- Always or almost always / Mindig vagy szinte mindig

20. Melyik feladat típus a legnehezebb a tanulók számára szövegértésnél? / Which type of task causes the greatest difficulty for students in reading task?

- Multiple Choice
- Open Cloze
- Text with paragraphs missing
- Multiple matching

21. Milyen anyagokat használ az olvasásértés oktatása során? / What materials are used during the teaching of readings?

NYILATKOZAT

Alulírott, Revák Brigitta angol szakos hallgató, kijelentem, hogy a dolgozatomat a II. Rákóczi Ferenc Kárpátaljai Magyar Főiskolán, a Filológia tanszéken készítettem, angol nyelv és irodalom tanári diploma megszerzése végett.

Kijelentem, hogy a dolgozatot más szakon korábban nem védtem meg, saját munkám eredménye, és csak a hivatkozott forrásokat (szakirodalom, eszközök stb.) használtam fel.

Tudomásul veszem, hogy dolgozatomat a II. Rákóczi Ferenc Kárpátaljai Magyar Főiskola könyvtárának Kézirattárában helyezik el.

Beregszász, 2022. június 1.   _____

                                                                                    Revák Brigitta