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ADDRESSING THE NEEDS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

Bachelor's Thesis

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INTRODUCTION

As English has acquired a unique status among the other languages of the world and has been acknowledged as a 'global language', its impact on the modern day society has been extensively studied in recent years. This continuously-growing interest in the study of English has led to the expansion of the domain of English Language Teaching (ELT), mainly concerned with the teaching of general English. Nevertheless, new world factors brought about a particular (professional, occupational or vocational) interest in the study of a particular domain of the English language. The fact that the nation's teachers are and will increasingly encounter a diverse range of learners requires that every teacher has sufficient breadth and depth of knowledge and range of skills to be able to meet the unique needs of all students, including those who struggle with English.

The *purpose* of the paper is to identify the needs of English language learners and through this determination make suggestions to improve the language learning process in general. The year paper focuses on the importance of learning English at the present stage of social development; the theoretical foundation for analysing student needs; identification of the factors, principles and regularities of effective classrooms. The year paper presents a variety of methods, which are typically used for gathering data for needs analyses.

The *object* of the paper is the English language process in general, based on the principles of modern ways of teaching foreign languages.

The *subject* of the present paper is the concept of language necessities, wants and difficulties towards which the learning process should be directed.

This study *will address the following research questions:*

1. What are the English language needs of Ukrainian-speaking students in the senior forms of general secondary schools with respect to reading, writing, listening, and speaking?
2. What gaps exist with regard to English language knowledge?

To answer these questions, some methods will be used in the process of the study. In particular, research-relevant literature will be reviewed, a questionnaire requesting information pertinent to determining English language needs will be constructed and used during the research. This questionnaire will ask the students about their English learning background and their particular current academic situation. In addition, it will ask them to rank by frequency and importance particular languages skills necessary for their academic success. Finally, a descriptive quantitative method will be applied to carry out the analysis of the questionnaire results.

The theoretical value of the year paper is based on a set of observations and studies of students' needs conducted and analyzed by well-known contemporary methodologists and researchers including West, R., Sava S., Lessow-Hurley J., Samson F. J. and Collins B.A., who were focused on the theory of Needs Analysis in Language Teaching. Dornyei, Z., Rueda, R., Chen, B.C., Smith, M.R., Neisworth T.J. and Greer G.J., have driven the further development of evaluating educational environments and the place of motivation in the Foreign Language Classroom. Theoretical Bases of Communicative Approaches have been explored in prior studies by Canale M., and Allwright, R. The theoretical value is built on the currently accepted principles of “needs analysis” to second language pedagogy by determining the extent to which they are grounded in theories of language, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and other language-related disciplines.

The practical value of the course paper can be determined in the light of identification of the range of needs of contemporary students, prioritizing these needs according to their impact and clarifying the conditions according to which the process of English language learning can be improved.

The research work consists of three parts. The first part of the paper deals broadly with the rationale for the study. It outlines the relation of needs analysis to the process of modern language teaching and emphasizes the characteristics of effective language schools and classrooms. The second part presents the theoretical basis of needs analysis, indicates the types of learning needs and shows with the help of which methods these needs can be revealed. The theoretical part, based on works of English, American as well as Ukrainian authors provides a background for the practical part, which is developed in the form of research. The use of a quantitative approach to such a task seemed to be the most efficient. The third part introduces the results of the questionnaire, which is conducted to determine the most common needs of students in the process of English language learning. This is followed by an analysis of the data and a conclusion that discusses key findings and implications for teacher education.

PART 1

THE RELATION OF NEEDS ANALYSIS TO THE PROCESS OF MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

In the present age, no one can deny the importance of English language. It is used all over the world as a second and foreign language in non-native context. Nowadays, a huge number of people around the world are learning English, as they realize that only with knowledge of the language one can become successful in a particular field if one uses the language in conjunction with previously formed skills. All worldwide communication between people is built in English. One of the major aspect represented in the Part 1 is the identification of a modern English language learner and the place of his or her needs in the process of foreign language learning.

The present part of the research work seeks to clarify what are the characteristics of effective learning environment and their importance in the Needs Analysis research. The first part discusses issues involving the identification of effective schools based on academic achievement criteria, such as effective schools correlates and achievement criteria of effectiveness. The current part interprets the studies conducted by Rueda R., and Chen B. C [24], Dornyei Z. [12] and Hafen A.C [15], who discussed the relations between the environment and motivation of students.

1.1 Definition of modern English language learner

As it was suggested by the editors of the Language Lab [13], language is nothing but a systematic means of communication by the use of words, symbols and sounds. In today's interconnected and globalized world, learning English language has been a very important factor. It is one of the most widely spoken languages. It is considered to be a common international language when it comes to field of education, business, trade and commerce. If one does not know to speak in English then he or she will surely fail to keep a pace of the progressive force of the world. Knowing English will certainly pave way to better employment opportunities in today's competitive and changing world. Researchers state that imparting proficiency in English language should begin right from the school level. As it is being said that English language is being accepted worldwide it is important for the students to master in this particular language.

Amari, [7] proves that English is becoming a widely used language, and through it, one can participate in a variety of social activities, because language is more than simply a way of expression, it helps people form relationships and know how to interact in different social

contexts depending on sociolinguistic situations. English is one of the most important languages of the world.

Songhori, [29, p. 17] demonstrates that teaching English to non-native speakers is a challenging experience for teachers. TEFL refers to teaching English in formal contexts and English in that case represents a foreign language for learners. This was experimentally investigated by H. H. Stern [30] in his work "Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching" who defined language teaching as the activities which are intended to bring about language learning. In other words, language teaching is more than instructing a class, it is a process which involves different activities, and it is the responsibility of the teacher to discover when and how to engage learners in the classroom environment.

EFL teachers are interested in providing their learners with the knowledge needed to be competent to a certain extent in the target language. According to Canale [9] to be competent is in terms of three dimensions. In other words, they have defined communicative competence as having knowledge of grammatical rules and vocabulary and they named that component the linguistic or grammatical competence. The second competence, which is the sociolinguistic one, is concerned with knowledge of socio-cultural rules of the language in order to know how to use the language being taught in an appropriate way. Whereas the third is the strategic competence which is the ability to use certain strategies to compensate for breakdowns in communication. Whereas, Lessow-Hurley, [20, p.15] argues that developing communicatively competent learners is the goal that most EFL teachers wish to accomplish, but of course, communicative competence is not sufficient. Learners need other dimensions to succeed, to be accurate and fluent and to achieve that, teachers are supposed to set a number of plans, which should be designed with taking into consideration different goals and of course their learners levels and needs.

When teachers become aware of the dimensions proposed by Canale [9], they can easily cope with the problems they face in their teaching career, and can find ways to help their learners cope with their learning problems in order to achieve their educational goals and tasks.

Amari, [7] shows that teachers of English as a foreign language are the knowledge providers for learners, they are the ones who are able to make diagnosis for the psychological elements, which intervene in the process of learning; when they understand the factors affecting learners' performance they can easily make a change.

August and Hakuta [8] are convinced that good English learning in the school level will help in making the students competent in this era of globalization. It will certainly help to bridge the communication gap between people of various other countries and thereby bringing the whole world under one single roof. It is high time that innovative and new breakthrough

strategies of improving the language learning method should be adopted by schools. Altogether, it will help the students to speak English language just like any other native speakers.

Wikipedia contributors [32] give a definition to a modern English language learner as it is a term used in some English-speaking countries such as the US and Canada to describe a person who is learning the English language in addition to his or her native language or any other languages they may speak. The instruction and assessment of students, their cultural background, and the attitudes of classroom teachers towards ELLs have all been found to be factors in ELL student achievement. Some ways that have been suggested to assist ELLs include bringing their home cultures into the classroom, involving them in language-appropriate content-area instruction from the beginning, and by integrating literature into the learning program. The term was introduced partially in response to critiques that for many students English may be not just their second language, but their third or fourth. It also implies that the student is currently in the process of improving their English language proficiency. However, this term also causes controversy. Native English speakers are also English language learners. Native English-speaking students also learn about new vocabulary. Language minority students is also commonly used to describe this population.

Li N. [21, p.217] comments that best practices in general refer to what works in a particular situation or environment. Researchers that a best practice may include any technique or method that, through experience and research, has proven to be reliable and can lead to a desired result. The best practice in teaching must, first of all, involve the commitment of a teacher who is willing to use the knowledge and techniques at his or her disposal to ensure student success. It is imperative that teachers are committed to advance their knowledge and skills for the purpose of promoting student learning. Four best practices here are intended to help teachers work with the ELLs successfully and to increase the effectiveness in classroom instruction. According to Li N. [21, p. 218], these four practices are:

- Increasing comprehensible input,
- Encouraging social collaboration,
- Relating learning to the real world
- Providing supportive learning environments.

Amari, [7] emphasizes that critical concept for learning a second-language is to increase comprehensible input and this comes from L2 acquisition theories. According to this theory, learners must be able to understand the essence of what is being said or presented to them, i.e., the message must be comprehensible. In order to increase comprehension for ELLs, teachers need to use various teaching techniques and strategies to ensure that ELLs understand the materials presented to them.

It is clear that the value of the English language in the modern world is difficult to overestimate. What is more, the range of distribution of English in the modern world is so great that this language cannot be identical in different areas. Despite its various options and the presence of specific features for each nationality, English remains the most popular in our globe.

1.2 Effective Schools and Classrooms for ELLs

August, D. and Hakuta K. [8] comment that the basic design and logic of **effective schools research** still inform efforts to discover principles or processes that can be used to improve schooling opportunities and outcomes for "at-risk" students. However, the design has become more of a hybrid, relying on both student outcomes and nomination.

Beginning in the 1970s, and largely in response to findings described by August D. and Hakuta K. [8] suggesting that differences in student outcomes were due largely to factors outside the control of schools, a group of studies appeared that challenged this conclusion by identifying effective schools and the characteristics that made them effective. This research yielded what became) a familiar list of "effective schools" characteristics, which included the following:

- Strong leadership, particularly instructional, by the principal;
- High expectations for student achievement;
- Clear school-wide focus on basic skills;
- A safe, orderly school environment;
- Frequent assessment of student academic progress.

Despite early and ongoing criticism, effective schools research has evolved over the past two decades, flourishing and even turning into a national movement.

In the 1990s, there has been a significant change in the way "effective" schools are identified, particularly in efforts to uncover effective schooling dimensions for English-language learners. Instead of designating schools as effective on the basis of measures of student learning or achievement, investigators now typically use a "nominated" schools design.

As in the previous effective schools research, current investigators attempt to identify schools or programs that are "exemplary." However, rather than being identified on the basis of outcome measures, schools are identified in accordance with the professional judgments of knowledgeable educators.

Canale, [9] concluded that prospective case studies and quasi-experiments represent a different approach to studying effective schooling. Instead of finding schools that are already "effective" or have been nominated as such, prospective studies attempt to document changes in

school-wide programs or classrooms and the effects of these changes on student achievement. In the ideal situation, the changes are based on strong theory.

To draw the conclusion, one can say that cognitive activity should be the mainstay in the process of mastering modes of activity. This student activity is directed by the teacher and has specific learning goals: from the formation of students' scientific worldview and the development of their mental abilities, to the practical application of the acquired knowledge as the ultimate goal of knowledge of objective reality.

1.2.1.Characteristics of Effective Learning Environment

Dornyei, Z. [12, p.275] reports that his study of Motivation and Motivating in the Foreign Language Classroom shows that the learning environment should provide effective context that reflect the way the knowledge will be used in real life, provide essential activities and coaching by the teachers at critical times, support collaborative construction of knowledge, and promote reflection to enable abstractions to be formed. Also learning environment should embed acquisition processes as much as possible, using authentic context that have personal meaning for students, it should induce and support constructive, cumulative, and goal oriented acquisition processes in all learners through a good balance between discovery learning and personal exploration on the one hand, and systematic instruction and guidance on the other hand. Effectiveness goes far beyond language medium and language outcomes to embrace the full education of a student. It concerns what is deemed best for the child and not just a language. Dornyei, [12, p.276] suggests some key factors in effective bilingual schools and classrooms.

First, it is important to repeat the distinction between teaching a language and teaching through a language. Language acquisition in the immersion, heritage and dual programs is mostly through a second language being used as a medium of instruction.

Second, close to the idea of two or more languages being used for instruction is the concept of language across the curriculum. In all curriculum areas, students learn skills, knowledge, concepts and attitudes mostly through language. Thus, every curriculum area develops language competence. All subject areas contribute to the growth of a child's language or language competencies. At the same time, achievement in a particular curriculum area is partly depended on proficiency in the language of that area. The emotional climate of a classroom is of extreme importance in fostering academic progress. Another important determinant of language learning achievement is motivation.

Dornyei, [12, p.278] in his work defined motivation as the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes toward learning the

language. He stated that the majority of past research has tended to focus on the social and pragmatic dimensions of L2 motivation, some studies have attempted to extend the Gardnerian construct by adding new components, such as intrinsic/ extrinsic motivation, intellectual curiosity, attribution about past successes/failures, need for achievement, self-confidence, and classroom goal structures, as well as various motives related to learning situation-specific variables such as classroom events and tasks, classroom climate and group cohesion, course content and teaching materials, teacher feedback, and grades and rewards.

Rueda and Chen [24] in their study “Assessing Motivational Factors in Foreign Language Learning: Cultural Variation in Key Constructs” used references to recent studies to advocate stimulating student’s motivation in order to increase their interest and achievement. These studies showed that “students with greater second and foreign language learning motivation, in most cases, receive higher grades and achieve better proficiency in the target language”. They stated the following four guiding principles to define an excellent learning environment:

1. A good learning environment helps to improve the learning outcome.
2. A good learning environment provides the learner with care and support.
3. A good learning environment inspires and boosts the learning spirit.
4. A good learning environment cultivates responsibility in the learner.

In addition, Dornyei [12] found second-language motivation strongly tied to the context or where the language is learned.

Various definitions of the learning environment exist in the literature. Rueda and Chen [24] described the learning environment as having five dimensions:

1. Physical environment, architecture, design and arrangement considerations for the school and particularly the instructional space.
2. Instructional arrangements, curriculum content and characteristics, teaching method, and materials and media for instruction.
3. Social situation, teacher-child, child-child, interactions, group dynamics, classroom, school and community social aspects.
4. Evaluation instruments and evaluative practices, placement, summative and formative devices and procedures used by school psychologist and others.
5. Supportive services, in-school (health, speech, counselling) and out-of-school (employment counselling, follow-up) facilities.

Properly implemented interactive teaching methods stimulate motivation of students, develop imagination and teach to think independently. The effectiveness and power of influencing the emotions and consciousness of students depends on the skills and style of the particular teacher. At the same time, it requires the design and development of such learning

tools, the use of which would combine different types of information environment with an active form of learning, which allows to increase the motivation of learning through visualization, multimedia representation of models of objects of study. It should be noted that interactivity can be seen as an interaction of the learner with the learner indirectly through learning tools.

1.2.2. The place of Needs Research in the Identification of Effective Classrooms and Schools

Researchers should make explicit their principles for selecting effective schools and classrooms. These principles should be based on some combination of indicators of process (curriculum, leadership, school climate, instructional strategies) and outcomes (standardized and performance-based achievement measures). The definition should be influenced by local priorities and contexts.

August D. and Hakuta K. [8, p.168] state that given the variation in the way effectiveness is defined across studies, research needs to address what one means by "effective." Research on effective schools could benefit greatly from the development of some principles of effectiveness for English-language learners that would still leave room for variations based on local priorities and contexts. These principles might incorporate issues of equity and access for all students (which would address the issue of separation of English-language learners from native-English speakers), theoretical foundations for programs and practices, evidence from student achievement, and evidence from student behaviour and engagement in school (attendance, suspensions, graduation rates).

In some cases, effectiveness appears to be tied to a particular theory of teaching and learning. Other studies take a different approach and define effectiveness in terms of measurable student achievement outcomes: a school or teachers are relatively effective if students are achieving at some criterion level, or at least significantly better than students in comparable schools. In addition, teachers must look for concrete and documented evidence that programs and practices claiming to be "exemplary" also help produce desirable student outcomes. This is a variation on recommendation, addressing whether teachers need special skills and knowledge to teach English-language learners effectively. There are those who believe that good teaching is good teaching, no matter who the students are. Research on how current reforms in curriculum, assessment, and school organization and the particulars of classroom instruction are and are not appropriate for and effective with English-language learners would provide empirical evidence to support or refute such beliefs.

In the first part of the research work, it has been acknowledged that effectiveness is closely related to the theory of teaching and learning. In addition, the importance of a well-developed curriculum, emotional climate as well as the relevance of students' motivation has been emphasised. From the facts presented above, one may conclude that English is gaining more and more popularity. It is spoken almost all over the world. People are surrounded by English, it penetrates tightly into their daily lives. Principals of effective schools have a unitary mission of improved student learning, and their actions convey certainty that these goals can be attained. Such characteristics include strong leadership, high expectations for student achievement, clear school-wide focus on basic skills, a safe, orderly school environment and frequent assessment of student academic progress.

The represented researchers showed that students with greater second/foreign language learning motivation, in most cases, receive higher grades and achieve better proficiency in the target language. Together, the present finding confirm that the presented principles should be based on mixture of indicators of process as well as desirable outcomes. Because the work of these principals pivots around improving student achievement, teachers have specific, concrete goals toward which to direct their efforts and know precisely when those efforts produce the desired effects. They are further encouraged by a supportive collegial group that lends ideas and assistance where needed. In turn, by achieving goals of student learning, teachers are provided with necessary motivation to continue to produce.

PART 2

THEORETICAL BASIS FOR NEEDS ANALYSIS OF A MODERN ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNER

Needs analysis is a useful tool to understand students' needs and to help the implementation of educational policies. In recent years, language teaching has become more and more learner-centred. There is a long history of analysing student's needs EFL field.

The aim of this part is to broaden current knowledge of need analysis as a driving factor in learning English. Needs analysis is a key concept in this field of research; it is formed on the basis of methodology field as well as serves a starting point for all areas of work of teachers.

The second part of the current work provides a brief overview of the history of Needs Analysis as well as defines the types of needs and the criterion according to which they can be distinguished. The research work presents a large number of alternative methods of collecting data, which have been significantly developed over the last few decades. This section presents a review of recent literature on Needs Analysis, with the reference to the works of West [31], R., Sava S. [27], Lessow-Hurley J. [26], Samson F. J. & Collins B.A [26], who brought convincing information about the background of the problem.

The next chapter investigates the question of the general assumptions of the field of second language acquisition (SLA) that are directly challenged by Vygotsky's theoretical orientation, which in turn allows researchers to better explicate the contribution that Needs Analysis makes to language learning education.

2.1 The historical overview of the study of Needs Analysis

The term '**analysis of needs**' first appears in India in the 1920s, when Michael West [31] introduced the concept to cover two separate and potentially conflicting concepts of 'need' contributing to the 'surrender value' of learning: what learners will be required to do with the foreign language in the target situation, and how learners might best master the target language during the period of training.

West [31] was concerned with secondary-level learners whose needs, though determinable in broad terms, could not be defined with any great precision and whose teaching is indeed often defined in terms which exclude any concept of need - what Abbott in his research work calls **TENOR (Teaching English for No Obvious Reason)**. However, the term returns to central prominence with the advent of ESP, for which needs analysis has become a key

instrument in course design. The term '**English for Special Purposes**' appeared first at the Makerere Conference and this was soon linked to concepts of need. Indeed, West [31] confirms that some experts refer to 'English for Special Needs', although for them 'need' was defined purely in linguistic terms as *a special language* or *register*. Experts believe that an important principle of ESP approaches to language teaching is that the purposes for which learner needs language rather than a syllabus reflecting of general English should be used in planning an English course. Rather than developing a course around an analysis of the language, an ESP approach starts instead with an analysis of the learner's needs.

According to Richards [23, p.23] in ESP learner's needs are often described in terms of performance, that is, in terms of what the learner will be able to do with the language at the end of a course of study. Whereas in a general English course the goal is usually an overall mastery of the language that can be tested on a global language test, the goal of an ESP course is to prepare the learners to carry out a specific task or set of tasks.

Furthermore, Songhori's [29] study illustrates that needs analysis has gone through many stages, with the publication of Communicative Syllabus Design in 1978, situations and functions were set within the frame of needs analysis. In his book, it was introduced as '*communication needs processor*'. Songhori's [29] findings show that from that time several other terms have also been introduced:

- Present Situation Analysis;
- Pedagogic Needs Analysis;
- Deficiency Analysis;
- Strategy Analysis or Learning Needs Analysis;
- Means Analysis;
- Register analysis;
- Discourse analysis;
- Genre Analysis.

Later teaching was focused on the qualitative training of teachers who would be able to teach professional language for effective communication. The development of communication techniques, the emergence of gender studies, the development of new courses and techniques characterized the following decades. There were certain economic, political, social and linguistic prerequisites for the emergence and development of English language teaching methods.

2.2 Types of needs

According to Richards [21], there has remained a great reluctance to agree on a definition of needs: 'The very concept of language needs has never been clearly defined and remains at best ambiguous'. Richards [21] proposes that the main source of this ambiguity is the distinction or even contradiction between various concepts of need:

necessities or demands (also called objective, product-oriented or perceived needs), learners' *wants* (subjective, or felt needs) and the methods of bridging the gap between these two (process-oriented needs).

Needs are often described in terms of a linguistic deficiency, that is, as describing the difference between what a learner can presently do in a language and what he or she should be able to do. This suggests that needs have objective reality and are simply there waiting to be identified and analysed. On the contrary, some experts offer a different perspective: "Need is not a thing that exists and might be encountered ready-made on the street. It is a thing that is constructed, the centre of conceptual networks and the product of a number of epistemological choices." West [31] presents arguments to emphasise that what is identified as a need is dependent on judgment and reflects the interests and values of those making such a judgment. Teachers, learners, employers, parents, and other *stakeholders* may thus all have different views as to what needs are:

(a) **Necessities** are 'the type of need determined by the demands of the target situation, that is, what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation'. Richterich described these as objective needs which 'can more or less be assumed to be general from an analysis of typical everyday situations' and any such needs analysis approach identifying these necessities is frequently known as target-situation analysis.

It is apparent, however, that many language courses are not terminus courses and that interim objectives short of the necessities of the target situation will have to be set. In such cases, it would seem better to regard the course objectives as short- or medium-term goals or aims rather than target necessities, and the needs analysis procedure would therefore be one of goal setting or aim definition. Goals or aims of this type may be determined by the end-of-course test or examination, so that it becomes important to determine the test requirements in such a way that they represent practical and useful learning goals providing beneficial washback and washforward effects. At the other end of the scale, language audits may establish target needs in terms of key assets, i.e. 'the need for foreign languages as a "key" to new possibilities and opportunities, e.g. new markets'.

West [31] suggests that target needs may be defined at three level. At its most basic, the target-situation analysis may go little further than identifying which languages are needed. Other surveys may go further and establish needs in terms of skills priorities. Most, however, define needs in situational or functional terms (listening to lectures, speaking on the telephone, writing business letters). Some procedures then go even further to specify what grammatical or lexical language components are necessary in order to realize a particular function.

(b) Lacks: A teacher also needs to know what the learner knows already, so that he or she can then decide which of the necessities the learner lacks... The target proficiency in other words, needs to be matched against the existing proficiency of the learners. The gap between the two can be referred to as the learner's. Richards [23] hold that position that it is, then, lacks which determine the syllabus: 'rhetorical structures are not included in the syllabus simply because they exist, but only if they are either seen to cause comprehension difficulty... or if knowing how to handle the particular rhetorical structure can help in the reading process'. In this survey, any needs analysis procedure adopting this approach will be called *deficiency analysis*.

(c) Wants: West [31] additionally explains that the third class of needs is wants: 'what the learners want or feel they need'. These needs are personal and are therefore sometimes referred to as *subjective needs* 'which cannot be said to be general ... are quite unforeseeable and therefore indefinable'. It is often pointed out that these may differ, even conflict, with necessities as perceived by a sponsor or employer, and lacks as identified by the teacher. This, however, does not mean that wants are any less real and ways will have to be found to accommodate them. While this may be difficult in cases where the wants are idiosyncratic or even opposed to the aims of the intended course, there may be wants which are perceived by the majority of the potential participants which can be incorporated into the syllabus or methodology, especially if this is negotiated between instructor and learner.

(d) Learning strategies: West [31] here identifies two types of learning needs which may usefully be separated, the first being the learner's preferred learning strategies for progressing from where they are (present situation/lacks/ deficiencies) to where they want to go (target situation/necessities). In this survey, instruments designed to identify preferred learning strategies will be discussed under the heading of strategy analysis.

Once again, these needs may be a source of conflict because the teacher's interpretation of suitable strategies may differ from learner's expectations or 'preconceptions about the form a language learning experience should take'.

(e) Constraints: The second element included by West [31] when considering the decision-making process in a needs analysis is the potential and constraints of the learning

situation. These are the external factors, which may include the resources (staff, accommodation, time) available, the prevailing attitudes or culture, and the materials, aids and methods available.

(f) The language audit: This is the sixth type of needs analysis; it is a large-scale survey undertaken by a company, an organization or even a country to determine what languages ought to be learnt, for what reasons, by how many people, to what level, in what type of institution, by what methods, at what cost, and so on. These are big and often political questions that were originally deemed outside the scope of needs analysis but which now give it a much broader remit making it a matter of language planning. In essence, Richards'[23] findings maintain that a language audit differs from a needs analysis in scale: *needs analysis* is used to determine the various needs of an individual or group; *a language audit* defines the longer-term language-training requirements of a company, country or professional sector, and can thus be seen as a strategy or policy document. The language audit may include all the levels or layers of a needs analysis (a-e above), so that, say, the strategy analysis component would seek to identify delivery modes which are appropriate for the majority of learners or trainees and which would then become company practice or ministry policy.

Needs analysis reveals two sides of student's individual indicators: what qualities the student possesses at the given stage and what he or she plans to acquire during the course. Teachers should take into account the fact that the needs of students can change significantly in the learning process.

2.3 Methods of Needs Analysis

Needs analysis methods can be classified in various ways. Two main types can be identified:

- **Inductive** - observations and case studies from which courses can be generalised.
- **Deductive methods** - questionnaires, surveys or other data-gathering instruments which provide various forms of information as the basis of course design.

In addition, West [31] lists various methods covering both inductive and deductive approaches.

The list includes ten methods of collecting data for a needs analysis:

(1) Pre-course placement/ diagnostic tests

Pre-course placement tests estimate the approximate language level of the student, but the main application of such tests is selection and for this reason, diagnostic information tends to be limited. The Cambridge Syndicate's International English Language Testing System is one of the few public tests providing results in the form of a profile, enabling the teacher to diagnose areas of weakness and strength according to skill.

(2) Entry tests on arrival

These tests potentially have greater diagnostic value and are therefore more precise in identifying learners' language weaknesses and lacks. Such tests function according to their underlying construct of language: tests of underlying linguistic competence may have good predictive validity but little diagnostic value, while those covering a broader range of skills may have limitations of practicality. Placement interviews may lack precision but provide valuable information akin to that generated by structured interviews.

(3) Self-placement/ diagnostic tests

Despite problems in self-reporting, Smith & Neisworth [28] note a tendency for weaker students to over-estimate their language ability; Blue found over- or under-estimation varied with cultural background, self-assessment has been used with success to enable learners to identify their own level of language proficiency and areas of special priority.

(4) Observation of classes

Songhori [29] suggests classroom observation as an approach requiring little explanation if 'a checklist or set of notes is at hand'. She seems to have in mind observation of learners' classroom performance with an error-analysis checklist of the type provided for role-play by MacGregor or an evaluation sheet, or more formal classroom observation procedures. Jordan's summary of the findings of classroom observation of EAP students in British universities suggests that this approach is principally of value for deficiency analysis. He adds that informal class or progress tests perform a similar function in providing indicators of present needs or deficiencies.

(5) Surveys based on questionnaires

A questionnaire is a set of questions given to a sample of people. West [31] states that the purpose of a questionnaire is to gather information about their attitudes, thoughts behaviours, and so forth. The researchers compile the answers in order to know how the group as a whole thinks or behaves. For example, an institution concerned about the fact that adults are less and less interested in its courses and programmes may use a questionnaire to find out about their opinion and interests. This needs assessment technique tends to be structured than interview schedules and can be administered by direct field operators, by phone, mail, e-mail, online, or in group settings, using structured questions, such as open-ended questions, fixed choices/pre-coded questions, or scales. Questionnaires are typically used when investigating a large group of people in a large area, for getting specific information at a relative low cost.

McLeod, [22] hold the position that while traditional hardcopy questionnaires sent out by mail tend to disappear, online questionnaires are becoming more popular, and have the advantage of being more convenient for people to answer and submit. In addition, it is easy nowadays to set up an online data base. So once the answered questionnaire has been submitted,

it can easily be transferred to the data base to be analysed. Both ways of administering questionnaires might be limited by low response rates, which is why the people investigating the needs of the potential participants often try to access them directly, for instance at educational fairs, adult learners' week, conferences, workshops, or other events, collecting answers while the people are there. A short, concise questionnaire is more likely to be answered 'on the spot'.

In addition West [31] shows that since the wording of the question and the selected response mode can influence the way people answer the question, questionnaires must be designed with great care. There are different types of questions, each with advantages and disadvantages, either with respect to gathering data or with respect to transcribing and analysing them. Moreover, there are different ways of scaling and codifying responses. In response to a question about people's interest in a new course, for example, respondents' answers will vary depending on the way the question is phrased. Moreover, to ensure the reliability of the data, and hence to be more confident when generalizing their findings, survey designers should make sure that a group of people (random sample) is addressed.

Ramani and Pushpanathan, [25] argue that a disadvantage of questionnaires, however, is that the information obtained 'may be fairly superficial or imprecise and will often need follow-up to gain a fuller understanding of what respondents intend. It should also be recognized that there are many badly designed questionnaires in educational research, and it is advisable to become familiar with the principles of good questionnaire design to ensure that the information obtained is reliable. Piloting of questionnaires is essential to identify ambiguities and other problems before the questionnaire is administered.

(6) Structured interview

This is known as a formal interview. The questions are asked in a set or standardized order and the interviewer will not deviate from the interview schedule or probe beyond the answers received (so they are not flexible). These are based on structured, closed-ended questions.

McLeod, [22] suggests that structured interviews are easy to replicate as a fixed set of closed questions are used, which are easy to quantify – this means it is easy to test for reliability. Structured interviews are fairly quick to conduct which means that many interviews can take place within a short amount of time. This means a large sample can be obtained resulting in the findings being representative and having the ability to be generalized to a large population.

West, [31] holds the position that structure interviews are not flexible. This means new questions cannot be asked impromptu (i.e. during the interview) as an interview schedule must be followed. The answers from structured interviews lack detail as only closed questions are

asked which generates quantitative data. This means a research will not know why a person behaves in a certain way.

Richards, [23] shows that interviews allow for a more in-depth exploration of issues than is possible with a questionnaire, though they take longer to administer and are only feasible for smaller groups. An interview may often be useful at the preliminary stage of designing a questionnaire, since it will help the designer get a sense of what topics and issues can be focused on in the questionnaire. A structured interview in which a set series of questions is used allows more consistency across responses to be obtained. Interviews can be conducted face-to-face or over the telephone.

(7) Learner diaries

Li, [21] suggests that a learner diary is somewhere where a language learner can write down his or her thoughts on what he/she has learned during the week. Its main aim is to help language learner reflect on the learning process and in particular on which strategies seem to work best for him or her. What he or she writes down is totally a question of personal choice. It does not matter if it is just some notes describing what he or she has done during the week, or whether he or she enjoyed a particular activity or not. Even reflections on what other learners do may be of interest. The diary's main purpose is to help the learner understand what works for him or her and what does not so that he or she can focus time and energy on those activities, which are most beneficial to promoting successful learning.

As stated by West [31] 15 EAP student diaries and found that they tended to focus on four areas: course input, tutor performance, learner performance and external factors affecting study (home-related anxiety, food and accommodation, and personal variables).

The first area, in particular, could provide the basis for students and tutors to work towards a negotiated syllabus. A more structured survey of diaries was carried out by Richards [23] under four headings: in-class activities, out-of-class activities, my problems and what I have learnt. The findings suggest that there is 'a high correlation between rate of improvement and the amount of time which students spent outside class in social interaction with native speakers of English'.

In addition to student diaries, teacher diaries can be a source of needs analysis. Diaries, however, are essentially retrospective, in example, last year's diaries are useful when planning next year's course, and this is an obvious limitation.

(8) Case studies

With a case study, a single student or a selected group of students is followed through a relevant work or educational experience in order to determine the characteristics of that situation. As stated by Richards [23, p.62] it is generally not possible to generalize from a case study, it

provides a very rich source of information that may complement information obtained from other sources.

McLeod, [22] claims that examples can be in-depth investigations of the learning needs and difficulties of individual students or groups.

(9) Final evaluation/feedback

Hoadley-Maidment, [17] suggests that at the end of the course, a test or evaluation provides information for the student on the effectiveness of learning which can be used as the basis for future self-improvement. For the teacher, it indicates the soundness of the initial needs analysis and can suggest ways in which future courses could be improved.

(10) Previous research

Considerable research has been conducted into the needs and deficiencies of certain categories of learners. The research can be divided into two types: case studies of individuals or small groups and surveys of large groups, notably those of business people; doctors and patients and academic students.

West [31] offers a classification of groups of adults with sample needs. The kind of data to be gathered by the needs analysis will inevitably vary according to the instrument used and the purpose of the survey, but most of the following areas are likely to be covered:

- (1) general personal background (7 %)
- (2) occupational speciality or academic field (1 %)
- (3) language background (14%)
- (4) attitudinal and motivational factors (8 %)
- (5) relevance of language to target use (10 %)
- (6) priority of basic language skills in target use (25%)
- (7) functional registers and job tasks in target use (20%)
- (8) course content and method of instruction (13 %)
- (9) reaction to project (1 %)

The length of time taken to carry out a needs analysis will obviously vary with the scale and method. However, Gardner and Winslow report that the reason most often given for not setting up and implementing needs analysis procedures was pressure on staff time. In part, this problem stems from a lack of awareness on the part of institutions and employers of the value or even existence of needs identification.

2.4 Requirements for an effective needs analysis procedure

Several commentators have now produced considerations or requirements for an effective needs analysis procedure. Dickinson [6, p. 98], for example, lists eight considerations:

- Is the questionnaire to be used by the learner or by a specialist (teacher, helper, counsellor)?
- Is the questionnaire complete in itself or is it designed to act as the basis of an interview with a specialist?
- Is it designed to elicit needs irrespective of whether facilities exist for meeting them or only to the level for which teaching or learning facilities and materials exist?
- Should it elicit information on learners' preferred learning strategies?
- Will the questionnaire be concerned with identifying the time available?
- Should the questionnaire endeavour to analyse needs into short-term objectives?
- Will the questionnaire attempt to suggest appropriate materials to meet objectives?
- Will the questionnaire attempt to guide the learner in ways of assessing the achievement of objectives?

Dickinson [6, p. 98] proves that the last two points in the analysis lead to areas currently thought to be beyond the scope of needs analysis materials selection and self-assessment. Most needs analysis procedures do not begin to handle the leap between needs analysis and methods and materials selection or development.

It is often stressed that the two processes are closely linked but moving from the former to the latter is usually seen as a subjective matter of teachers' intuition or inspiration. However, it has been pointed out that this intuition may be unsound or, in ESP situations, totally lacking: 'the only way round the problem is to have an intuitive feel for what is appropriate for scientists, and it is just this intuition that the EST teacher, with his literary background, does not possess'.

Dickinson's [6, p. 100] final consideration - self-assessment - is both topical and relevant. Dickinson suggests learner contracts as a means of self-assessment of objectives, while others have suggested questionnaires to assess progress. It may be, however, that there is most to be gained from adopting simpler approaches to needs analysis or improved training in needs analysis techniques.

West [31] concludes that in a recent survey of British master's degrees, it was revealed that there was little principled discussion of approaches to syllabuses or curricula. More rigorous discussion of these areas might lead to greater knowledge and application of the various needs analysis approaches and, therefore, teaching programmes which are more firmly based on the various needs of the learners.

2.5 Common Conceptions of the Zone of Proximal Development

It is common knowledge that the term zone of proximal development now appears in most developmental and educational psychology textbooks, as well as some general psychology books.

Within educational research, the concept is now used widely (or referred to) in studies about Kozulin, A., Gindis B., Ageyev S. V., Miller M. S., [19] present arguments to emphasize that the common conception of the zone of proximal development presupposes an interaction on a task between a more competent person and a less competent person, such that the less competent person becomes independently proficient at what was initially a jointly accomplished task.

Within this general conception, three main aspects are often highlighted or emphasized (though not necessarily all three by a single researcher). For the sake of discussion, these three aspects together represent an ‘ideal type’ that will be called the **common interpretation of the zone of proximal development**. For ease of reference, the three aspects will be named *generality assumption* (i.e., applicable to learning all kinds of subject matter), *assistance assumption* (learning is dependent on interventions by a more competent other), and *potential assumption* (property of the learner that permits the best and easiest learning).

As concluded by Kozulin, A., Gindis B., Ageyev S. V., Miller M. S., [19], the first aspect focuses on the idea that a person is able to perform a certain number of tasks alone but in collaboration can perform a greater number of tasks. The “range of tasks” performed in collaboration is sometimes presented as the definition of zone of proximal development, but this is surely mistaken. Even the classic definition refers to levels of development, not tasks. At best, the number (or kinds) of tasks must be taken as indicators to be interpreted in relation to a level of development. A related issue is what kinds of tasks involve a zone of proximal development. It is often assumed that the zone of proximal development is meant to be applied to any kind of learning task. “For any domain of skill, a ZPD can be created”, or in an “expanded” conception, zone of proximal development applies to “any situation in which, while participating in an activity, individuals are in the process of developing mastery of a practice or understanding a topic”.

The second aspect emphasizes how an adult/teacher/more competent person should interact with a child. Sometimes this aspect is presented as the defining characteristic.

The third aspect focuses on properties of the learner, including notions of a learner’s potential and/or readiness to learn. This aspect often seems to inspire the idea or expectation that it will be possible to accelerate greatly or facilitate a child’s learning, if the zone can be

identified properly. Sometimes this aspect is interpreted to mean that teaching in the zone of proximal development should result in the easiest or most effortless form of learning for the child.

Allwright, [6] outlines that the common conception of the zone of proximal development supports or inspires a vision of educational perfection, in which the insightful (or lucky) teacher is able to help a child master, effortlessly and joyfully, whatever subject matter is on the day's program. With this kind of conception, a reader is likely to expect that a chapter about the zone of proximal development and instruction will explain

- (a) how to identify a child's zone of proximal development for each learning task;
- (b) how to teach in a way that will be sure to engage the zone of proximal development;
- (c) find a smooth and joyful way, which will significantly accelerate learning.

Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, Miller [19] hold the position that the zone of proximal development was introduced as a part of a general analysis of child development. It is not a main or central concept in theory of child development. Rather, its role is to point to an important place and moment in the process of child development.

To understand this role, one must appreciate the theoretical perspective in which it appeared. That is, one needs to understand what is meant by development in general, if he or she is going to understand what is meant by zone of proximal development in particular.

Scientist formulated several requirements or criteria that should be satisfied by a model of child development. First, the model must be explanatory, rather than descriptive. More specifically, the model should be organized by substantial principles that can explain development "as a single process of self-development". Second, the model should consider the whole child, as an integral person. Third, childhood should be divided into periods, such that each period is characterized in a principled and unified way. That is, the same abstract explanatory principles should be used to characterize each period (hence the unity), but the concrete manifestation of the abstract relations must be discovered and characterized for the particular content of each age period.

To meet these requirements, as suggested by Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, Miller [19] each period of childhood should be characterized abstractly by a psychological structure, a set of integral relations among psychological functions (e.g., perception, voluntary memory, speech, and thinking). This structure should reflect the whole child (i.e., as a person engaged in structured social relations with others) – not only as a description of the qualities of the child, but also as a description of the child's relationship to her environment.

Allwright, [6] concludes that from a psychological point of view, this whole is described as an integrated structure of relationships among developed and developing higher psychological

functions acquired through material interaction. This psychological description of a child focuses on interrelationships between functions, rather than considering individual psychological functions in isolation.

Li, [6] concludes that the focus on the whole precludes a methodological approach that considers specific functions without considering their relation to the whole. In this way, one can realize his goal of “understanding development as a process that is characterized by a unity of material and mental aspects, a unity of the social and the personal during the child’s ascent up the stages of development”. These two unities (material–mental and social–personal) are alternative ways of expressing the same idea, and they are both unities because the child’s psychological structure (i.e., the mental, the personal) is always reflecting a relation to the social and material.

Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, Miller [19] described the development of children, from infancy to adolescence, as a series of relatively long stable periods (1 to 4 years). To explain the causal-dynamic of this development, one has to give an account of how and why there is a qualitative change in the psychological structure that is characteristic for each age period. The starting point for this explanation is the child’s specific, but comprehensive, relationship to its environment, designated as the social situation of development. “The social situation of development represents the initial moment for all dynamic changes that occur in development during the given period”; therefore, to study the dynamics of any age, one must first explain the social situation of development .

Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, Miller [19] additionally advocate that each age period has a characteristic central new-formation in relation to which psychological functions develop. This new formation is organized in the social situation of development by a basic contradiction between the child’s current capabilities (as manifested in the actually developed psychological functions), the child’s needs and desires, and the demands and possibilities of the environment. In trying to overcome this contradiction (so that it can realize its activity), the child engages in different concrete tasks and specific interactions, which can result in the formation of new functions or the enrichment of existing functions. The central new-formation produced for a given age period is a consequence of the child’s interactions in the social situation of development with relevant psychological functions that are not yet mature.

2.6 Helping teachers to support English language learners

There has been a prominent shift within the field of language learning and teaching over the last twenty years with greater emphasis being put on learners and learning rather than on teachers and teaching. P. Farrend [14, p.21] points out that a prerequisite to any supports teachers may offer ELL students is teachers' personal and professional attitudes and dispositions. Having pedagogical expertise to support ELLs suggests that teachers may need to make use of strategies, classroom interaction, and scaffolding.

The term language learning strategy has been defined by many researchers. Richards [23] state that learning strategies are "intentional behaviour and thoughts used by learners during learning so as to better help them understand, learn, or remember new information." In most of the research on language learning strategies, the primary concern has been on "identifying what good language learners report they do to learn a second or foreign language, or, in some cases, are observed doing while learning a second or foreign language.

Language Learning Strategies have been classified by many scholars. However, most of these attempts to classify language learning strategies reflect more or less the same categorizations of language learning strategies without any radical changes.

Farrend [14, p.21] described the three types of strategies used by learners that contribute directly or indirectly to language learning. These are:

Learning Strategies		Communication Strategies	Social Strategies
Cognitive Learning Strategies	Metacognitive Learning Strategies	They are less directly related to language learning since their focus is on the process of participating in a conversation and getting meaning across or clarifying what the speaker intended.	Social strategies are those activities learners engage in which afford them opportunities to be exposed to and practise their knowledge. Although these strategies provide exposure to the
They refer to the steps or operations used in learning or problem-solving that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials. Rubin identified 6	These strategies are used to oversee, regulate or self-direct language learning. They involve various processes as planning, prioritising, setting goals, and self-management.		

main cognitive learning strategies contributing directly to language learning: 1. Clarification/Verification 2. Guessing/Inductive Inferencing 3. Deductive Reasoning 4. Practice 5. Memorization 6. Monitoring		Communication strategies are used by speakers when faced with some difficulty due to the fact that their communication ends outrun their communication means or when confronted with misunderstanding by a co-speaker.	target language, they contribute indirectly to learning since they do not lead directly to the obtaining, storing, retrieving, and using of language
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Since the amount of information to be processed by language learners is high in language classroom, learners use different language learning strategies in performing the tasks and processing the new input they face. Language learning strategies are good indicators of how learners approach tasks or problems encountered during the process of language learning. In other words, language learning strategies, while nonobservable or unconsciously used in some cases, give language teachers valuable clues about how their students assess the situation, plan, select appropriate skills so as to understand, learn, or remember new input presented in the language classroom. According to Hismanoglu, [16] the language learner capable of using a wide variety of language learning strategies appropriately can improve his language skills in a better way.

S. Hong [18] emphasizes that the language teacher aiming at training his students in using language learning strategies should learn about the students, their interests, motivations, and learning styles. The teacher can learn what language learning strategies students already appear to be using, observing their behavior in class. Furthermore, Hong [18] outlines that before starting working with English language learners a teacher should define the range of aims by answering the questions below:

1. What do I need to know about teaching ELLs?
2. What does literature say about enhanced, modified literacy instruction for ELLs?
3. How important is my role as a teacher in the successful learning of my students from diverse linguistic and academic backgrounds?
4. How important is it for me to conduct classroom-based assessment?

5. How can I invite parents to participate in their children's learning at school and outside school.

Answering these questions is not an easy task, as working with English language learners and their families is a complicated and ongoing process. After that, the language teacher should study his own teaching method and overall classroom style. Analyzing his lesson plans, the language teacher can determine whether his lesson plans give learners chance to use a variety of learning styles and strategies or not. The teacher can see whether his teaching allows learners to approach the task at hand in different ways or not

Hafen and Ruzek, [15] are convinced that it is very clear from these observations that the class is a tool for observing and rating the interaction quality among teachers and children in classrooms. Following the teaching through interactions framework, it measures teachers' emotional, organizational, and instructional supports that research indicates contribute to children's social development and academic achievement. The tool is used to assess interactions between teachers and children for a variety of purposes, including teacher professional development, monitoring and evaluation, and research.

Hismanoglu, [16] concludes that if teachers are to offer effective support to ELLs, essentially they need knowledge and understanding of the structure of the English language, and of what is involved in second language learning. In practical terms, this process involves providing particular types of support for ELLs to create conditions that engage them in social interaction with more capable peers; involve them in setting their own learning agenda (in example, planning goals, setting targets, monitoring progress and self-assessing); and help them to express meaning to one another. In addition, teachers should provide formative feedback so that students can extend their development levels. They also should understand differences between conversational and academic English language use. In addition, teachers require skills in analysing text types and features of academic English. Knowledge, understanding and skills in these areas are important for teachers to help them identify the linguistic demands of classroom tasks, including key vocabulary, and understand the complexity of semantic structure (words, phrases, symbols, and their meaning), and syntactic structure (relations among words in a sentence, and in a text). In other words, teachers should be able to set tasks for ELLs with awareness about what is expected of learners in terms of language use in the context of particular prototypical types of text (e.g., scientific, geographical explanation of phenomena, historical narrative) and for particular communicative purposes (e.g., reporting, describing, instructing, explaining).

This part has investigated that based on the results of the analysis of students' educational needs it is necessary to determine the professional foreign language skills required for students,

the selection of material, the formulation of the program and the preparation of the plan, the choice of teaching methods, the set of exercises necessary for the formation and development of certain foreign language skills.

The present study confirmed the finding about the third-level classification of target needs as well as provided a brief description of various methods to needs analysis covering both inductive and deductive approaches. In this section, a number of considerations and suggestions to the requirements for the effective needs analysis procedure were presented. The term of zone of proximal development was revealed along with the discussion of Vygotsky's contribution to the development of the theory. The text highlighted on the three types of strategies used by learners that contribute directly or indirectly to language learning: Learning Strategies, Communication Strategies and Social Strategies; and showed that language learning strategies are good indicators of how learners approach tasks or problems encountered during the process of language learning.

PART 3

EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH

Needs Analysis can provide an insight into the beliefs, opinions and views of the learners and teachers and can help in making a language program more attuned to the needs of the learners. Needs analysis discovers and describes language needs by using an analysis of a linguistic practice, which characterizes the target situation within a discourse community. It is the first step in viewing language learning through a broader concept of the learning process.

3.1 Introduction

It is important to understand how students' perceived language needs change over the course of their English language studies at one institution. This is possible by identifying the students' background and then conducting repeated measures of the students' perceived English language needs. The process of collecting English language learner needs, including real linguistic needs as well as wants and desires is now viewed increasingly important in the creating of English language programs.

Due to ever changing learner, societal and institutional factors, current English language programs need to include needs analysis as part of routine program review. Identifying and confirming the various perceptual needs and wants of the students' at one institution. Different types of students have different language needs and what they are taught should be restricted to what they need.

The experimental research aims to determine:

- (a) what types of needs are predominant in the process of English language learning among the students of 10th and 11th forms;
- (b) what behavior of a teacher students perceived as contributing most to their learning;
- (c) what types of language use predominated for the students in their work and what skills are regarded as easy or difficult for them.

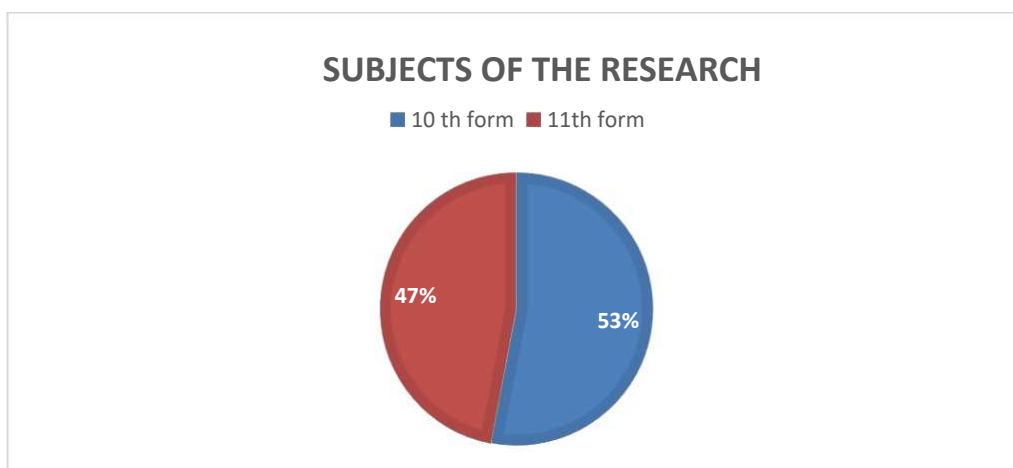
3.1 Design

Designing a needs analysis involves choosing from various options and selecting those that are likely to give a comprehensive view of learners' needs. Students were given a range of alternatives the aims of which were to balance their opinions and generate their positions about certain activities in the process of English language learning.

The process of analysis involves efforts that are thoughtful, investigatory, systematic, and carefully recorded so that they can be replicated and reviewed. The primary goal of analysis is to bring meaning to the obtained information and to do so in the context of some philosophy, relevant perspectives, and value positions that may be in conflict.

3.2 Participants

The subjects surveyed in the study were 32 learners of English who were, at the time of the questionnaire, studying at Vinogradiv secondary school №2. The subjects of the research are the students of the 10th (53%) and 11th (47%) forms, of which 23 (72%) are girls and 9 (28%) are boys.



(3.2.1)

Participants in the data collection were of different ages:

- 15 years (3%);
- 16 years (69%);
- 17 years (28%).

3.3 Procedure of the research

Students were interviewed using a structured questionnaire containing questions about presumed topics of interest such as preference for language activities, what activities contributed most to language development, basis for instructor preference. Respondents were presented with lists of choices; however, they were encouraged to respond freely with their own terms and opinions.

During the interview, subjects were asked close-ended questions such as, “Which English skills would you like to improve?” On teacher preference, subjects were asked questions such as,

“In class or with a tutor, I would like my teacher to:...” the results of which could show what teacher's behaviour and what methods of teaching the students expect and find the most appropriate for themselves.

The students were given as much time as possible to consider and present a response. Every attempt was made to ascertain that the subjects understood the questions and were responding completely and candidly.

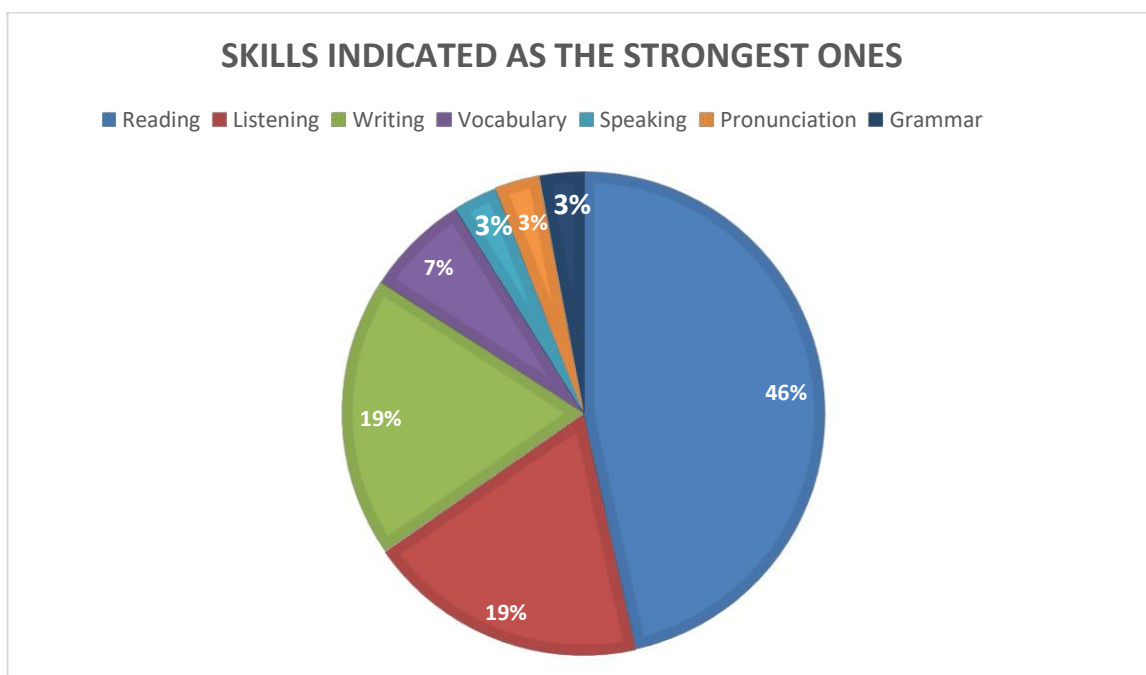
Precautions were taken to ensure that the questionnaire information was accurate, complete, and consistent. The data were subjected to content analysis; that is, the subjects' responses were evaluated to determine what specific characteristics they mentioned and which they regarded as most useful, useful and not useful.

3.4. Findings

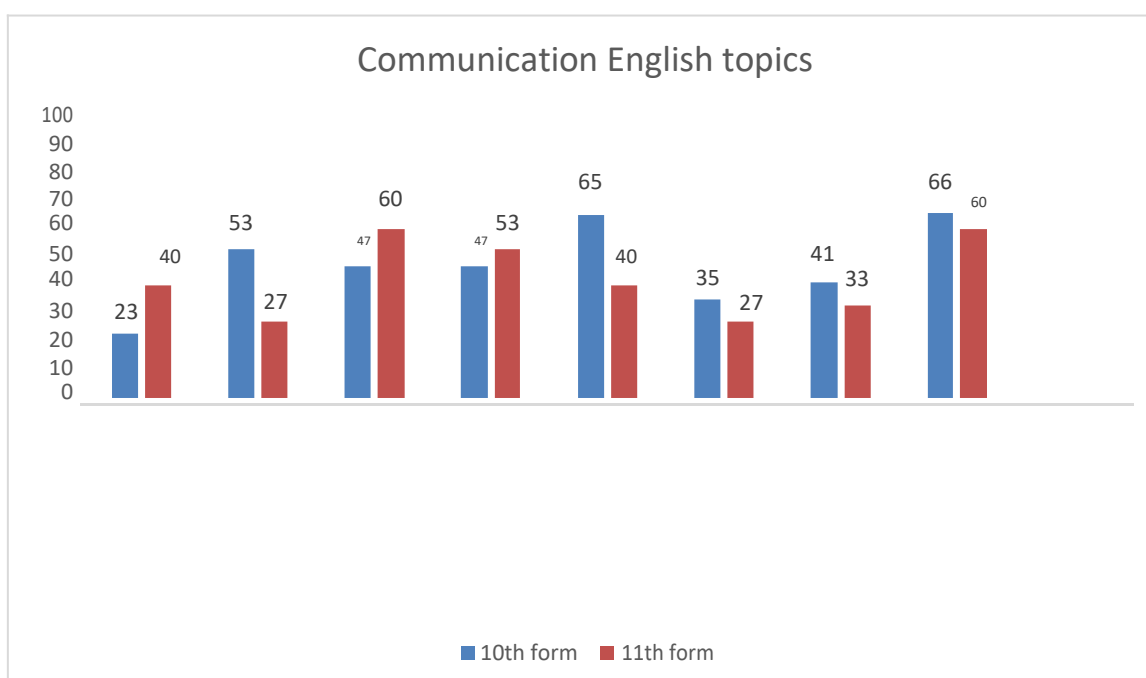
The first question at student's questionnaire aimed at finding out some general, background information regarding the form, age, gender, native language of the participants and the overall time of studying English. The results show that the native language of almost every respondent is Ukrainian; however, the 25% of the students indicated that they were brought up in bilingual families.

In the second question, which was based on the indication of the present level of knowledge of the language, it was determined that 17% of the 10th form students defined their level as the Elementary, 48% - as the Basic, 29% indicated the Intermediate(lower) , and 6% of the students determined their level as the Intermediate (upper). On the other hand, the results of the 11th form have demonstrated that 25% of students had defined their knowledge of the English language are of the Elementary level, 48% indicated the Basic level and 34% of the participants have chosen the Intermediate (lower). Among pupils of the 11th form, the level Intermediate (upper) has not been chosen any time.

The major aim of the third question was to rank the skills of English language learners from the strongest to the weakest. Skill areas included reading, listening, speaking, grammar, vocabulary, writing and pronunciation. The results of the third question are demonstrated on the Diagram 3.4.1.



The fourth question sought to determine which Communicative English topics the participants would like to study.



(3.4.2)

From the results, it is clear that the most desirable communication topics for studying among students of the 10th form are: Agreeing/disagreeing, persuading (66%); Summarizing (65%); Describing process (53%). By comparing the results from the 11th form, it can be seen that 60% of students have chosen Making Suggestions; 60% - Agreeing/disagreeing, persuading and 53% - Asking for advice.

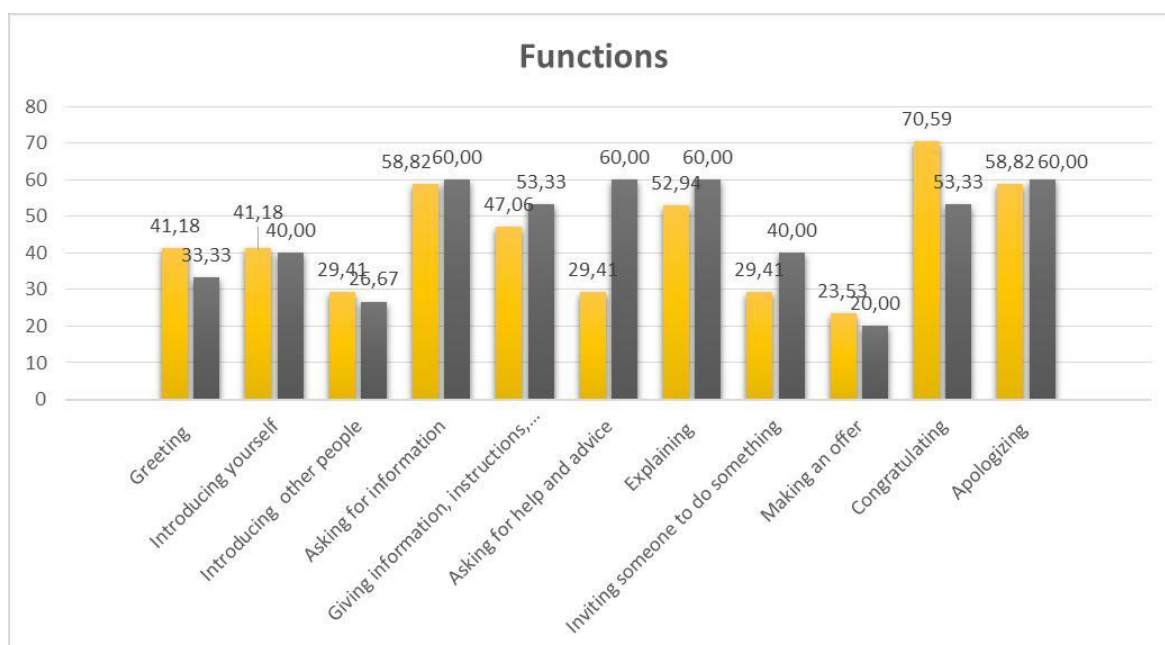
The fifth question aimed at identifying the level of usefulness of some English language learning exercises. Comparing the results of the two classes, it was found that 27 % of students of the 10th grade consider Practicing dialogues from a book as a “very useful” activity, 33% indicated it as “useful” and 40% determined the activity as “not useful”. In addition, the results have shown than the most useful activities according to the responses of the students of the 10th form include:

- Free conversation with native speakers – 80%
- Doing translation exercises – 60%
- Studying with a private tutor – 60%
- Studying the difference between English and my mother tongue – 54%

In comparison to the results mentioned above, the research has shown that the most useful activities according to the students of the 11th form are the following:

- Studying with a private tutor – 70%
- Watching or listening to people speaking English around me – 65%
- Doing translation exercises – 58%

The next question collected information about the skills, which the English language learners would like to improve. The question included different subcategories (i.e. Functions, Reading, Speaking, Writing and Listening) with a range of possible alternatives.



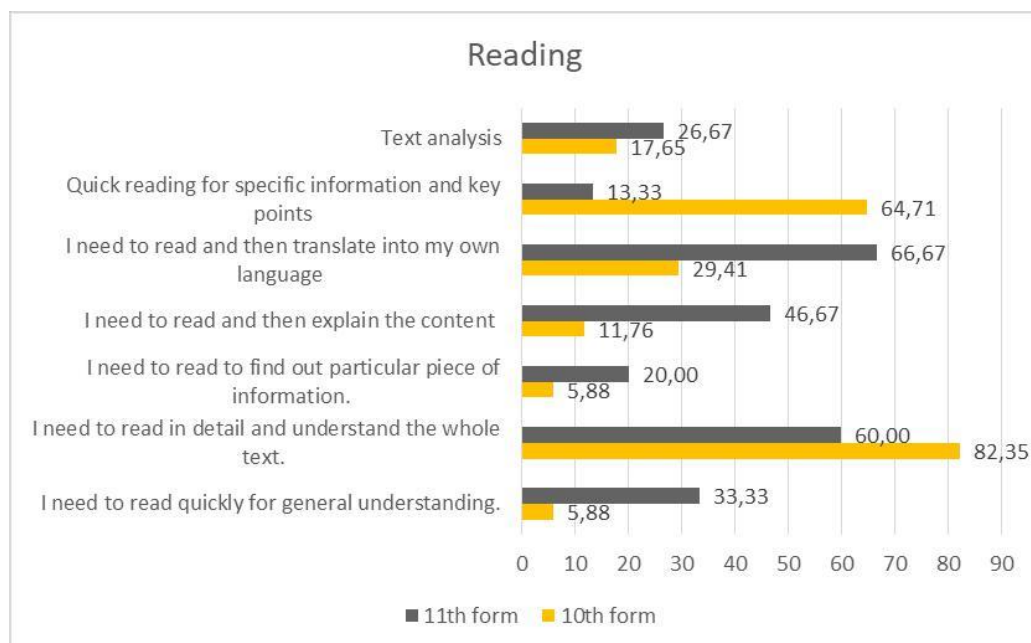
(3.4.3)

Together, the present findings confirm that the most desirable skills in the subcategory of Functions are:

- Congratulating (70% - 11th form, and 53% - 10th form)
- Apologizing (58% - 11th form, 60% - 10th form)

- Asking information (58% - 11th form, 60% - 10th form)

(3.4.4)



The results of the Reading subcategory have shown that students of the 10th form need to read in detail and understand the whole text (82%), as well as the majority (64%) indicated that they prefer quick reading for specific information and key points. On the contrary, those who responded from the 11th form, maintained that they need to read and translate into their own language (66%); a huge number of them replied that they need to read in detail and understand the whole text (60%).

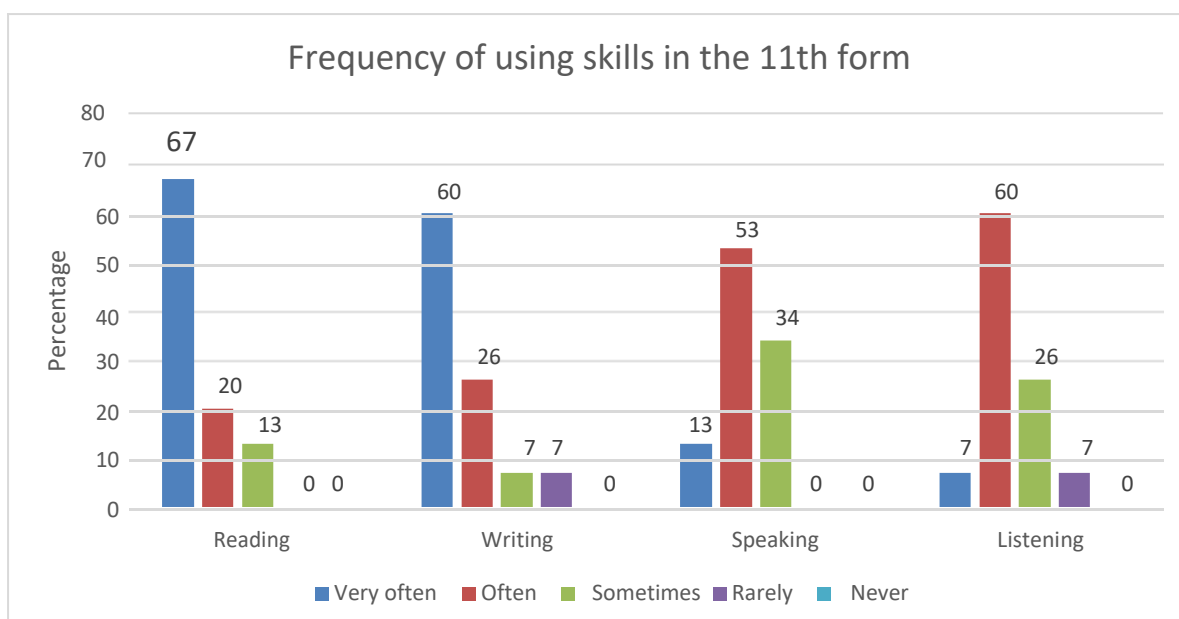
Among the most desirable skills in the subcategory of speaking, students of the 10th form have chosen: Dialogues (59%), Giving oral information (23%). Similarly, the respondents from the 11th grade stated the same Dialogues (60%), Giving oral information (40%).

Analyzing the subcategory of writing, the survey concluded that the students would like to learn how to write emails (10th form – 70%, 11th form – 46%) and letters (10th – 52%, 11th – 33%). The findings of the Listening subcategory highlight that the majority of respondents (10th – 53%, 11th – 46%) would like to listen to radio, TV and broadcast.

The seventh question wanted to reveal the most comfortable method (deductive or inductive) of material presentation; identify which way of correcting mistakes students prefer the most. The results demonstrated that 58% of the responders from the 10th grade as well as 73% of people from the 11th form would like their teacher to explain new grammar points before practicing them. The results now provide evidence that those who were surveyed prefer deductive methods of studying.

88% from the 10th form and 80% from the 11th form, would not like their teacher to use only English during the lessons. In contrast, they wish their teacher to use both English and their native language.

The main objective of the eighth question was to indicate how often the respondents were expected to use Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening skills. The range of possible answers included: very often; often; sometimes; rarely; never.



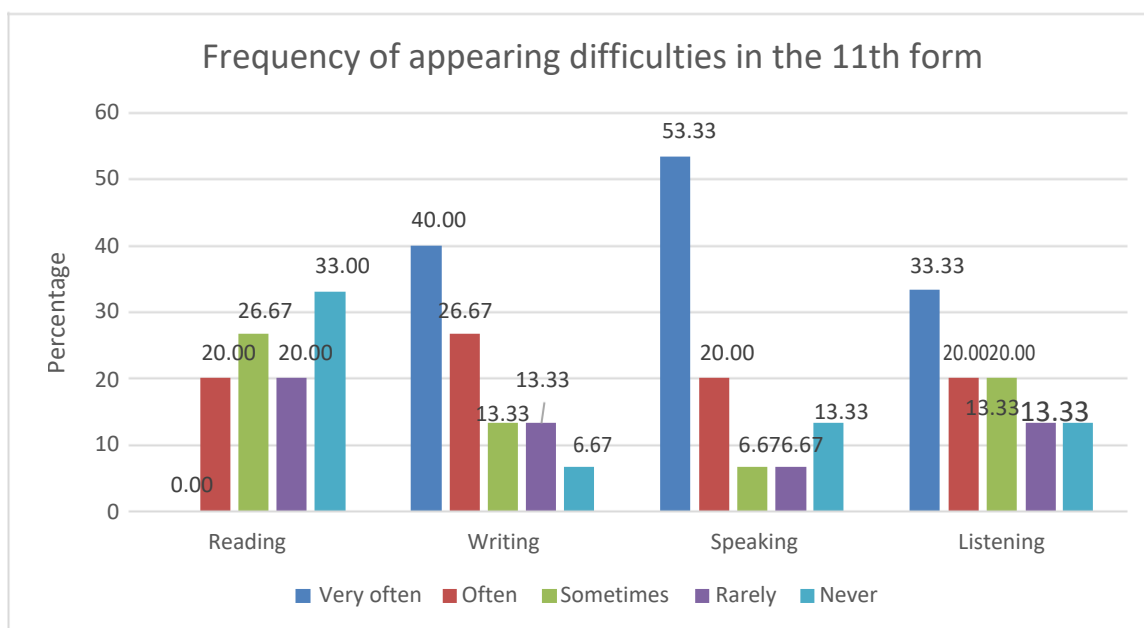
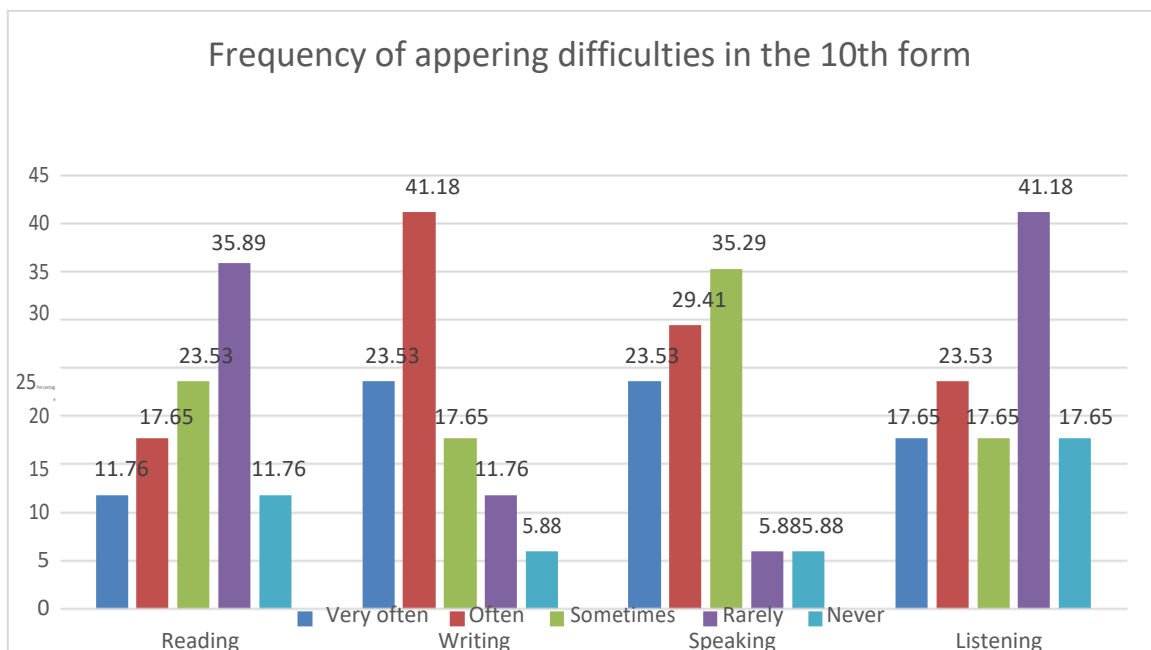
(3.4.5)

The findings of the survey have shown that Reading and Writing activities are considered to be the most frequent activities used at the English lessons.

In the ninth question participants had to show how often they have difficulties with Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening activities. In the process of data analysis, it was indicated that 12% of the students of the 10th grade very often have difficulties with reading skills, 18% - often, 23% - sometimes, 35% - rarely, 12% - never. Analyzing the second, the statistics show that 23% of the students very often have problems with writing skills, 41% - often, 18% - sometimes, 12% rarely, 6% - never. Speaking: 23% - very often, 30% - often, 35% - sometimes, 6% - rarely, 6% - rarely. Listening: 18% - very often, 23%- often, 18%- sometimes, 41% - rarely, 18% - rarely.

The results of the research in the 11th grade demonstrated that 20% of the students often have difficulties with reading activities, 27% - sometimes, 20% - rarely, 33 % - never. Writing: 40% - very often, 27% - often, 13 % - sometimes, 13% - rarely, 7% - never. Speaking: 53% - very often, 20% - often, 7 % - sometimes, 7% - rarely, 13 % - never. Listening: 33%- very often, 20 % - often, 20% - sometimes, 13 % - rarely, 13 % - never. The results now confirm Speaking and Writing are the most difficult skills to acquire among the respondents.

(3.4.6)



(3.4.7)

3.5 Results and discussion

Based on the research conducted in the 10th and 11th forms the results show that a large number of participants indicated their level of ability as Basic and Intermediate (lower). The results lead to the conclusion that among the current respondents Reading, Listening and Writing are considered to be the strongest skills in the English language learning activities. Free conversation

with native speakers, doing translation exercises, studying with a private tutor, studying the difference between English and mother tongue, watching or listening to people speaking English around and

doing translation exercises are the activities which were chosen by the students as the most effective in the process of English language learning.

From the results, it is clear that the most desirable topics for studying among students of the 10th form are: agreeing and disagreeing, summarizing, describing process. By comparing the results from the 11th form, it can be seen that a number of students have chosen making suggestions, agreeing and disagreeing, persuading and asking for advice.

The results have shown that students of the 10th form prefer quick reading for specific information and key points. On the contrary, those who responded from the 11th form, maintained that they need to read in detail and understand the whole text as well as translate the text into their own language.

The results of the 10th form coincided with the findings of the 11th grade. Congratulating, apologizing, asking information, dialogues and giving oral information are the activities, which would like to be learn by the students of both forms. From the results it can be identified that the most frequent activities used during the lessons are reading and writing. In addition, speaking and writing are the activities with which the students of 10th and 11th forms faced very often.

Comparing the results of the research held by Christison M.A and Krahnke J. K., [10] whose research aimed at determining how nonnative English speakers perceive their language learning experiences and how they use English in academic settings, it was proven that social contact with native speakers was ranked first in experiences, which contributed the most to language improvement. Similarly, the findings of the present research highlight that the option "Free conversations with native speakers" was chosen by 80% of the respondents, which makes that activity the most contributing to language improvement of the students.

The interpretation of results of frequency of usage of the language skills in the research by Christison M.A and Krahnke J. K [10] coincided with the findings of that experimental work revealing that reading and writing are the most frequent types of activities used in the English language classroom.

Interestingly, the previous study identified that listening and speaking were the most difficult skills to acquire among interviewed. In contrast, further examinations showed that writing and speaking were the most frequent skills with which students of 10th and 11th forms had difficulties. Generally speaking, the analysis confirms that there are differences in learning preference, some skills are easy for some and difficult for others).

This result has further strengthened our confidence in the analysis of student's needs, the importance of which cannot be overemphasized. As expected, the experiments demonstrate that the students need to learn all the four skills of language as compared to grammar and vocabulary. Students need a classroom environment, which is supportive to their active participation by introducing pair and group work, and activities like games, role-play, and projects.

CONCLUSION

From the findings of this work, it can be seen that in today's interconnected and globalized world, learning English language has been a very important factor. Teaching English to non-native speakers is a challenging experience for teachers. EFL teachers are interested in providing their learners with the knowledge needed to be competent to a certain extent in the target language. Canale [9] confirmed that competence lies in terms of three dimensions. Developing communicatively competent learners is the goal that most EFL teachers wish to accomplish, but of course, communicative competence is not sufficient. Consequently, learners need other dimensions to succeed, to be accurate and fluent and to achieve that, teachers are supposed to set a number of plans, which should be designed with taking into consideration different goals and of course their learners levels and needs.

Needs analysis plays an important role as it determines the learners' current and target Needs of the language. With this preliminary knowledge included in the needs analysis, designing the EAP curriculum, the course contents and the learning activities would be easier. It also plays an important role for both teachers and learners, as it helps teachers to identify the learners' needs based on their language skills as well as their deficiencies.

The purpose of the research paper was to identify the needs of English language learners and through this determination make suggestions to improve the language learning process in general. As a consequence, it was revealed that such important characteristics including: necessities, lacks, wants, learning strategies, constraints and the language audit must be taken into account. On a theoretical basis, the research work has defined what kinds of learning needs exist and, with the help of experimental research, was able to investigate the emerging educational needs of contemporary students. Therefore, needs analysis can be the foundation of developing the curriculum content, teaching materials and the methods which lead to the success of the learners and increasing their motivation as well as paving the way for the teachers to go on a clear path in teaching.

The findings of this study indicate that all subject areas contribute to the growth of a child's language or language competencies. The emotional climate of a classroom is of extreme importance in fostering academic progress. Another important determinant of language learning achievement is motivation. The results seem to demonstrate that students with greater second and foreign language learning motivation, in most cases, receive higher grades and achieve better proficiency in the target language.

Within educational research, the concept zone of proximal development is now used widely

in studies about teaching and learning in many subject-matter areas. The common conception of the zone of proximal development presupposes an interaction on a task between a more competent person and a less competent person. Within this general conception, three main aspects are often highlighted. The data suggests that taken together they represent an 'ideal type' that will be called the common interpretation of the zone of proximal development.

In the course of the experimental research, a wide range of predominant needs among the students of 10th and 11th forms was defined. It is crucial to note that the type of behavior of a teacher, which students perceived as contributing most to their learning, was clarified. Interestingly, participants wish their teacher to use both English and their native language. Furthermore, the types of language, which were predominated for the students in their work, and the skills, which are regarded as easy or difficult for the participants, were determined. The correlation as well as the difference between students of 10th and 11th forms was tested.

The study had some limitations within which the findings need to be carefully interpreted. Finally, a number of potential weaknesses need to be considered. First, the research presented here was limited by the measures used. Second, due to the nature of the research questions and the lack of data, the research was based on largely on descriptive quantitative research methods. The survey conducted in this research did not, for the most part, provided statistically significant results. Despite the limitations of this method, and consequently the poor results, the findings do nevertheless prove that teaching English as foreign language should meet the educational and personal needs of students, as well as develop the skills for successful communication in a foreign language.

Further experimental investigations are needed to explore a topic at greater length, to get behind stereotyped values and expected responses to more personal beliefs and opinions. Finally, the results are promising and should be validated by a larger sample size.

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РЕЗЮМЕ

Так як англійська мова набула унікального статусу серед інших мов світу і була визнана "інтернаціональною мовою", її вплив на сучасне суспільство широко вивчався протягом останніх декількох років. У процесі вивчення іноземної мови, аналіз потреб відіграє надзвичайно важливу роль, оскільки саме він визначає поточні та цільові потреби учнів.

Метою даної роботи є визначення спрямування потреб сучасного учня. У проведеному дослідженні були розглянуті наступні питання :

1. Які потреби в англійській мові виникають в україномовних учнів старших класів загальноосвітніх шкіл з спрямуванням щодо навичок читання, письма, мовлення сприйняття мови на слух?
2. Які існують недоліки щодо знань англійської мови на даних етапах?

Теоретична цінність даної роботи базується на сукупності спостережень та досліджень потреб учнів, проведених та проаналізованих відомими сучасними методистами та дослідниками, серед яких Вест Р., Лессов – Харлі Д, Семсон Ф. та Коллінз А., які були зосереджені на теорії аналізу потреб у мовленнєвій діяльності; Дорні З., Чен С., Сміт Р., Нейсворз Дж. та Грір Дж., сприяли розвитку оцінювального освітнього середовища та місця мотивації при вивченні іноземних мов. Теоретичні основи комунікативних підходів були досліджені в попередніх працях Канале М. та Олрайт, Р.

Практична цінність дослідницької роботи може бути визначена з огляду на виявлення кола потреб сучасних учнів у вивченні іноземної мови, розставляючи дані вимоги відповідно до їх впливу та пріоритетності. Для розкриття зазначеної теми були глибоко досліджені теоретичні аспекти порушеної проблеми і обґрунтовано практичне значення результатів дослідження. На теоретичній основі дослідницька робота визначила, які саме існують види навчальних потреб та, за допомогою експериментального дослідження, змогла дослідити потреби сучасних студентів у вивченні іноземної мови.

Основний зміст дослідження становить аналіз спектру потреб у вивченні іноземної мови учнів 10-го та 11-го класів Виноградівської загальноосвітньої школи I-III ступенів №2. У статті розглядаються ключові етапи порівняння результатів дослідження проведених серед учнів двох класів. Крім того, було визначено тип поведінки вчителя, який учні сприймали найбільш відповідним та комфортним для їхнього навчання. Цікавим результатом стало визначення бажання учнів використання вчителем на заняттях, як іноземної мови, так і рідної мови учнів. У результаті проведеної роботи було визначено мовленнєві навички, над якими учасникам експерименту доводиться працювати найбільше та види складнощів у вивченні мови, з якими учні найчастіше зустрічаються.

Даний напрямок доповнюється також розглядом підсумків дослідження в порівнянні з результатами робіт методистів Крістон М. А. та Кранке Д. К. Загалом, результати експерименту, представлені в даній роботі, співпадають з висновками зазначеними дослідниками.

APENDIX

Needs Analysis Questionnaire

1. Please take time to complete this

form. Form: _____

Age: _____

Sex: _____

Native language: _____

Brought up in a monolingual family;

Brought up in a bilingual family;

Overall time of studying English: _____

2. Indicate your present level of ability:

- Elementary (lower): know a few words and fixed expressions; cannot manage conversational exchanges; respond to question and answer exchanges on a few topics; very limited vocabulary, grammar, and knowledge of idioms; pronunciation heavily influenced by mother tongue.
- Basic (upper): know a limited number of common words and expressions; able to manage limited, short conversations on a few predictable topics; “survival level” knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, and idioms; pronunciation heavily influenced by mother tongue.
- Intermediate (lower): reasonable fluency on a restricted range of topics but difficulty outside a limited range of topics; many problems with words, idioms, grammar, and pronunciation.
- Intermediate (upper): can manage comfortably in familiar situations and with familiar topics, though still some difficulty with vocabulary, idioms, grammar, and pronunciation.

3. Rank your skills in order from 1 - 7 from the strongest to weakest.

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Grammar | <input type="checkbox"/> Reading |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Vocabulary | <input type="checkbox"/> Writing |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Listening | <input type="checkbox"/> Pronunciation |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Speaking | |

4. Which Communication English topics would you like to study?

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Presentations | <input type="checkbox"/> Obtaining information |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Describing process | <input type="checkbox"/> Offering praise, complaints |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Making suggestions | <input type="checkbox"/> Agreeing/disagreeing, persuading |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Asking for advice | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Summarizing | |

Other: _____

5. Have you ever used the following activities in studying English? If you indicate *yes*, how useful were they?

	Very useful	Useful	Not useful
Practicing dialogues from a book.			
Practicing drills on grammatical patterns.			
Free conversation with native speakers.			
Free conversation with other learners of English.			
Memorizing bilingual vocabulary lists.			
Studying English textbooks at home.			
Studying the grammar of English.			
Studying the difference between English and my mother tongue			
Doing pair-work exercises.			
Doing group-work exercises.			
Doing translation exercises.			
Watching TV in English at home.			
Watching or listening to people speaking English around me.			
Talking to friends in English.			
Trying to use English whenever I have the opportunity.			
Putting myself in situations in which I will be forced to speak in English.			
Studying with a private tutor.			

6. Which English skills would you like to improve?

Functions

- Greeting
- Introducing yourself
- Introducing other people
- Asking for information
- Giving information, instructions, orders, advice
- Asking for help and advice
- Explaining
- Inviting someone to do something
- Making an offer
- Congratulating
- Apologizing

Reading

- I need to read quickly for general understanding.
- I need to read in detail and understand the whole text.
- I need to read to find out particular piece of information.
- I need to read and then explain the content
- I need to read and then translate into my own language
- Quick reading for specific information and key points
- Text analysis

Speaking

- Describing things when you don't know the exact word
- Staying on a topic
- Dealing with communication problems
- Giving oral information
- Dialogue

Writing

- Giving written information
- Reports
- Taking notes on talks
- Emails
- Letters
- Forms: applications, proposals

Listening

- Understanding different accents
- Listening to natural speech
- Listening for the main idea/key points
- Listening to radio, TV and broadcast

7. In class or with a tutor, I would like my teacher to:

	No	A little	Yes
Explain new grammar points before practicing them.			
Practice before explaining new grammar points.			
Correct any mistakes I made in front of others immediately.			
Correct my mistakes of grammar.			
Correct my mistakes of pronunciation.			
Use English only.			
Use both English and my native language.			

8. In your course of study, how often are you expected to use the following skills? (please circle):

	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Reading	1	2	3	4	5
Writing	1	2	3	4	5
Speaking	1	2	3	4	5
Listening	1	2	3	4	5

9. How often do you have difficulty with each of these skills? (please circle):

	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Reading	1	2	3	4	5
Writing	1	2	3	4	5
Speaking	1	2	3	4	5
Listening	1	2	3	4	5

NYILATKOZAT

Alulírott, Burkáló Timea-Taiszia, 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.